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**The Politics of Teachers' Work in the Context
of Curriculum Resources Marketisation Policy
Reforms in Three Secondary Schools in
Tanzania**

**A Thesis Presented in Partial Fulfilment of the Requirements
for the Degree of**

Doctor of Philosophy (PhD)

**at Massey University, Manawatu Campus, Palmerston North,
New Zealand**

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Dedication

I dedicate this thesis to my beloved late parents, *Amsi Mislai Mandoo* and *Axweso Baran Akonina*, for their significant contribution in critical and discursive socialisation and construction of my identity. They spent their energy and resources on my schooling, from primary to tertiary education. Throughout her life, my mother constructed my identity through the discourses that emphasised loving people and life. My father encouraged me to love books and learning, and I will remember his efforts in forming my identity. For the short time I lived with him, he encouraged me to spend my time at school. May both their souls rest in peace.

Further, I dedicate this thesis to my beloved family members: my wife, *Beatrice Hhoki*, and daughters, *Lilian Axweso* and *Glory Arohaina*, for their perseverance for four years during my PhD study between 2011 to 2015.

Declaration

I, **Moshi Amsi Mislav**, declare that this thesis is a product of my own work, except where due acknowledgment has been made, and that it has not been submitted to this University or to any other institution in application for admission to a degree, diploma, or other qualifications.

Thesis Supervisors

This thesis was firmly supervised by:

1. Professor *John Gerard O'Neill*, Massey University Institute of Education
2. Doctor *Kama Jean Weir*, Massey University Institute of Education

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Abstract

Before Tanzania enjoyed the fruits of postcolonial education policy reforms, the country was hit by the world economic crises in the 1970s. Consequently, Tanzania and other developing countries turned to the World Bank and International Monetary Fund (IMF) that imposed, financed, and controlled her education and economic policy through the Structural Adjustment Programmes (SAP) of the 1980s. Thus, Tanzania adopted education privatisation and marketisation policies during the 1990s. More specifically, in 1991, the *Policy on Production and Distribution of School and College Books*, which I will call *Marketisation Policy*, redefined school and college *curriculum resources* according to market principles.

The purpose of this study was to critically analyse how marketisation policy reforms, reconstructed at societal, institutional, and local classroom levels, reshaped teachers' subjectivities and practices between 1992 and 2012. Using an ethnographic case study of three secondary schools from northern Tanzania, the study examines teachers' work histories, politics, and cultures using a combination of Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) (Fairclough, 1989, 1992, 1995, 2015) and the theory of pedagogic discourse (Bernstein, 1971, 1975, 1990, 1996, 1999, 2000). The study aimed to answer three research questions, namely: (1) What policy texts and discourses were constructed in the process of marketisation policy interpretation in secondary schools? (2) How do marketisation policy texts and discourses reshape secondary school teachers' subject positions and pedagogical codes? and (3) How do the subject positions and pedagogical codes constructed by marketisation policy texts and discourses reshape teachers' pedagogic practices and official knowledge construction? Marketisation policy implementation and professional documents, interview and focus group transcripts, and classroom observation notes were collected from the three schools. These were analysed to discern themes that characterised the nature, history, and politics of teachers' work practices.

Findings indicate that marketisation policy texts and discourses positioned secondary school teachers as passive and dependent consumers of marketised curriculum resources (MCR) produced by private publishers and the state. They were also positioned as lacking knowledge to plan, decide, and implement curricula, pedagogic, and evaluation practices. These subject positions constrained teacher creativity and critical thinking, and reproduced capitalist publishers and state power and ideologies through the policy texts and discourses. Curricular, pedagogical, and evaluative cultural practices were dominated and influenced by capitalist publishers and the state through marketisation policy texts and the discourses of finance, MCR, educational materials' approval, and advertising. The study documents how marketisation policy aims, objectives, outcomes, and pedagogic strategies reflected the aims and effects of both colonial and postcolonial education policy.

Teachers and students constructed multiple power/knowledge and resistance to dominant discourses based on accessible MCR, private tuition, past educational training, collaboration with colleagues, and attending some training. However, although

these discourses empowered them to construct and exercise power/knowledge to respond to marketisation policy discursive constraints, they also reconstructed curriculum domination because of students' limited access to MCR and classroom curriculum discourses.

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Abbreviations

BAM	Basic Applied Mathematics
BAKITA	Baraza la Kiswahili la Taifa (National Kiswahili Council)
BMU	Book Management Unit
BAMVITA	Baraza la Maendeleo ya Vitabu Tanzania (Tanzania Book Development Council)
BSAT	Book Sellers Association of Tanzania
CG	Capitation grants
CR	Curriculum resources
CDA	Critical Discourse Analysis
COSMAT	Collaboration to Support Mathematics Teachers
ETP	Education and Training Policy
EMAC	Educational Materials Approval Committee
ELTSP	English Language Teaching Support Project
ESDP	Education Sector Development Programme
EALB	East African Literature Bureau
HOD	Head of Department
ICD	Institute of Curriculum Development
MoEC	Ministry of Education and Culture
MoEVT	Ministry of Education and Vocational Training
MAT	Mathematical Association of Tanzania
MCR	Marketised curriculum resources
MEMKWA	Mpango wa Elimu ya Msingi Kwa Walioiokosa (Complementary Basic
NECTA	The National Examinations Council of Tanzania
PATA	Publishers Association of Tanzania
PEDP	Primary Education Development Programme
PMO-RALG	Prime Minister`s Office, Regional Administration and Local
SEDP	Secondary Education Development Programme
SAP	Structural Adjustment Programmes
TIE	Tanzania Institute of Education
UDSM	University of Dar es Salaam
URT	The United Republic of Tanzania
TWA	Tanzania Writers Association
TEAMS	Teacher Education Assistance in Mathematics and Science Project

INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

Introduction

During the 1980s, privatisation and marketisation received significant attention in global economic and political aspects as opposed to the public sector (Ball, 1994). Following this, the 1990s were a period of intense social, political, and economic transformation in Tanzania and other developing countries through Structural Adjustment Programmes (SAP). Consequently, SAP led to educational privatisation, marketisation, deregulation, and decentralisation policy reforms (Mushi, 2009).

Since the adoption of formal education, secondary schooling and teachers' work in most developing countries and Tanzania in particular have been guided by textbooks produced and distributed from the colonial states in Europe (Altbach, 1992; Altbach & Kelly, 1988; Chadwick, 1990; Farrell & Heyneman, 1988; Neumann, 1980). Textbooks determined secondary school curriculum, pedagogy, and evaluation. Such policy continued even after independence, although the East African Literature Bureau was established by the state in 1966 to coordinate educational publishing (Mcharazo, 2002). Despite these reforms, textbooks continued to dominate teachers' work after independence, and they were mainly produced and distributed by the state.

However, the adoption of privatisation and marketisation policies in the 1990s replaced the state's traditional, social democratic role as a public education funder and provider with a set of ideologies that constructed market discourses of business efficiency, competition, public accountability, decentralisation, and contestation. Thus, in 1991, the *Policy on Production and Distribution of School and College Books* was adopted. This policy transformed school *curriculum resources*¹ from the government to the private sector through the market (URT, 1991). In this study, I call this policy transformation *marketisation policy reforms*². Since 1992, secondary schooling and teachers' work again served, and continue to serve, the capitalist economy through market ideals and values.

My interest and motivation to conduct this study

My interest and motivation to do this study grew out of such political and sociocultural contexts that I and other secondary school teachers experienced over the past two decades. Through a sociology of education theoretical lens, this thesis critically and

systematically examines these teachers' experiences with marketisation policy reforms in three selected secondary schools. It puts teachers and their work at the centre of the schooling process and these policy reforms. Teachers' work encompasses curriculum, pedagogy, and evaluation (Bernstein, 1971). The study historically maps the education policy changes that intersected with marketisation policy reforms and takes a comprehensive approach to understanding social and political changes in teachers' work cultures and politics. Considering the political nature of education policy as state work, this thesis examines how the interaction between the state and private international and local capitalist publishers, policymakers, global financial and economic institutions, the parents, booksellers, and school policy actors reshaped teachers' work.

However, I do not aim to provide solutions to the complex and dynamic challenges of secondary school policy actors and teachers' work practices and outcomes over the past two decades. Rather, I aim to inform policymakers, researchers, practitioners, school administrators, teachers, parents, and students of these historical, sociocultural, and political challenges for policy actions and further research. I do this by deconstructing the dominant marketisation policy discourses that shaped and reshaped secondary school policy actors and teachers' work subjectivities and cultural work practices in the three case study schools. My goal was to acquaint education stakeholders and readers with multiple facets of those challenges based on school policy actors, subject teachers, and students' lived personal experiences, beliefs, perceptions, and desires.

The study's focus

In the research process, I applied critical and poststructural educational policy analysis epistemologies to critically analyse and deconstruct the constructive and constitutive effects of marketisation policy reform innovation on secondary teachers' work in one national setting through a case study of three secondary schools between 1992 and 2012. I addressed the following research questions:

1. What policy texts and discourses were constructed in the process of marketisation policy interpretation in secondary schools?
2. How do marketisation policy texts and discourses reshape secondary school teachers' subject positions and pedagogical codes?

3. How do the subject positions and pedagogical codes constructed by marketisation policy texts and discourses reshape teachers' pedagogic practices and official knowledge construction?

Purposively selected participants provided data through semi-structured face-to-face interviews, focus group discussions, and non-participant observation of teachers' and students' classroom practices. These data sources and the ethnographic case study design helped to answer the research questions.

I employed a broader conceptualisation of CR to avoid past researchers' (Altbach, 1989; Altbach & Gopinathan, 1988; Apple & Christian-Smith, 1991; Heyneman & Farrel, 1978; Lockheed, Vail, & Fuller, 1986; Moulton, 1997; Neumann, 1980; Nevo, 2006; Pearce, 1982) conceptual limitations of 'textbooks' as if these were the only teachers' work resources. Similarly, I adopted a CR list that would be produced and distributed in the context of marketisation. These included a textbook, non-textual material, a pupil's book, reader, reference book, supplementary book, syllabus, teacher's guide, and textual material (URT, 2005g). I adopted the term *marketised curriculum resources* (MCR) throughout this thesis to mean all 'textual' and 'non-textual' resources. However, the market may have produced and distributed mostly the 'textual', while the curriculum work also required 'non-textual' resources, which were defined as material "objects intended to be used in the teaching/learning process"³ (URT, 2005g, p. ii).

Thesis overview

Chapter 1 situates marketisation policy in the wider historical, political, economic, and social reform contexts and discusses its implications for secondary school teachers' work. It begins with Tanzania's socioeconomic information and education system overview and policy reforms before and after independence. Emphasis is on local, national, and global politics that led to the formulation, adoption, and implementation of marketisation policy reforms and their implications for secondary schooling and teachers' work.

Chapter 2 focuses on the historical, political, and sociocultural contexts of secondary teachers' work in the face of education policy reforms based on theoretical and empirical studies. It locates the thesis in the wider existing knowledge, and delineates some research knowledge gaps warranting the study by developing a problem

statement and research questions. Chapter 3 describes the theoretical tools that guided the study from data collection, to analysis and findings' presentation. It is argued that policy analysis has moved away from a positivist to *critical* and *poststructural* research epistemologies to expose and challenge forms of hidden powers, ideologies, and policy silences that reproduce dominant policy discourses and inequalities.

Chapter 4 notes the suitable methodology and methods used in data collection and analysis. I argue that ethnographic case study suited the study's epistemological frame because it focuses on selected schools, classrooms, and individual teachers' work cultural practices that constrained and facilitated curriculum and knowledge construction.

Chapters 5 to 9 present study findings based on the research questions established in Chapter 2. Chapter 5 describes the historical, political, and sociocultural contexts that define the three case study schools and participants' work during marketisation policy interpretation. Chapter 6 describes how these contexts reconstructed struggles at macro- and micro-political levels of marketisation policy interpretation. It identifies the multiple competing and contradictory policy discourses constructed at local, institutional, and societal levels and their implications for teachers' work in the case study schools. Chapter 7 critically analyses how marketisation policy discourses positioned teachers as passive and dependent consumers by reshaping their knowledge, attitudes, perceptions, beliefs, and ideologies, and their implications for teacher professional identity. Teacher professional identity is defined as teacher knowledge, autonomy, and participation in policy decision making, and curriculum, pedagogy, and evaluation.

Chapter 8 considers the cultural politics of a marketised curriculum and official knowledge. It discusses how marketised texts and the subject positioning discussed in Chapter 7 produced and reproduced dominant cultures: power/knowledge, ideologies, and beliefs among teachers, students, and society. These cultures reflect the reproduction of politics of domination based on class, race, gender, ethnicity, and professional power/knowledge.

Chapter 9 shows how some secondary teachers in the case study schools constructed their identity by resisting, contesting, negotiating, or complying with the dominant marketisation policy discourses. Chapter 10 summarises the study's findings and discusses its contribution to existing knowledge on education marketisation policy and teachers' work. Findings are compared and contrasted with available literature and

theoretical frameworks that guided the study. Chapter 11 provides a conclusion and recommendations for policy and research based on the study findings. In the next chapter, I situate marketisation policy reforms in Tanzania's wider historical, socio-political, and economic contexts within which it was adopted and implemented.

CHAPTER ONE

TANZANIA'S NATIONAL EDUCATION POLICY CONTEXT

1.1 Introduction and chapter overview

Colonial education policy in Tanzania served world capitalist economies by constructing colonial ideals, values, and attitudes relevant for European capitalist economies (Mushi, 2009). Despite post-independence education policy reforms, education continued the colonial legacy of exploitation and discrimination until 1967. Between 1967 and 1992, education policy served socialist interests, values, and attitudes through a socialist political ideology and *Education for Self-Reliance* policy (Mushi, 2009). However, with the adoption of SAP in the mid-1980s, policy emphasis shifted to privatisation, marketisation, deregulation, and decentralisation. The purpose of this chapter is to examine these education policy reforms that were adopted and implemented since the pre-colonial period and show the context in which marketisation policy reforms were adopted in the 1990s. I situate education policy into the wider historical, political, economic, and social contexts. I focus on achievements and weaknesses resulting from struggles to enact, adopt, and implement education policy. Further, the chapter will consider the implications of such struggles for secondary teachers' work.

I divide this chapter into five sections. The first section describes Tanzania's basic geographical, socioeconomic, and political situations and presents an overview of the education system and structure. In section two, I discuss the education policy reforms before independence and the nature of teachers' work. Section three divides reforms between independence and the 1990s into three phases: between 1961 and 1965; between 1966 and 1980; and between 1980 and 1990. Section four presents the reforms after the 1990s and notes the general education sector privatisation and marketisation, and secondary school policy in particular. Section five highlights some of the challenges of secondary schooling and teachers' work after privatisation and marketisation.

1.2 Basic information about Tanzania and its education system

Below I provide basic information about Tanzania and the structure of its education system. This offers background knowledge for understanding the contexts in which this study was conducted.

1.2.1 Basic information

The United Republic of Tanzania (URT) is the country's official name, hereinafter referred to as Tanzania. It consists of the Mainland and Zanzibar Island. It is located in East Africa between latitudes 1° and 12°S and between longitudes 29° and 41°E (Kiunsi et al., 2006). About 80% of Tanzanians are rural peasants (Lawrence, 2009), spread in 26 regions and 130 administrative districts and councils. Out of these districts, 22 are urban and 108 are in rural areas. This study was conducted in Arusha Region, located in northern Tanzania Mainland, bordering with Kenya (Figure 1).



Figure 1: A map of Tanzania with Arusha Region as an area of study.

Source: http://www.tanzaniaparks.com/tanzania_map.html

1.2.2 Education structure and secondary school curriculum organisation

Tanzania's formal education structure consists of 2:7:4:2:3-5. That is, 2 years of non-compulsory pre-primary, 7 years primary, 4 years of ordinary, 2 years of advanced secondary, and up to 3 or more years of tertiary or university education (URT, 1995b). Two levels of secondary education are ordinary and advanced. Ordinary level begins after passing Primary School Leaving Examinations, conducted after seven years. However, those not selected may join private secondary schools if their parents can pay. Public and private secondary schools in Tanzania may be boarding, day, or both.

Primary school curricula are constructed in Swahili, except for English medium schools. English is for secondary, tertiary, and higher education. However, both English and Swahili are taught as compulsory subjects at both primary and secondary schools, respectively. At Ordinary secondary level, the curriculum is organised between seven to 13 compulsory subjects. These are broadly categorised as: the arts, natural sciences, business, and home economics (URT, 1995b).

After four years of Ordinary, students sit for final national examinations, which are set, administered, and marked by one central body, the National Examinations Council of Tanzania (NECTA). NECTA organises performance in five divisions: I, II, III, IV, and 'ZERO/FAILED'. After passing NECTA exams, students may join Forms V and VI. Curriculum at this level consists of a combination of three 'principal subjects' and one or two 'subsidiary' subjects.

Teachers were trained in two subjects' of specialisation for two years at Teachers' Training Colleges for a *Diploma in Education* qualification; from 2005, they had to study for three years for a university *Bachelors' Degree* (which was four years before 2005). However, because of shortages of qualified teachers, there were Grade IIIA Certificate teachers who were employed after completing two years' teacher certificate training, or 'Teaching Licence', especially in government schools (URT, 2013).

Before 2008, secondary education was under the Ministry of Education and Culture (MoEC). From 2008, its management and coordination shifted to both the Ministry of Education and Vocational Training (MoEVT) and the Prime Minister's Office, Regional Administration and Local Government (PMO-RALG). MoEVT only coordinates secondary education policy issues. However, as discussed later, rather than

simplifying administration, this shift complicated it because of the bureaucratic nature involved in the two ministries.

1.3 Tanzania's secondary education policy before independence

In what follows, I trace Tanzania's secondary education policy history and politics from the pre-colonial era to independence to see how secondary education and the curriculum were areas of intense political and social struggles, with various social and political groups aiming to dominate and control them for their own interests.

1.3.1 Tanzania's pre-colonial education policy

Many of Tanzania's pre-colonial societies educated their children to transmit social, cultural, and political values, knowledge, and beliefs through family and clan socialisations (Buchert, 1994; Ssekamwa & Lugumba, 2001). However, there were no formal classrooms and written books, but family members and selected clan members provided knowledge and skills for preparing youngsters to play their sociopolitical role. Education policy and curriculum therefore differed across clans and places, as determined by the economic, sociocultural, and political needs of that society (Mushi, 2009). Each clan or tribe had its media of instruction because each had its own language and cultures. Curricula related to cultural knowledge and beliefs were constructed mainly through oral stories, proverbs, sayings, and legends as pedagogies (Mushi, 2009). It was noted by the World Bank (1988) that pre-colonial education was "an important transmitter of cultural identity from one generation to the next" (p. 11), and prepared children for economic, gender, and political socialisations. However, it also reproduced gender discriminatory cultures and stereotyping. For example, clan leadership was limited to males.

Before the 19th century, such pre-colonial education was later influenced by societal contacts with Swahili traders who, through the Muslim cultures, contributed to acculturate the people into 'Swahili civilisation', especially along the coast (Furley & Watson, 1978). These cultures were constructed through Quranic schools that emphasised religious curricular content more than other kinds of knowledge (Mushi, 2009). During the 19th century, Tanzanian society was invaded by European colonialists who brought formal education in classrooms and with textbooks.

1.3.2 Colonial education policy and the construction of cultural and ideological change

Colonial education policy created a historical and political framework on which the current education policy is based. Historically, Tanganyika was a British mandate after the First World War up to independence in 1961. According to Mushi (2009), four main objectives motivated colonialists to establish formal schooling in African countries, guided by textbooks and formal classrooms. First, they aimed to prepare a few Africans to support colonialists in lower administrative tasks, like the army, police, and messengers who were locally called *akida*, and *liwalis*. Second, they wanted to change Africans' ideological worldviews to believe that colonialists were 'superior' to themselves and, therefore, be 'submissive' to colonialist orders. Third, education was "a mechanism for integrating indigenous cultures and incorporating colonial subjects into the colonial imperialist system" (p. 68), which functioned to transform the relevant sociocultural attitudes and values to produce and reproduce domination and control. Fourth, the colonialists planned to prepare markets for a class of consumers of industrial products from Europe.

Such objectives were achieved by shaping the curriculum, pedagogy, and evaluation in the following ways. First, the school curriculum contents were determined by the colonial powers through subject syllabi and depended on textbooks that were also produced and distributed from the same colonial powers (Ssekamwa & Lugumba, 2001). Second, most secondary schoolteachers were of European origin. These teachers were trained, employed, and controlled by the colonial state. Third, the colonial government funded schools through 'grants-in-aid' to control the curricula contents for both missionary and state schools to achieve the above sociopolitical and ideological interests (Cameron, 1970; Furley & Watson, 1978; Ssekamwa & Lugumba, 2001). Fourth, the colonial government introduced English, while Swahili and some native languages were also used as major languages of instruction (LOI). However, each of these languages played a distinct ideological and political function, with English as a hegemonic tool. Swahili and some native languages were maintained in interior schools to facilitate communications in administration, trade, and tribal relations. Jones (1925) noted how the colonial government was:

...seriously considering the relative importance of the Native language, Swahili, and English, as languages of instruction in schools. The claim of the local

vernaculars is clear, so far as the early stages of education are concerned. The advantages of Swahili are obvious for trade exchange and the simpler inter-tribal relationships. The importance of English, or the language of the Power in control, is the establishment of a means of communication with Government and an acquaintance with the great literature of civilization. (p. 174).

Fifth, the school curriculum was evaluated through centrally-set and marked examinations from Cambridge University for the purpose of selecting a few individuals for further training to help colonial administration achieve its hegemonic and ideological domination and exploitation (Mushi, 2009). Sixth, despite the paucity of literature on textbook production and distribution, available sources indicate that these processes began during the British colonial period in 1948 under the East African Literature Bureau (EALB) (Mcharazo, 2002; URT, 2004b). EALB was owned and dominated by colonialists and coordinated book production, distribution, and other materials in East Africa. Most schoolbooks were in the English language. Less effort was made to develop mechanisms for producing schoolbooks within Tanzania, and no strong publishing firms were established for two reasons (Altbach & Kelly, 1988).. First, the colonial education policy educated only a small population for colonial administration purposes, and African informal education did not rely on written books. Thus, there were less indigenous efforts to publish books as the colonialists did. Second, schools in Tanzania were markets for capitalist, industrial publishing products, including textbooks.

Because of the above and other reasons, Cliffe (1969) and Mushi (2009) argue that colonial education policy contradicted African cultural values and ideologies and constructed class, race, ethnic, and gender discrimination and inequalities. Moreover, the formal colonial education system destroyed pre-colonial, indigenous, traditional education and constructed colonialist culture, ideologies, knowledge, and skills (Ball, 1983). For example, there were schools for Europeans, Africans, and Asians, and girls were highly discriminated against boys because colonialists wanted labour for their interests. There were also geographic disparities as more emphasis was on the northern regions where the missionaries had strongholds and along the coastal regions Quranic curricular dominated schools. I conclude this section by arguing that such discrimination, inequalities, school financing, management structures, and dependence on colonial powers for school publishing were inherited after independence and were maintained and reproduced.

1.4 Education policy reforms and politics after independence

Since independence, Tanzania has undergone several education policy reforms. For the purpose of this thesis, I divide these into four major periods: between 1961 and 1965; between 1966 and 1980; 1981 to 1990; and after 1990 (URT, 1995b).

1.4.1 Educational policy reforms between 1961 and 1965

After independence, *The First Three-Year Plan* (1961-1963) was adopted and simultaneously implemented with the *1962 Education Act* (Cliffe, 1969; URT, 1995b). Both of these policies aimed to structure education to meet national socioeconomic objectives and eliminate the racial and religious discrimination inherited from colonialism. Moreover, they also aimed at regional integration by bringing together children from different areas to develop a sense of national unity and to construct schools in areas that had none to reduce imbalances created by colonial legacy (URT, 1995b). In addition, they aimed to improve the quality and access to primary education to fight against social problems of “poverty, ignorance, and disease” (URT, 1995b, p. x). However, as with colonial education policy, greater emphasis and larger budgets were allocated for physical facilities, teacher training, and curriculum materials for primary education (URT, 1995b). This is because by that time, primary education was considered important in eliminating the majority of social and economic problems and inequalities.

Further, secondary school fees were abolished in 1964 to improve education access (Galabawa, 1990). However, this policy was not extended to primary schools “until 1973 as they were considered minimal compared to secondary school fees” (p. 6). This perpetuated inequality in secondary education access because some parents could not afford primary school fees (Mbilinyi, 1976).

Although the secondary curriculum was reorganised to promote Kiswahili as the ‘national language’ and became the primary school LOI (Mushi, 2009), it “remained essentially British in outlook, although some subjects such as history, geography and political education were introduced” (Galabawa, 1990, p. 6). According to Galabawa, Cambridge examinations continued for student selection that created a ‘pyramidal education system’ as very few students proceeded to higher levels. However, as in the colonial period, the post-independence education policy still prepared manpower for the socioeconomic and political sectors (Cooksey, 1986).

In 1965, the East African Publishing House (EAPH) succeeded EALB to provide school CR. However, to improve its own efforts, in 1966, Tanzania established the Tanzania Publishing House (TPH) that worked in international partnership with Macmillan Publishers Limited (Franklin Book Programs, 1966; URT, 2004b). Thus, most textbook publishing companies remained of British origin and included Oxford University Press for English books, and Longman, Nelson, Evans Brothers, and George Phillips for mathematics (Franklin Book Programs, 1966). However, there was little publishing conducted by missionary centres.

1.4.2 Educational policy reforms between 1966 and 1980

Between 1966 and 1980, the *First Five-Year Plan* (1965-1969) (Nyerere, 1973), which was a continuation of The First Three-Year Plan, was adopted to prepare the workforce for national development and poverty eradication (Nyerere, 1974). This plan coincided with a radical shift in political and social ideology through the 1967 *Arusha Declaration* (Nyerere, 1968) that introduced the *Education for Self-reliance* (ESR) policy (Cooksey, 1986; Nyerere, 1967). These policies emphasised the centrality of public and private sector participation in education, and CR production and distribution were eliminated for being exploitative (Mushi, 2009). ESR was adopted because “there was no significant changes in the goals and objectives of education” (URT, 1995b, p. ii) and curriculum between 1961 and 1965. ESR objectives and implementation were politically and legally reinforced through *The 1969 Education Act* (URT, 1969) and *Musoma Resolution* of 1974. The latter emphasised Universal Primary Education (UPE) (Biswalo, 1985), hoping to integrate education with work to produce self-reliant graduates to join a largely rural community. The resolution categorically stated that secondary and higher education should construct knowledge and skills to prepare graduates to assume middle and high level jobs for the economy (Mushi, 2009). Between 1970 and 1974, less emphasis was put on secondary education compared to primary and adult education. The management and administration of the latter were decentralised to empower local authorities (URT, 1995b), although resources were still organised and controlled at the regional and district levels.

ESR policy had less fundamental reforms in the secondary curriculum. This is because, for example, ‘Social Studies’ curricula contents and pedagogy continued to focus on the history, economics, and politics taking place in socialist states, like China,

the former USSR, as well as the former colonial states (URT, 1996a, 1996d). This was observed by an English Language panel that met in 1973 to revise the English Language curriculum, which noted the “irrelevance of the Cambridge Literature syllabus” (Vella, 1973, p. 15) and reviewed it. However, this revision was still irrelevant because most English Literature contents and textbooks were those that were published in Europe and continued to shape colonialist powers and ideology among students and society. No such textbooks were from Tanzanian contexts, and some of them are still in use today (URT, 1996c, 2010c).

Further, the ESR was highly misinterpreted and criticised by some teachers, students, and the community (Lema, 1973). For them, Lema argues, ESR meant “farm work” (p. 34), and students spent many hours in farming. For some less motivated students, farming was an opportunity to abstain themselves from classroom lessons (p. 35). For private school students, it meant a “substitute for school fees” (p. 34). For parents and the community, it meant ‘manual work’, and those with negative attitudes against manual work highly resisted. Thus, ESR perpetuated colonial education policy and failed to develop students’ critical and independent minds that would empower and eliminate “attitudes of inequality, intellectual arrogance and intense individualism among the young people” (Nyerere, 1968, p. 54).

Yet, although ESR encouraged schools to prepare children for self-reliance, between 1967 and 1985, the state economy and education sector increased its dependence on major socialist countries for economic and education financing (Yeager, 1982). These countries were China and the former USSR (Yeager, 1982). Further, as Yeager argues, during the 1980s, this dependence shifted to the World Bank, Sweden, Norway, and the Netherlands: “Tanzania remains heavily dependent on the caprices of its trade and aid partners. National interests may be determined in Dar es Salaam, but the pursuit of these interests is constrained by decisions taken in more powerful capitals.” (p. 104). This contradicted with ESR and Tanzania’s *Non Alignment* foreign policy. With this dependence and the above problems, coupled with low educational demands rooted in low income, the publishing industry in Tanzania remained small (Altbach & Kelly, 1988).

In 1963, the Institute of Curriculum Development (ICD), under the Ministry of Education, was established (URT, 1995b). ICD guaranteed and coordinated the quality of the school curriculum at pre-primary, primary, and secondary schools and teacher

training levels. However, its functions were redefined from designing, developing, testing, reviewing, and/or revising curricula.

Between 1966 and 1977, textbook production and distribution continued to be under the foreign-controlled EAPH in collaboration with TPH (Mcharazo, 2002). However, according to Mcharazo, after the collapse of the East African Community in 1977, school textbook publishing in Tanzania hardly took place because EAPH lacked a branch in Tanzania other than sales offices. Further, Tanzania Elimu Supplies (TES), a government organ established in 1967, distributed school CR (Mcharazo, 2002). Thus, after 1977, TPH was the main book publisher for all schools and education colleges. However, in this period, private commercial publishers emerged, with few owned by government religious civil society institutions (Mcharazo, 2002).

Between 1966 and 1980, school textbook publishing and distribution were monopolised and centralised by government. In this period, all schools used a single textbook for each subject. This centralisation and monopolisation controlled school curriculum content through textbook standards, content objectivity, and fact correctness (Altbach, 1989, 1992, 1996; Altbach & Kelly, 1988; DFID, 2011). This was possible because trained curriculum experts, who were mostly experienced schoolteachers, developed textbooks. However, monopoly and centralisation led to poor quality textbooks; demotivation among state publishing companies to correct textbook errors; poor physical production quality; irregular, incorrect, and unproductive book distribution due to under-funding; school complaints about supplies; and poor financial management (DFID, 2011; URT, 2004h). According to Altbach (1992), because of problems, state textbook production and distribution in most developing countries collapsed at the end of the 1980s.

The 1969 Education Act was repealed by the *1978 Education Act* (URT, 1978), which centralised school administration and introduced a Commissioner for Education position. The commissioner was responsible for the establishment, coordination, and regulation of new schools (URT, 1978). Furthermore, the Act centralised school curricula and syllabi production under ICD.

The 1978 Education Act re-established *School Boards* for secondary schools to oversee school administration. The Act also established *The Inspectorate Department* at the Ministry headquarters, and at regional and district levels for the monitoring and evaluation of school and college activities. Finally, the Act made the registration and

licensing of teachers compulsory. Thus, all teachers in the country were registered, and those who had no formal training were licenced to teach in schools.

In the 1970s, Tanzania also experienced some local, national, and global crises, such as deterioration in terms of trade, agricultural stagnation, increases in the price of oil, and the Tanzania-Uganda war that culminated in weak, government fiscal policies (Lugalla, 1995; Meena, 1991). According to Meena, these crises affected the economy as well as the education sector, leading the country to borrow from the World Bank and IMF and selling the government's gold reserves to finance social services. However, borrowing from IMF was associated with conditions imposed through programmes, such as the *Structural Adjustment Programme* (SAP), which I discuss below.

1.4.3 Educational policy reforms during the adoption of SAP (1980-1990)

Following the 1970s' crises, more education sector reforms were initiated through the 1981 *Presidential Commission on Education* via the *Makweta Commission* (URT, 1984) that assessed educational challenges facing the country. The Commission recommended the introduction of a *Teachers' Service Commission* (TSC); the *Tanzania Professional Teachers Association*; new curriculum for primary, secondary, and teacher education; and secondary education expansion. However, such recommendations coincided with SAP that supported privatisation, marketisation, deregulation, and decentralisation policies (Muganda, 1999). Through the World Bank and IMF, capitalist powers rationalised their ideological interests on privatisation and borrowing for education financing. In one of its popular reports, *Education in Sub-Saharan Africa: Policies for adjustment, revitalization, and expansion* (World Bank, 1988), the World Bank argued:

Although undoubtedly painful and politically difficult, adjustment policies will alleviate the burden of education and training on public budgets. Measures for revitalization and expansion, however, will certainly require additional resources. Thus, in the context of ongoing austerity in Africa, resolute movement toward adjustment is a necessary condition for implementing forward-looking policies on the other two dimensions. (p. 2).

The report continued to construct market ideologies that emphasised reducing government spending and financial resources' expansion. However, most emphasis seems to be in the primary rather than in other education subsectors (Brock-Utne, 2000). For example, for secondary education, the report de-emphasised boarding schooling and supported distance education (World Bank, 1988, p. 5). It is argued that, to a greater

extent, these and other World Bank reports influenced the *National Task Force on Education* recommendations in 1989 (Jones, 1992, 2007; Muganda, 1999). One major recommendation was the formulation and adoption of the *Education and Training Policy* (ETP) in 1995 (URT, 1995b), which was backed by the *Education (Amendment) Act Number 10* (URT, 1995a).

According to Jones (1992, 2007), the World Bank, in collaboration with other international agencies, such as United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO), United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund (UNICEF), and United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), continued to reconstruct developing countries' economic and educational policies for capitalist interests, through, for example, the 1990s *Education for All* (EFA) movements. Similarly, as Brock-Utne (2000, 2001) notes, while emphasising EFA, capitalists constructed what she calls "cultural conditionality", and insisting on "the purchase of textbooks written and published abroad, use of examination systems devised in the West, adoption of 'international' ... standards, and the neglect of African culture, including African languages." (2000, pp. 125-126).

In many developing countries, SAP also led to the marketisation of school textbooks in the 1990s. For example, this was noted in Kenya, Côte d'Ivoire, Cameroon, Lesotho, and Zambia (Couassi-Ble, 1999; World Bank, 2008). Others were Malawi, Djibouti, Somalia, Mozambique, Nigeria, Botswana, Rwanda, Togo, Uganda, and Ghana. The World Bank controlled textbooks through funding and procurement guidelines which emphasised "economy and efficiency; equal opportunity to all members; encouragement to domestic industries; transparency in the procurement process" (Sigurdsson, 1999, p. 144) and competition to achieve such objectives.

However, while emphasising these values, studies (Altbach, 1992; Altbach & Kelly, 1988; Chadwick, 1990; Farrell & Heyneman, 1988; Neumann, 1980) continued to construct textbook power as the most reliable factor in increasing students' achievement, especially in schools with inadequate teachers. This would require, among others, teacher training, government commitment, and well-built publishing institutions (Altbach, 1992). However, this emphasis contradicted local realities in developing countries and the global neoliberal politics that emphasised education marketisation and privatisation policy reforms, as discussed below.

1.5 Education policy reforms after 1990: The politics of neoliberalism

As discussed above, both internal and external political and socioeconomic contexts led to privatisation and marketisation policies in the 1990s. This policy shift was made despite the education system's low performance in curriculum policymaking and interpretation in secondary schools because of the 'top-down' policy process and framework, accompanied by less power and schools' dependence on central government (Kiwia, 1994). Kiwia argued that schools and LGAs be empowered to develop and manage educational resources to improve the education system's performance and teachers' work.

As Colclough (1996) argues, educational privatisation and marketisation policies were supported by neoliberals who emphasised replacing previous state dominated 'orthodox' policies in education provision. As Munck (2005) states, neoliberals constructed ideologies whereby the "market symbolizes rationality in terms of an efficient distribution of resources ... [and the government was seen as] ...undesirable because it transgresses that rationality and conspires against both efficiency and liberty." (p. 61). Similarly, the World Bank and IMF argued that "education systems should be financed more directly by private households, particularly under the sharply constrained financial circumstances facing many governments in the south" (Colclough, 1996, p. 590). Based on World Bank and IMF discourses, Tanzania adopted ETP in 1995. ETP emphasised and formally documented education liberalisation, privatisation, and subsidy reduction (URT, 1995b). It was argued that ETP was consistent with state macro policy, aiming at "increased role of the private sector; continued liberalization of the economy; provision of essential resources to priority areas; increased investment in infrastructure and social sectors; and the introduction of cost sharing measures" (p. xi).

However, some ETP policy statements were contradictory. For example, there was inconsistency between state provisions of "essential resources to priority areas ... [while encouraging] ... liberalization of trade and other systems" (URT, p. xi). It is clear that the latter reduces state sources of finance and, therefore, reproduces the problem of governments' 'limited domestic resource base'. Further, the policy on "increased investment in infrastructures and social development sectors, especially health and education ... [contradicted with that of] ... reduction of subsidies, and introduction of cost recovery and cost sharing measures" (p. xi). Similarly, while emphasising these policies, ETP proposed six major contradictory education policies: decentralisation;

quality improvement; expansion of education and training; promotion of science and technology; promotion of access and equity; and cost sharing (URT, 1995b). It is not clear how these contradictory policies would have achieved the 1997 *Education Sector Development Programme* (ESDP) objectives of improving access, quality, gender disparity, funding, and science and technology (URT, 1999b, 2004d, 2007).

Although the government continued to monopolise school CR production and distribution at the end of the 1980s, the publishing sector continued to operate on a small scale with similar problems discussed above (Mcharazo, 2002; Pearce, 1982; URT, 2004b). However, in an effort to sustain the private publishing industry, the Publishers' Association of Tanzania (PATA) was formed in 1987 (Mjasiri, 2011; URT, 2004b). Such problems also attracted school textbook marketisation in developing countries in the 1990s (Altbach, 1992; Altbach & Kelly, 1988; DFID, 2011). On the other hand, during the 1990s, curriculum construction was characterised by large classes, less science experiments, less inquiry-based learning, and a lack of consideration of gender equality in the curriculum (Chonjo, Osaki, Possi, & Mrutu, 1995). Further, teachers lacked the motivation to construct the curriculum using local resources and contexts (Osaki, 2007), a problem that coincided with marketisation policy reforms discussed below.

1.5.1 The politics of marketisation policy reforms

The marketisation of school textbook production and distribution began in 1991 with a *Policy on Production and Distribution of School and College Books* (see Appendix 33 for the full policy document). The marketisation policy was implemented at national, regional, and school levels from 1992, followed by a transition period whose length was unclear to the policymakers (URT, 1991). In what follows, I discuss the various policy statements that constructed the politics of marketisation.

1.5.1.1 The politics of empowering the private local publishers

The following observations were clear from my critical analysis of marketisation policy implementation. First, the policy reconstructed dependence on Western capitalism through the *Pilot Project for Publishing* (PPP) financed by the Swedish International Development Agency (SIDA) and implemented at the national level between 1993 and 2000. PPP aimed to capacitate local private sector publishers and booksellers disempowered in the 1970s (Mcharazo, 2002; Mkuchu, 2004; Stridsman, 1999).

However, as Graham and Pehrsson (2004) note, despite some training provided, PPP had little direct effect on the textbook sector in terms of production and distribution due to government financial bureaucracy, and poverty among the communities. They noted that PPP implementation was affected by the government's inflexible hierarchy and culture. This structure made it "difficult for all the ministries involved with education ... to coordinate action" (p. ix). Similarly, Stridsman (1999) noted that the PPP implementation was inadequate to meet the newly emerging publishing industry's and booksellers' needs. The government tendered 49 TIE-authored book titles to Oxford and Macmillan (URT, 2004b), companies that also benefited from the tax abolition on imported publishing materials. Further, TIE was discontinued from textbook publishing in 1996.

Second, *marketisation policy objectives* empowered private sector publishers and distributors by stating that they "aimed at transforming the [t]extbook production and distribution to a complete commercialized system whereby the entire book provision would be marshalled by publishers" (URT, 1991, p. 1). However, the reasons for the transformation were backgrounded, which could indicate the weaknesses and successes of the previous single textbook policy. As a public policy, an education policy is intended to attain a stated or understood educational purpose (Althaus, Bridgman & Davis, 2013) as its statement of purpose, objectives, and strategies. This basic component was lacking in the policy document. Moreover, there was unclear scope and meaning of 'commercialised books' that would be produced and distributed to schools by the private sector.

Third, the policy constructed contradictory statements that empowered the private sector through *book production and distribution* during the so-called 'transition period' and in 'the long-run'. For example, ICD would "continue to prepare/manage manuscripts for most of the subjects while publishers would be contracted to prepare some ...[or] revise a few titles which have already been in use in schools" (URT, 1991, p. 1). At the same time, the policy statements empowered the government through the Prime Minister's Office and District Councils to distribute "primary education materials" (p. 1) to schools. Further, without explaining the modalities of these materials' transportation, the policymakers assumed that this would be the task of "public/parastatal and private companies" (p. 1) during the transition to marketisation.

In the 'long-run', ICD was to centrally develop curriculum, and the government would facilitate textbook production and distribution rather than its "direct

involvement” (URT, 1991, p. 2). Further, the government would “simply recommend suitable titles for use in schools” (p. 2). The private publishers and booksellers were empowered to “assume the entire activities of production and distribution” (p. 2) for schools’ MCR. Unlike the previous textbook policy, marketisation separated curriculum design and development from textbook production and distribution.

Marketisation policy statements also disempowered the government by constructing the long-term political structures for school CR production distribution models (URT, 1991). Thus, the government transferred the entire process to the publishers to supply MCR for consumers to obtain at a market price. It is stated, when “the system matures, publishers would be responsible for warehousing, marketing and sales of books” (p. 4) and that “the bookshop network would continue to expand to cover all townships” (p. 4) in Tanzania. This policy statement assumes that the state’s role under marketisation would “gradually disappear as the new system develops” (p. 4).

Five alternative distribution models were constructed that policymakers perceived would be effective under various circumstances. The first three of these models linked MCR distribution from publishers, wholesalers/retailers to schools or through District Councils (URT, 1991, p. 4). The fourth model linked distribution from publishers to schools without District Councils, and the fifth involved direct distribution from publishers to parents. Thus, unlike the previous school textbook policy, the marketisation policy constructed parents as passive participants in MCR distribution and acquisition by obtaining from the publishers as far as the business model is concerned (URT, 1991, p. 5). Further, it was presupposed that schools could passively “get the supplies directly from the Wholesalers/Retailers”, (p. 4) but only if they “are under strong management and funds are managed directly by them” (p. 4). These discourses presuppose that without strong school institutional and financial management, both MCR and financial supplies and distribution would be problematic.

Fourth, the policy statements also contradicted *the politics of incapability of the domestic private sector* by stating that “after publishers have acquired much experience in successful publishing and have improved financially they would be contracted to publish up to printing and marketing” (URT, 1991, p. 1). This is a contradiction because while there were training programmes for local publishers, all TIE contracts for school books were given to international, experienced publishers who did not need such training. Thus, it was not clear for whose books these local publishers were trained for.

Fifth, government disempowerment came with contracting TIE-authored textbooks to multinational capitalist publishers in 2004 as part of SEDP implementation. Following the transition to marketisation and the subsequent World Bank-funded SEDP adoption in 2004, TIE stopped school textbook production as a condition for acquiring World Bank funds. TIE finalised the contracts for all its textbook manuscripts previously used by teachers and students in schools to private multinational publishing companies, including Oxford and Macmillan (URT, 2004b). The contracts listed all textbooks formerly produced by TIE and stated, “conditions for sale” and “payments” and legal issues of contract “termination” and “arbitration” (URT, 2004c, p. 1). Contracting TIE titles was followed by reforming TIE in 1993, marking another step in the capitalist penetration of educational publishing for Tanzania’s schools, and teachers and students, as one of its reliable markets (URT, 2004b).

1.5.1.2 The politics of competition

Unlike the former textbook policy, the marketisation policy shaped and reshaped competition among producers and buyers, although the modality and nature of competition was backgrounded. Thus, book authoring was “open to all interested individuals and institutions (public and private)” (URT, 1991, p. 3), without specifying any relevant academic qualifications and experience for school CR production. This policy made school CR publishing accessible to any particular producers, regardless of knowledge, skills, and experience in educational publishing. The school curriculum opened up a free business playground for profit making, with private publishers and booksellers as major players and secondary school administrators, teachers, and students as passive receivers. The policy (URT, 1991) states:

This task would be open to all interested individuals and institutions (public and private). Individuals may write manuscripts and endeavour to find publishers. On the other hand, commercial publishers would be expected to initiate manuscript writing through commissioning writers. (p. 3).

Competition was also constructed in MCR transportation for both “public/parastatal and private companies [who] would compete through tender to be selected” (URT, 1991, p. 1). However, the emphasis on distribution was clearly on primary, not secondary schools. Moreover, competition was further constructed in the preparation and management of book manuscripts, as stated: “publishers would be contracted to prepare

some on a competitive basis” (p. 1). As noted above, competition was a World Bank policy, which stated that textbook “procurement is best obtained through international competitive bidding” (Sigurdsson, 1999, p. 144).

1.5.1.3 Institutional restructuring and reformation

The marketisation policy adoption called for institutional establishment and restructuring because of the government’s changing role in policy implementation. First, as stated above, TIE was reformed to its new name in 1993 to give way to marketisation because its former roles as ICD included textbook authoring and publishing. Second, EMAC was established in 1998 based at MoEC headquarters (URT, 1999c). Its Secretariat handled daily operations, registrations, coding of approved titles, coordinating evaluation of curricular materials, preparing and keeping minutes of meetings, and secretarial services (URT, 1999c). Two manuals describing materials approval objectives, criteria, and process guided its operations. Teachers would be assisted “to select books, by guaranteeing the objectivity, correctness and relevance of the material.” (URT, 1999c, p. 4). The policy texts constructed politics and ideology among teachers and stakeholders that MCR would be approved objectively and correctly without any human values and bias to improve education quality to:

- first evaluate, and then approve, proposed changes or reject educational materials intended for school use, using recognised experts’ advice under open and transparent criteria;
- improve the quality, relevance, and suitability of educational materials;
- enhance the use of quality educational materials;
- assist publishers to provide relevant, high quality educational books;
- improve teachers’ performance and confidence; and
- improve learning efficiency and effectiveness. (URT, 1999c, p. 4).

Some of these objectives presuppose that teachers could not perform their work and lacked confidence that would be enhanced by people outside schools by ‘objective’ textbook approvals. However, while emphasising objectivity and correctness in the approval process, throughout the ‘approval manual’, the policymakers constructed subjective criteria such as titles’ registration, coding, evaluator selection, and manuscripts submission to the Secretariat. Further, evaluators were also guided by subjective criteria, such as “transparency and confidentiality” (URT, 1999c, p. 7), authors’ use of suitable language, content presentation, correspondence to curricular

content, and “correctness of facts” (p. 7). The government also planned that “evaluators should receive some training before they begin their work.” (URT, 1999c, p. 6).

EMAC approval manual policy texts constructed politics in approving processes that required MCR to go through seven stages (URT, 1999c, pp. 11-14). However, the same texts emphasised a rapid approval process in favour of private capitalist publishers, rather than education quality, access, and EMAC bureaucrats:

The actual process of approval must be as rapid as possible to prevent incurring investment costs to the publisher, and as thorough as possible to ensure high quality. It is vital that schedules for the process be established and adhered to, and that EMAC meetings take place regularly to consider new titles. It would be unrealistic to expect that such a high-level group could meet, for example, on a monthly basis, but it should be possible to arrange bimonthly meetings or at least quarterly meetings. (URT, 1999c, p. 11).

These statements constrained the quality of MCR production and approval by making the process ‘as rapid as possible’ in the interests of business publication cost. Thus, while favouring publishers for reducing ‘investment costs’, the policy constructed poor quality textbooks for the school curriculum.

Further, since its establishment, many stakeholder concerns were raised about EMAC’s effectiveness, incapacity, and reduced funding in performing its functions. For example, Graham and Pehrsson (2004) noted, “some complain about the lengthy procedures, with manuscripts going back and forth between publishers and the EMAC” (p. viii), lack of communication between publishers and EMAC, and “lack of visions for the development of the book sector” (p. viii).

The National Kiswahili Council (BAKITA) is the third organ that approved Kiswahili books published in the context of the marketisation policy. Other similar organs were established between 1999 and 2005, and included the Book Management Unit (BMU); Book Development Council of Tanzania (BAMVITA) (Mcharazo, 2002); Tanzania Writers Association (TWA); Publishers Association of Tanzania (PATA); and the Book Sellers Association of Tanzania (BSAT) (Mkuchu, 2004).

1.5.2 Secondary school curricula policy reforms

Between 1990 and 2010, several curricular reforms took place to suit the SAP conditions of privatisation, marketisation, government deregulation, and reduction of education expenditures.

1.5.2.1 Curricular reforms between 1990s and 2005

Following the collapse of the socialist bloc in 1992 and other social and political movements, Tanzania's political ideology transformed from a single party to multipartism. These led to the following consequences. First, the school curricular orientations with a socialist ideology since 1967 were reformed in 1993, where *General Studies* and *Civics* replaced *Siasa (Political Science)* (URT, 1993). Second, as discussed above, in the 1990s, schools curricular changes came with the *World Conference on Education for All*⁴ (EFA) (UNESCO, 1990; URT, 1995b; Woods, 2008), a population and development movement that led to the 1994 *International Conference on Population and Development*⁵ (ICPD) (Richey, 1999; UNO, 1994; URT, 1992, 1994, 1995b). Other politics included global campaigns against environmental pollution and degradation (Pallangyo, 2007), and the *feminist and gender equality movement* which culminated in the 1995 *Beijing Conference*⁶ (UNO, 1995; URT, 1995c, 2005d), HIV/AIDS campaigns, spearheaded by the government, declared HIV/AIDS as a national calamity and the need to invest resources in these campaigns⁷ (URT, 2001b). There was also the introduction of *Information Communication Technologies (ICT)* in the provision of public services, education, and training in Tanzania⁸ (URT, 1997c, 2003).

Consequently, between 1993 and 1997, struggles, competition, and contradiction for curricular reforms were observed with the 'Unified Science' (TIE, 1994b, 1994c, 1997) subject, which would integrate "Physics, Chemistry, Biology, and Agricultural Science" (TIE, 1994b, p. v). Policymakers rationalised this decision through the 'universality' of science knowledge (TIE, 1994b). Similarly, for arts subjects, the government planned 'Social Studies' that would include History, Geography, and Civics (TIE, 1994a, 1996c).

However, such integrations reflected World Bank SAP conditions that required government expenditure reduction because policy texts (TIE, 1994b) argued that this would "reduce the number of secondary school subjects...[and] ... number of teachers and course books in science. It maximizes the use of available buildings, equipment and materials." (p. v). These policy statements contradicted with EFA policy that emphasised the expansion of education opportunities, especially for students from marginalised communities, including low-income classes and females. However, these

new subjects were not implemented although preparations were complete and circulars issued to schools in 1993.

Such politics and other social and political transformations led to major school and college curricular reforms in 1996 with new subject syllabi and contents. Some of the contents introduced were: privatisation, multipartism, environmental pollution and conservation, HIV/AIDS, and information technologies. Others included entrepreneurship, population and family life education, and gender. The 1996 curricular reforms were thus consistent with ETP. In addition to the contradictory ETP statements, the government constructed other conflicting statements on abolishing actual science practical and introduced an *Alternative to Practical* policy for science subjects in 1992. ETP led to ESDP in 1997, which was implemented for primary and secondary education subsectors through the *Primary Education Development Programme* (PEDP) and *Secondary Education Development Programme* (SEDP), respectively. SEDP was the major programme through which marketisation policy reform was implemented.

1.5.2.2 Curricular reforms from 2005: SEDP and the ‘competence-based curriculum’

While marketisation policy was at its transition stage and some publishers had invested in book publishing for 1996 curricula, another curricular reform came in 2004 with the discourse of *competence-based curriculum* under the SEDP umbrella. These reforms added another struggle between schools and teachers against publishers on the one hand, and parents against schools and students on the other. With its two phases, SEDP I (2004-2009) and II (2010-2015), the government policy texts argued that SEDP was a response to a high transition rate from primary to secondary schools experienced between 1995 and 2005 (URT, 2004d, 2010a). These phases were implemented following the TIE-World Bank agreement (World Bank, 2004). While relying on World Bank funding, SEDP policy statements claimed to improve the access, equity, quality, retention, and management of secondary education that were to be achieved through the commitment of stakeholders: teachers, parents, the private sector, and sponsors (URT, 2004d, 2010a).

Several workshops were held in collaboration between MoEC politicians with intellectuals, some from the UDSM Faculty of Education. These workshops constructed stakeholders’ ideologies and beliefs that a *competency-based curriculum* would improve

education quality and access (URT, 2005a, 2005b, 2010c, 2010d) because teachers and students would use multiple marketised textbooks as opposed to a single textbook policy (TIE, 2005; URT, 2005a, 2005b, 2010c). For example, in 2004, the state agents used various paper presentations in parliamentary sessions (URT, 2005f), workshops, and seminars conducted for school heads and inspectors (Lihawa, 2004; URT, 2004g). These moves constructed an ideology that the secondary school curriculum needed reform to enable curriculum consistency with multiple textbooks. For example, Lihawa (2004) argued that multiple textbooks have more advantages for teaching and learning than a single textbook policy. To him, a multiple textbook policy would:

- open doors for many publishers to enter the school textbook business;
- open doors so that book distributors and sellers could enter the school textbook business;
- improve textbook quality and publications through competition;
- enable the customer to have the freedom to select which book to purchase; and
- allow schools the freedom to decide which books to use.

Without considering the extent to which schools, teachers, and parents were ready, such a policy opened schools for capitalist business and the corporate ideologies of freedom of textbook selection and competition. However, no emphasis was put on how multiple textbooks would be available for teachers and students in the face of a declining secondary education subsector state budget and the changing state role as discussed later. Further, a multiple textbook policy is a contradictory and less visionary policy decision because one of the major secondary schools' and teachers' work challenges before marketisation was the government's failure to provide a single textbook for each subject for each student. Therefore, it was unlikely that multiple textbooks would be possible if a single textbook policy failed to improve educational access, quality, and inequality for students from diverse multicultural and economic backgrounds. These moves culminated in the so-called 'competence-based curriculum' policy reform in 2005. However, according to Lenoir and Jean (2012), 'competence-based' originated and was financed from "developed countries to the North and was introduced into the educational systems of French-speaking [and other] African countries" (p. 65) in the 2000s.

1.5.3 The challenges of the marketisation policy for secondary schooling and teachers' work

The secondary school marketisation policy was adopted within the political and economic challenges facing the education system in general, which may have caused further challenges for teachers' work over the past two decades.

1.5.3.1 Macropolitical and socioeconomic problems

As Stridsman (1999) argues, while the government emphasised marketisation policy adoption, there were some macropolitical and social problems related to the formation of an 'approval system', burdening schools with funding, rules adoption, donor dependency, and a lack of proposed publishers' and printers' experience and ability in obtaining materials from overseas. Stridsman also noted less consideration of the influence and importance of the classroom environments. Stridsman suggested improvement in policy communication, administration, and financing between policy actors from central and local government authorities, and the need to identify classroom realities and responsibilities for both domestic and foreign publishers, as well as developing and adopting textbook approval mechanisms.

The government policy texts (URT, 2004h) acknowledged society's socioeconomic position that would have constrained marketisation policy implementation. Most "Tanzanians live below the poverty line and cannot afford to buy books even though they may be aware of the important role books play in human development." (URT, 2004h, p. 14). Thus, policy implementation was problematic from the adoption phase.

1.5.3.2 Marketisation policy silences and other related policy changes

In this section, I show that the marketisation policy was silent on a number of policy issues. First, policymakers' CR definition³ neglected *electronic media texts* produced and distributed in the context of marketisation policy. These texts are important because they circulate and intersect in schools and the wider society with official school curriculum texts and thereby affect teachers' work. Second, school policy administrators and teachers disappeared in MCR production and distribution models, despite the widely acknowledged teachers' central role in curriculum construction and leadership. This was also clear in some EMAC policy texts (URT, 1999c), which state, "selected teachers would be solicited by the EMAC for comments on the book after using it in the classroom. The comments would be passed to the publisher for consideration and incorporation into the series in later editions." (URT, 1999c, p. 3). This presupposition

that teachers' role is to give comments significantly undermined their role as the main users of those MCR.

Third, the policy texts presuppose parents were able, motivated, and knowledgeable by stating, 'parents can buy' without considering their political, sociocultural, and economic contexts. In addition, the use of statements like 'even if the school (government) does the same' positions parents as unimportant participants in the policy process. Moreover, the proposed linear production and distribution models placed schools and parents at the bottom, and teachers' exclusion constructed dependence and passive subject positions for them.

Fourth, the marketisation policy intersected with the teacher education training programme duration reduction and change in university curricular. For example, UDSM reduced teacher training from four to three years in 2005 (UDSM, 2014). At the same time, teacher training colleges eliminated academic subject contents in line with policymakers' emphasis on pedagogy as opposed to content knowledge. Moreover, between 1995 and 2006, several new teacher training institutions were established to meet the rapid demand for teachers caused by PEDP and SEDP (UDSM, 2014). The government also introduced short-term training programmes of less than two months, in what is famously referred as *Crash Programmes* (Anangisye, 2011), focusing on lesson plans, schemes of works, and similar methodological issues.

Fifth, the changing state role in education led to a declining secondary education budget and less on-the-job training to improve teachers' professional knowledge and practice. This further intersected with teachers' poor government remuneration, which led to nationwide teachers' strikes organised by the Tanzania Teachers' Union in the early 2000's (Ngimbudzi, 2009). Moreover, low teacher qualifications and poor teaching abilities, low utilisation rates for human and physical facilities, and low numbers of student learning activities were also reported (URT, 2004d, 2010a).

Sixth, the marketisation policy remained silent on the effects of curriculum changes, school contexts, and market forces on the policy processes and, in addition, also lacked strategies for responding to such changes. Finally, policymakers were silent on the transition period. Instead, its scope was left as an outcome of the response of some agencies involved in policy interpretation (URT, 1991).

1.5.3.3 Secondary school expansion

Evidence suggests that, the world experienced a rapid secondary education expansion between 1970s and 2010 from 196 million students to 531 million (UNESCO, 2011a). Similarly, in Tanzania, secondary schools increased threefold from 1,745 in 2005 to 4,266 in 2010 (Saiboko, 2011; URT, 2010b). This may be mainly due to increased community participation, new schools were constructed under the influence of the *Public-Private Partnership* policy (URT, 2007). PEDP increased transition rates to secondary education from 27% in 2002 to 70% in 2006 (URT, 2006; 2007), leading to three times the increased enrolments in secondary schools from 524,325 to 1,638,699 (Wedgwood, 2007). However, this expansion was disproportional to resource increases, thus pressuring teachers' work, especially in the classroom, with significant implications for the curricular, pedagogic, and evaluation processes.

1.5.3.4 The politics of textbook availability

A growing concern over the quality, adequacy, access, and relevance of schoolbooks and other materials were noted in studies (Lassibille, Tan, & Sumra, 1999; URT, 2004d) that showed a poor supply of textbooks and other teaching-learning materials. These concerns were also raised by the government itself, as well as the public, as reported by parliamentary debates, MoEVT budget speeches, the media, examination results, and government statistics. Moreover, there has been stakeholders' dissatisfaction with the state of MCR in schools since 2009/2010, 2010/2011, 2011/2012, and 2012/2013 (Kawambwa, 2011, 2012).

1.5.3.5 Declining secondary education sub-sector financing and corruption

As indicated in Figure 2, the government secondary education sub-sector budget has been declining over the past ten years and was much lower compared to other education sub-sectors. More budgetary policy emphasis was on primary, non-formal, and supporting services, and tertiary and higher education sub-sectors. For example, the primary education sector received between 50 and 70 percent of the total education budget over the past twenty years. This decline resulted in "capitation grant spending [being] 40 percent lower than the norm" (UNESCO, 2011b, p. 154). It was noted that secondary education funding in 2008/2009 "absorbed 13.5 percent of education public resources" (p. 27), an amount that is considered much lower than other countries spending more resources on education.

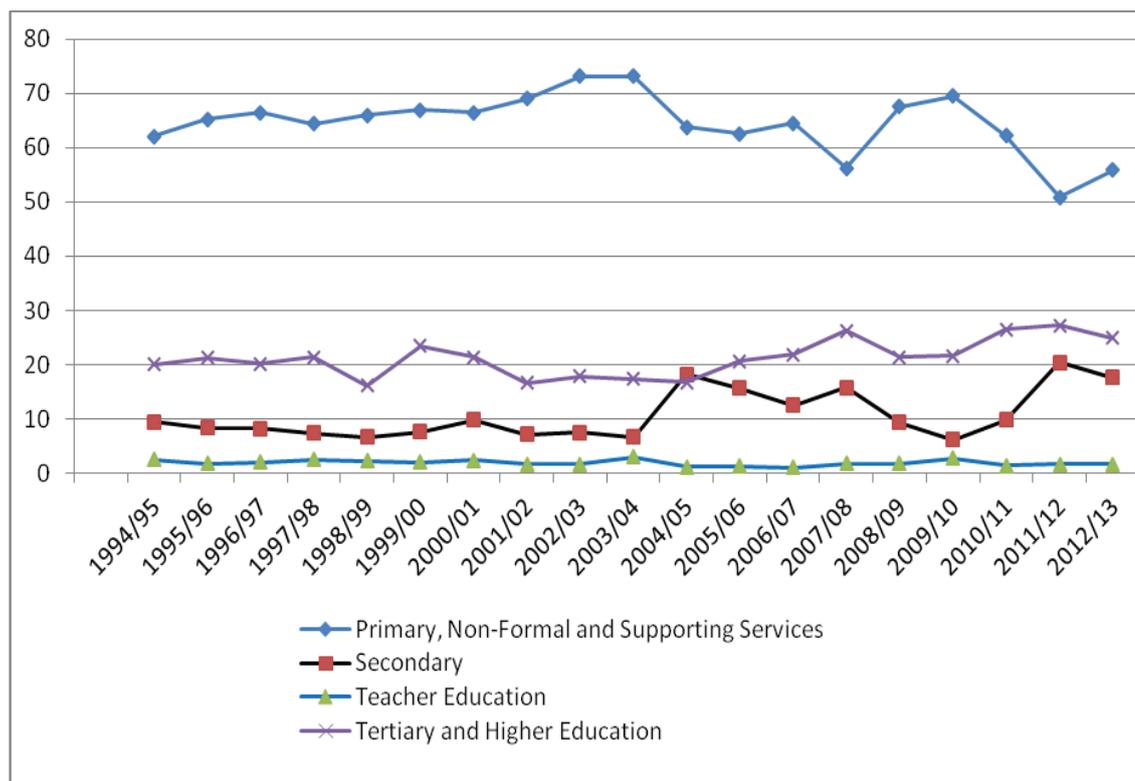


Figure 2. Percentage of secondary education sub-sectors' budget share in the total education sector budgets from 1995 to 2012.

Source: URT (2004a, 2012a).

Further, the *Global Corruption Report* (Gauthier, 2013) in education indicated that marketisation policy funding was accompanied by corruption and a lack of accountability. The Report states that corruption and poor service delivery was shaped by less political determination and greater motivation to implement marketisation reforms. It was further constructed by a “lack of policy dialogue, inadequate dissemination of results and insufficient discussions to ensure the transfer of information about problems identified in the service delivery system” (Gauthier, 2013, p. 250). This report estimates that “approximately 37% of money intended for education was lost [which] was negatively related to the learning scores of the children in those schools.” (Gauthier, 2013, p. 249). Corruption also involved international capitalist publishing companies, such as Oxford University Press East Africa and Oxford University Press Tanzania, which “bribed government officials for contracts to supply school textbooks” (Berkman, 2013, p. 38). Evidence of corruption, the influence of

global capitalist powers on the policy, and MCR selection challenges were also evident in one of the President's speeches:

Is this our education policy or it has been planted by somebody else? ... Is it true that this policy is a quality one and can work for our children? Where is this policy taking us? Where have we failed to the extent of selling our education where every headmaster/mistress discusses with book writers of their choice in order to make purchase from them? We are creating a corrupt environment by allowing this to happen... Give us a break. (Kikwete directs all schools to use common textbooks, 2009, p. 1).

Following the President's statement, a number of policy changes were made in the marketisation policy, including a selection of two book titles for primary schools in 2010 and a plan for a secondary textbooks policy change. This decision was made through the *Education Circular No. 2 of 2010* (URT, 2010f). Moreover, there were also public outcries through parliamentary debates over EMAC's performance and alleged corruption that was characterised by competition to win school textbook tenders, misuse of public funds, textbook photocopying, and pirating (Shekighenda, 2009).

1.5.3.6 Declining educational achievement and growing disparities

Another significant education policy challenge was inequitable access by location (rural-urban) reconstructed by low income levels, gender disparity, sociocultural factors, less resources, and an overloaded curriculum (Lassibille, Tan, & Sumra, 1999; URT, 2004d). However, despite these challenges, the government still emphasised nationally set examinations as a major curriculum evaluation tool (URT, 2004d, 2010a, 2012a). Nationwide, students were classified into divisions focussed on numbers and grades rather than quality students' learning processes and teachers' work (URT, 2004d, 2010a, 2012a). Through these grades and classifications, the state constructed examination ideologies as curriculum outcome indicators. However, these examination grades were unreliable and functioned as a student selection tool for joining the next educational levels and training programmes. According to URT (2010b, 2010b, 2012a) national data, between 1995 and 2011, the percentage of students who were graded and classified as 'Division IV' and 'Failed' rose from 75.4% to 90% (Appendix 19). With these classifications and grading system, many students missed opportunities for further education and training. Thus, it is clear that in the contexts of the marketisation policy reforms, secondary schooling and teachers' work faced numerous problems and policy

silences .needing investigation that locates teachers' work within these politics to understand the nature and cultures that emerged from time to time.

1.6 Chapter summary and conclusion

In this chapter, I historically traced Tanzania's social and political struggles to provide secondary education. I also critically explored the challenges and achievements of education policy before and after independence and their implications for teachers' work. The chapter has shown how such struggles largely reproduced state and schools' dependence on, and exploitative and dominant relationships with the capitalist world. To date, state resources and education policy continued the dependence on foreign aid from the so-called 'donors'. I also discussed how private sector participation in school CR production and distribution before and after independence was challenged by political and economic policies, including its elimination through the *Arusha Declaration* in 1967. However, in the early 1990s, the private sector was invited back through SAP, supported by neoliberalism. I have also shown how SAP and other local, national, and global social, economic, and political movements led to marketisation and curricular policy reforms that further re-integrated teachers' work into the global capital. Such reforms also intersected with Tanzania's secondary school expansion that further challenged school policy financing and teachers' work. Finally, I identified marketisation policy silences related to teachers as curriculum leaders. In the next chapter, I develop an understanding of how teachers practised their work in such reform politics to establish the knowledge gap that warrants my research. I do this by reviewing national and international theoretical and empirical literatures.

CHAPTER TWO

SECONDARY SCHOOL TEACHERS' WORK: HISTORICAL, POLITICAL, AND SOCIOCULTURAL CONTEXTS

2.1 Introduction and chapter overview

Chapter 1 located the marketisation policy in the context of the wider global and national historical, sociocultural, and political contexts of education policy reforms in Tanzania. I argued that marketisation policy re-integrated secondary schooling and teachers' work into the global, neoliberal, capitalist, political, and ideological projects of the late 1980s and 1990s. In this chapter, I adopt Bernstein's (1975) three major teachers' work dimensions: curriculum, pedagogy, and evaluation to critically examine the nature of teachers' work culture and politics within such global, national, and local school reform contexts. I begin with the curriculum because it defines teachers' work (Connell, 1985). However, pedagogy and evaluation cannot be separated from the curriculum process. This chapter has three foci. The first is that I focus on theoretical and empirical studies done in Tanzania and elsewhere. The purpose is to show the extent to which secondary teachers' work practices are reshaped by dynamic historical, political, sociocultural, and organisational contexts (O'Neill, 2001). Second, I discuss how these contextual dynamics reshape teachers' knowledge, pedagogy, work culture, and identities, and third, I develop a research gap from which I construct the rationale, purpose, and research questions to guide my study.

I divide this chapter into five sections, beginning with an introduction and overview. Section two focuses on the politics of school curriculum and official knowledge. Section three considers how education policy and politics may reshape classroom pedagogy, and section four deals with the curriculum evaluation politics. Section five summarises the chapter and identifies the research gap by outlining the problem statement, and research purpose and questions.

2.2 Secondary school curriculum and official knowledge

Curriculum and official knowledge construction forms one dimension of teachers' work. However, this dimension involves curriculum resources, which are highly political according to some studies (Apple, 1982b, 1988, 2003; Apple & Christian-

Smith, 1991). This section begins by conceptualising school curriculum and official knowledge and considers some historical, social, and political contexts of their construction in Tanzania and elsewhere.

2.2.1 Conceptualizing curriculum, official knowledge, and literacy

According to Smith and Lovat (2003), *curriculum* understandings have evolved over time and space from ‘narrow’ to ‘broader’ conceptualisations. For example, Tyler (1949) and Taba (1962) limited curriculum meaning to a set of contents specified by the so-called curriculum experts. Similarly, Bernstein (1971) classified curriculum into “integrated ... [and] ... collection” (p. 72) codes, with the former curricular contents standing “in an open relation to each other” (p. 72). In the latter, “the contents are clearly bounded and separated from each other” (p. 72). However, this wording limits curriculum conceptualisations to content, and neglects curriculum as a process, practice, and outcomes (Grundy, 1987).

Smith and Lovat (2003) provided a broader definition of *curriculum*, which I will adopt, as “a set of discourses: a number of symbolic texts and practices that are representative of particular ideologies and which may be interpreted to produce different meanings.”(p. 9). (For a broader discussion of ‘texts’ and ‘discourse’, see Chapter 3). The above definition suits my study because it emphasises the poststructuralist perspective of ‘curriculum as discourse’ and ‘curriculum as text’, which is consistent with the conception of ‘policy as discourse’ and ‘policy as text’ that form the theoretical framework (Chapter 3). Similarly, as argued in Chapter 1, despite the existence of many kinds of CR, since the colonial period, textbooks have formed the main input in teachers’ work in developing countries like Tanzania. However, as Provenzo (2011) argues, textbooks provide “important insights into the nature and meaning of [society’s] culture and the social and political discourses” (p. vii) of their production, distribution, and consumption. Based on Foucault, Provenzo further maintains that understanding textbooks and other CR is important in a critical analysis of the curriculum because their authors are part of wider and larger historical, sociocultural, political, and economic discourses. Therefore, this study is guided by this understanding of ‘textbooks as discourses’, ‘curriculum as discourse’, ‘curriculum as text’, and curriculum as an ‘active construction’ of experiences in a given sociocultural and political ‘milieu’ (Grundy, 1994). Such curriculum conceptualisation captures

poststructuralist concepts of ‘interpretation’ and ‘ideology’, ‘practice’, and ‘meanings’ (Peters & Burbules, 2004) that “cannot be universalized” (Johnson & Christensen, 2008, p. 391) because they have different interpretations according to people’s history and culture. Further, the concept of ‘ideology’ informs our knowledge about forces that reshape the education policy and curriculum construction process, including the political effects of dominant ideologies (Kelly, 2009).

Moreover, the ‘curriculum as discourse’ perspective invites analysis of curriculum as discourse and texts, the major concern of poststructuralist analysis of politics, power relations, and ideology, which are so important in the analysis of the effects of an educational policy and knowledge construction. As will be discussed later, power is one of the central concerns in critical education and curriculum policy analysis. This is because it is involved in the production and distribution of scarce educational resources, like textbooks, money, human resources, and physical facilities.

Similarly, for the purpose of this discussion, I adopt Banks’s (1993) definition of *knowledge* as socially and culturally constructed ideas, values, and interpretations in social institutions, including schools, classrooms, and families. Out of Banks’s five kinds of knowledge, *mainstream academic* and *school knowledge* typologies are important for this thesis. These knowledge categories are mainly the reflections of ideologies and beliefs of those who make them. By *mainstream academic knowledge*, Banks meant “the concepts, paradigms, theories, and explanations that constitute traditional Western-centric knowledge in history and the behavioural and social sciences” (p. 7). Moreover, *school knowledge* means “the facts, concepts, generalizations, and interpretations that are presented in textbooks, teacher’s guides, other media forms, and lectures by teachers” (p. 7). Banks argues that curriculum processes need to link these knowledges with students’ experiences and the wider society so that teachers and students can “freely examine their perspectives and moral commitments” (p. 5).

However, such definitions are less helpful for understanding the political and social nature of the school curriculum and official knowledge. Freire (1972, 1973, 1985, 1993, 2005) supported *critical curriculum* and *critical knowledge* that is socially, culturally, and politically constructed by *critical teachers*.. This process is possible through what Freire and his supporters call *critical literacy* and *critical pedagogy*, which are constructed through ‘dialogue’, rather than a ‘passive curriculum’, or what he calls “banking education” (Freire, 2005, p. 73). The idea of a *critical curriculum* is

opposed to the traditional standardised curriculum and testing which reproduce the dominant and ready-made fixed body of knowledge through dominant discourses and texts. Rather, critical curriculum and knowledge is enhanced by ‘problem-posing’. Critical curriculum develops ‘critical consciousness’ among teachers and students. For Freire, *critical consciousness* is the individual’s capacity to recognise all forms of social, political, and economic domination, oppression, and marginalisation, and take action against them for their and society’s betterment.

Critical consciousness is developed through critical literacy, numeracy, and critical pedagogy. For Freire, critical consciousness, therefore, cannot be enhanced by banking and standardised curricula and testing. Instead of banking and standardised curricula and forms of testing, Freire (2005) proposed democratic and problem-posing curricula where teachers and students “develop their power to perceive critically the way they exist in the world with which and in which they find themselves; they come to see the world not as a static reality but as a reality in the process of transformation” (p. 83). Banking education fails to develop critical consciousness because it limits democratic knowledge construction as it does not give students the opportunity to think critically or independently, or to question the existing knowledge and practices involved in its construction and discover new knowledge. A critical curriculum thus enhances ‘critical reflection’ and ‘reflexivity’ among teachers and students. Reflection is one’s ability to think critically and evaluate oneself and the world in which one lives, and then take action against oppressive knowledge and practices. Freire and Macedo (1987) call this *critical literacy*. Based on Freire, McLaren (1988) expanded discussion on *literacy* and identified three forms that school curricula should promote. These are ‘functional literacy’, ‘cultural literacy’, and ‘critical literacy’. *Functional literacy* is mainly concerned with students’ capacity to understand simple texts, including those used in classroom discourse. On the other hand, *cultural literacy* is related to possession of functional literacy together with the knowledge of various linguistic traditions or bodies of information. Specifically, it is about the acquisition of knowledge and skills of literary works and historical information that enhance their participation in national sociocultural and political issues. Cultural literacy enhances the examination and understanding of literary works and their application in gathering and evaluating ‘cultural information’ relevant to curriculum. Finally, *critical literacy* implies a significant aspect of language learning and “involves decoding the ideological dimensions of texts, institutions, social practices, and cultural forms such as television

and film, in order to reveal their selective interests” (McLaren, 1988, p. 213). Critical literacy enables teachers and students to analyse and challenge unjust elements of the larger society to enhance fairness and justice.

Another important concept in relation to school curriculum is *critical numeracy* (Stoessiger, 2002), which refers to “the ways in which practical mathematical situations are implicated in the power relationships and face-to-face politics of everyday life.” (p. 18). By engaging in critical numeracy, teachers and students learn various forms of numeracy involved in their relationships with each other and the world. Critical numeracy encourages students to understand the moral and political aspects of mathematical practice. Further, when using Mathematics in their practical lives, students are able to comprehend and reflect the ideologies and beliefs of those who use Mathematics for their own interests. Stoessiger (2002) further describes four main critical numeracy abilities that school curricula ought to enhance:

- critique or make critical interpretations of mathematical information;
- unpack, interpret, or decode mathematical situations;
- use mathematics in a self-reflective way; and
- use mathematics to operate more powerfully in the world. (p. 19).

Critical numeracy therefore empowers teachers and students to understand the positions they take in the Mathematics curriculum contents, structure, and organisation, and be able to analyse those positions by exposing the benefits and costs that empower or disempower them to make reliable decisions affecting their lives. Moreover, teachers and students are empowered with knowledge to understand, create, and use Mathematics for their own present and future. For some critical educators, like Stevens and Bean (2007), critical literacy and numeracy must be embedded across the school curriculum and other school and classroom practices. That is, the curriculum contents and organisation must explicitly enhance teachers and students to criticise texts for their power to construct and constitute social subjects in a myriad of ways (Fairclough, 2010, 2015).

In connection to critical literacy and numeracy, leading Marxist critical theorists, such as Freire (1972, 1973, 1985, 1993, 2006); Giroux (1983, 1988, 2001); Kincheloe (2003, 2005); McLaren (1989, 2007); Roberts (1994, 1995, 1996a, 1996b, 1996c, 1998a, 1998b, 1998c); Shor (1980, 1987, 1992a, 1992b, 1996, 1999); and Shor and Freire (1987, 1988) suggest that *critical pedagogy* is an appropriate classroom

pedagogic practice. Critical pedagogy creates emancipatory conditions among the oppressed groups, such as teachers and students, to learn skills, knowledge, and inquiry strategies relevant for critically examining how society has reshaped their knowledge and identities (Darder, 1991). Further, as Shor (1992) states, critical pedagogy is about critically examining:

Habits of thought, reading, writing, and speaking which go beneath surface meaning, first impressions, dominant myths, official pronouncements, traditional clichés, received wisdom, and mere opinions, to understand the deep meaning, root causes, social context, ideology, and personal consequences of any action, event, object, process, organization, experience, text, subject matter, policy, mass media, or discourse. (p. 129).

For Shor (1993), critical pedagogy is an approach that requires teachers and students to prepare themselves for social change by advancing literacy and knowledge through democratic values and principles. This knowledge and literacy empowers them:

to question existing knowledge as part of the questioning habits appropriate for citizens in a democracy. In Freirean critical classrooms, teachers reject the methods which make students passive and anti-intellectual. They do not lecture students into sleepy silence. They do not prepare students for a life of political alienation in society. (pp. 25-26).

As critical educators, teachers need to “pose critical problems to students, treat them as complicated, substantial human beings, and encourage curiosity and activism about knowledge and the world.” (Shor, 1993, pp. 25-26). Through critical pedagogy, students reflect, understand, and analyse historical, social, political, and cultural ideologies, beliefs, and practices that facilitate or constrain their goals and aspirations with the aim of changing their current conditions. These scholars suggest ‘dialogic learning’ as pedagogy for democratic and liberating education for the oppressed students and teachers. This pedagogy helps them to transform their lives as opposed to marginalising pedagogies because it develops *critical consciousness* (Freire, 1972, 1973) discussed above. To summarise using Smyth’s words, in a critical curriculum, power is “much more dispersed, less hierarchical, or even inverted, and hence, learning is more democratic than a banking view of education would have us believe.” (2010, p. 70). There is an “active, inquiry-oriented, problem-posing, and inclusive approach to teaching, learning, and engagement with curriculum issues.” (p. 71).

Kincheloe (2005) describes *critical teachers* as those who understand and practice critical curriculum through facilitation, rather than teaching in passive pedagogies. They are able to share power in the curriculum practices and help students question dominant knowledge and see their role in changing their current social and political positions. They are able to encourage students to tirelessly work in the interests of themselves and society. They are able to practice democratic values and principles and critique non-democratic practices in the classroom, the school, and the larger society. They should be able to, as well as helping students to, think beyond the textbook knowledge and discern ‘whose knowledge’ is it, ‘whose interests’ it serves, and how relevant are the conditions for its production and reproduction. The concepts and practices of critical curriculum, literacy, numeracy, and pedagogy are relevant for a democratic curriculum and official knowledge construction as discussed below.

2.2.2 Democratic curriculum, critical thinking, creativity, and official knowledge construction

Based on early Greek philosophers, some scholars (Apple 1982b, 1988, 1989, 1996a, 2003; Freire, 1972, 1973; Kelly, 1995, 2009; Saltman, 2005) proposed the need for a *democratic curriculum* that rests on the pillars of equality, freedom, and respect for individual rights. A democratic curriculum enables teachers and students to have free and equal participation in curriculum planning and decision-making, as well as in pedagogy and evaluation. There must be no ideological impediments to practice these democratic principles, which would encourage teachers to exercise their professional freedom for students to realise a democratic curriculum (Freire, 1972, 1987, 1988; Kelly, 1995, 2004, 2009; McLaren, 1989, 2007, 2009). Democratic and empowering curricula enable teachers and students to control what, how, and when they learn. For teachers, this is learning facilitation, and for students, this is student-centered. As Kelly (2009) argues, a democratic curriculum is collaborative rather than competitive, and it empowers teachers and students with knowledge to challenge, question, critique, and debate issues they experience in classrooms, schools, and society. These practices would construct autonomous thinkers, and empowered, creative, and accountable identities. It would also construct a social and political “context in which knowledge can change, evolve, [and] develop precisely because it is free of constraints” p. 269).

More recently, Maloy and LaRoche (2015) identified what they called the ‘seven C’s’ of democratic teaching and learning, referring to conditions that facilitate student participation in curriculum content, pedagogy, and assessments. The conditions include ‘contrasting’ various kinds of content and knowledge; ‘conducting’ curriculum by engaging students; and ‘conversing’ between the teacher and students. Others are ‘conferring’ feedback in the learning process; ‘collaborating’ in decision making and power sharing; ‘co-constructing’ curriculum; and ‘connecting’ curriculum to the wider society.

Critical thinking relates to democratic teaching and learning. For Paul and Elder (2006), critical thinking is “the art of analyzing and evaluating thinking with a view to improving it.” (p. 4). It is also about being “self-directed, self-disciplined, self-monitored and self-corrective.” (p. 4). Thus, students and teachers who think critically understand “the purpose at hand and the question at issue. They question information, conclusions and point of view. They strive to be clear, accurate, precise, and relevant. They seek to think beneath the surface, to be logical and fair.” (p. 4). Similarly, according to hooks (2010), critical thinking “involves first discovering the who, what, when, where, and how of things—finding the answers to those eternal questions of the inquisitive child—and then utilizing that knowledge in a manner that enables [them] to determine what matters most.” (p. 9). For critical thinking and creativity to take place, students “must learn to embrace the joy and power of thinking itself. Engaged pedagogy is a teaching strategy that aims to restore students’ will to think, and their will to be fully self-actualized.” (p. 9). Willingham (2007) supports this by stating that critical thinking is constructed when students see “both sides of an issue, being open to new evidence that disconfirms young ideas, reasoning dispassionately, demanding that claims be backed by evidence, deducing and inferring conclusions from available facts, solving problems, and so forth.” (p. 8). For hooks, *engaging pedagogy* is one where learning takes place in democratic interaction and teachers lead the process of discovering “what the students know and what they need to know” (p. 19). This occurs only if teachers empower students in the major curricular process.

Despite the significance of critical literacy, pedagogy, and thinking through democratic teaching in developing countries, there is less evidence available on the effects of globally-driven education policy reforms on these issues. Therefore, in the next section, I discuss how these aspects of democratic curriculum and knowledge

construction are vulnerable to dominant policy discourses in the context of globalisation and neoliberalism.

2.2.3 Neoliberalism and the politics of secondary curriculum texts and official knowledge

Apple (1982b, 1988, 1989, 1994, 1996a, 2003); Apple and Christian-Smith (1991); and Apple and Teitelbaum (1986) researched the politics of privatisation and marketisation of production, selection, state approval, and distribution of school textbooks. For example, Apple (1988) shows that teachers' work has been reorganised and controlled through what he calls "proletarianization" (p. 34) and control of school knowledge and curriculum. Although both the work of men and women teachers were being 'proletarianized', this was more for women than in the former group because of historical and discriminatory gendered employment practices. Apple believed these practices perpetuated class and gender inequalities in the teaching profession as the state controlled what and how teachers practised, as well as costs and resources. This mostly affected women as the major proportion of the education workforce in the United States (US). Further control of teachers' work was exercised using contracts that specified the working hours, payments, physical dressing styles, and social relationships with men.

Curriculum theorists (Apple, 1990, 1995, 2004; Beyer & Apple, 1998; Kelly, 1977, 1999, 2004, 2009) argued that school curriculum content, organisation, and structure are political because their decisions involve values, ideological struggles, and competition between various groups with varying social, political, and economic interests and power relations. Further, they argue that the school curriculum is a powerful tool for controlling both teachers and students because its content, organisation, and structure mirror wider patterns of social and political control and inequalities. One strategy for this control is through curriculum planning and decision making in which the values of the capitalist agents, policymakers, school administrators, and teachers influence curriculum content, organisation, and structure. Thus, scholars (Anyon, 1979; Apple, 1986; Goodman & Saltman, 2002; Kohn & Shannon, 2002; Molnar, 1996, 2005; Molnar, Boninger, & Fogarty, 2011; Saltman, 2000, 2005) argue that curriculum content, organisation, and objectives in many countries were reformed to meet dominant values, ideologies, and beliefs. For example, there are the market discourses and metaphors of 'efficiency', 'production', 'standards',

and ‘cost-effectiveness’. These metaphors marginalised the democratic curriculum and teachers’ professional identity because their knowledge and autonomy to select what and how to teach and evaluate is being determined by corporate business. For example, Saltman (2000) argued that privatisation and marketisation have ideological control on the curriculum and teachers and students’ preparation as consumers of industrial products through advertising in schools, making them marketing arenas. They give examples of how ‘texts’ constructed in schools prepare children as consumers rather than producers. Saltman (2000) found that: school Math textbooks gave examples of problems based on food names and brands; a student’s assignment on literacy emphasised learning corporate logos; some texts that praised private oil companies; and a text on ‘energy management’ advised how individuals can spend on energy (p. xi). Saltman (2000) confirms that school “privatization leaves fewer spaces for democratic decision making, deliberation, and consideration of bolstering the common good” (p. 13), which has implications for the power shift from public to private.

All these suggest that school privatisation and marketisation trained students to become consumers and not critical problem solvers in their current and future lives as citizens. Saltman’s (2000) argument on students’ identities produced by marketised curricula supports Apple’s (2004) view that schools and curricula are tools and mechanisms for the reproduction of the dominant culture in the larger society. This means that the knowledge, skills, and attitudes that schools and the curriculum transmit to the learners do not prepare them to become critical problem solvers. Rather, they were to remain consumers of goods and services produced by industries, most of which were owned and run by business and capitalist elites. Thus, Saltman (2005) argues that neoliberalism constructed hegemonic and ideological domination, and control of teachers’ work was also exercised through strict regulation and intervention on school and professional activities and programmes through administrative techniques of “hiring and firing teachers, administrators, and staff” (p. 14). Such techniques were employed in Edison Company and other *Charter schools* in the US. To produce more profits from the schools, there was centralised administration, low staff payments, and non-involvement in their professional organisations. Moreover, the introduction of a standardised curriculum and control of ownership and distribution of curricular and other materials maintained the lower administration costs for capitalist benefits. For Ageyev (2003), marketisation policy values and ideals of competition, “individualism, independence, and self-reliance” (p. 434) worked against Vygotskian (1962, 1978)

sociocultural learning theory, which argues that social interaction and language shape and reshape the human mind.

The construction of market ideologies and consumer culture among teachers and students through discourses such as *advertising* affects their critical thinking and identities because these have “unjust and harmful ramifications for consciousness construction, knowledge production, and the creation of culture” (Steinberg, (2004) p. 110). Such ideologies and cultures therefore contradict Dewey’s (1916, 1933, 1938, 1997) philosophy of education for democracy and critical thinking because instead of constructing identities as producers, teachers and students are constructed as knowledge consumers. These curricula have “greater emphasis on content coverage, teaching to the tests, and precious classroom time spent encouraging knowledge recall” (Hyttén, 2004, p. 149), rather than scientific knowledge generation that emphasises discovery, not reproduction. Dewey (1933, 1938, 1997) argued for curriculum and pedagogy that enable students to learn *how to think*, discover, and to solve problems rather than *what to think* (Lunenburg & Ornstein, 2008).

Secondary school marketisation is one important component in teachers’ curriculum work and knowledge construction, and therefore needs particular attention to understand the effects of CR production, distribution, and consumption reshaped at macro and micro levels. For example, in Tanzania, Ramadhan (2012) was more concerned with textbook access and availability or non-availability based on the so-called textbook–student ratio, and students’ factors such as lack of commitment, truancy, and poverty, rather than the content and discursive impacts of those available textbooks. These studies over-emphasised the lack of textbooks and other teaching and learning materials, and lack of qualified teachers and library facilities, without considering the discursive contents and effects of those available texts and the professional identity of the available teachers.

A World Bank (2008) study on the survey of secondary school textbook marketisation and relation to textbook financing, approval, distribution and availability in Sub-Saharan Africa includes Tanzania. The study established the following. First, textbooks were the only CR emphasised and financed by the government through capitulation grants from the World Bank since 2005. Compared to other Sub-Saharan countries, textbook financing by parents and other stakeholders was observed to be an accidental and not a policy issue. As stated in this study, in Tanzania, “parental involvement in the market is still in its infancy” (p. 23). Second, there were unlimited

approved textbooks for use by schools, and any author could submit a manuscript for evaluation by EMAC on a ‘quarterly’ basis. Third, booksellers supplied textbooks “directly to schools or sometimes via District stores if districts consolidate on behalf of schools” (p. 51). Fourth, the market distribution was in favour of urban rather than rural areas and many booksellers had inadequate credit assessment skills. Fifth, there were higher textbook prices in rural areas than in urban. Sixth, it was observed that textbook piracy “organized through Dubai and Mauritius” (p. 51) had increased. Seventh, the study also observed aspects of inadequacy in funding as compared to other countries. The study also illustrated that “Tanzania similarly provides capitation to support secondary textbooks in state schools, although the level of per capita support is only one eighth of that provided to schools in Botswana” (p. 63). Eighth, the funding inadequacy also led to textbook inadequacy within and among secondary schools, although no supporting data is provided, due to misuse and misallocation of textbook grants from the central government.

However, despite its wider focus on aspects of textbook marketisation, the World Bank study was not comprehensive. Firstly, it failed to investigate CR evaluation mechanisms created by the government to identify the areas of strengths and weaknesses. Second, it failed to analyse textbook policy impacts on different categories of secondary schools and students from varying backgrounds. Third, the study could not assess how marketisation policy affected the quality of the work of the teachers as one of the major stakeholders and curriculum leaders. Thus, the study had less concern about the effects of marketisation on school curricula, pedagogy, and evaluation. Finally, it put less emphasis on equity and inequality issues brought about by the marketisation of textbooks.

The major argument is studies have tended to show that textbooks are not adequate, but failed to critically examine the discursive effects of textbook contents on construction and reproduction of the social structures of gender, race, class, power/knowledge, inequalities, and ideologies. According to Apple (1988), studies on the effects of school textbook marketisation on teachers’ work need to trace and locate these within the wider historical, political, economic, and sociocultural contexts. This means a focus on politics and economics involved in society, school, and the classroom.

Similarly, recent studies like Nkyabonaki (2013) identified some political factors that have reshaped education and curriculum in Tanzania over the past few years. They include market forces that produce and distribute school textbooks; written

laws like the national constitution; Education Acts; and the politics of allocation of funds, teachers, and textbooks. Other factors include systemic political power struggles and bureaucracy, and the politics of LOI. However, such studies do not acknowledge the realities of schools and classrooms by critically examining the extent to which such politics affect teachers' work cultures and knowledge construction.

Despite Tanzania's secondary teachers' and students' continued dependence on written textbooks and other commercialised materials, ethnographic studies on how curriculum, pedagogy, and evaluation were reshaped by marketisation policy and politics are lacking. Studies on secondary school curriculum, for example, Kahwa (2009), have shown the existence of contradictions between teachers' knowledge capacity to deal with large class sizes such as '1:162' in Dar es Salaam schools, lack of professional training to respond to curricular changes, and lack of adequate resources, including textbooks. The implications of such studies on curriculum were that curricula developed only lower level competencies among students.

Further, other case studies, such as Patrice (2012), on 'commercialised textbooks' have identified limitations of Biology multiple textbooks for failure to meet the curricular contents.. Teaching was reduced to the dominant discourses of classroom lectures and group discussions. However, this study did not consider the discursive impact of these pedagogies on the curriculum outcomes and knowledge construction.

There are limited Tanzanian studies on teachers and textbooks. However, those available worldwide have shown that teachers' work in schools is shaped and reshaped by the politics, cultures, and economics of textbook publishing, distribution, and consumption (Apple, 1985, 1986, 1989; Apple & Christian-Smith, 1991; Apple & Teitelbaum, 1986; Wachholz & Mullaly, 2001). That is, school textbook content, distribution, and consumption shape and reshape curriculum, pedagogy, and evaluation. One such effect is that teachers lacked control of contents and organisation of those texts because people with real and different interests produce them (Apple & Teitelbaum, 1986). Thus, texts served the interests of those who produce, distribute, and use them. For example, the above studies have also shown that most texts have served the economic interests of the publishers and domination of women by men.

The extent of these effects differs with the political, historical, economic, and cultural contexts of publishing, distribution, and consumption. That is, the effects may be different in the 19th and 20th centuries, or between different countries, schools, societies, and producers. However, such studies faced several limitations. First, they

failed to consider the impact of such schooling contexts on the three dimensions of teachers' work: curriculum, pedagogy, and evaluation as related to each other. Second, they lacked a historical framework that traces why and how schools lacked marketised resources. Although they argued that textbooks were content-based, they did not examine ideological and power issues reproduced by such textbooks. Third, positivist studies that looked and expressed curriculum in terms of 'book-student ratio' have serious limitations of underestimating the political and social values reproduced through textbooks. Fourth, the World Bank (2008) and other studies fail to understand that teachers and students having textbooks is one thing, but the other, more important aspect is access to form, content, and organisation in terms of language, use, and misuse of those texts. That is, the multiple and discursive meanings contained by those texts is not taken into account. Fifth, the studies did not examine the effects of intersection of teachers and students' cultural and ideological backgrounds with textbooks in the construction of curriculum and knowledge. These studies therefore limit curriculum definition in terms of 'book-student ratio', rather than the cultural and ideological meaning constructed through textbook discourses based on students' and teachers' social and cultural experiences. Six, such studies failed to consider the discursive and constitutive effects of other policy texts constructed before and/or together with textbook policy. For example, there is the connection between curriculum and examination policies in reshaping the school curriculum, pedagogy, and evaluation practices. In other words, a critical analysis of teachers' work as reshaped by the political economy of textbooks is seriously lacking in Tanzania.

2.2.4 Curriculum policy and the politics of class, gender, and race reproduction

Studies on gender and education in Tanzania, such as Meena (1996), only reported the curricular and pedagogic outcome of girls' and women's schooling in terms of illiteracy rates, gross enrolment and completion rates among girls and boys, and the main barriers to educational access facing women and, especially, girls. Such studies lacked institutional data that tell the realities from the sites of practice. That is, they did not consider how the curriculum, pedagogy, and evaluation texts and practices in schools and classrooms reproduced such illiteracies among women and gender inequality through ideological and hegemonic practices existing in the larger society that shape and reshape gender and class identity. Of significant importance in the curriculum are

the curriculum texts that are at the core of schooling and effective ways of reproducing or challenging such practices. However, past studies overlooked this by considering curriculum texts and practices as neutral sites for knowledge production. The fact that these are sites for the reproduction of domination and hegemony was taken for granted. Despite this weakness, such studies established foundation knowledge on the curricular, pedagogic, and evaluation practices that produce, reproduce, or challenge existing gender disparities, inequalities, and domination by the powerful:

We locate the existing educational gender inequalities in the socio-economic and cultural norms and attitudes and particularly those which assign women a subordinate position in the society. That is, the relationship between women and men and particularly the power dynamics between the two genders as it affects participation of both genders in the educational process. This, in turn, shapes the perceptions that inform curriculum designers, textbook writers, audio-visual aids designers as well as teachers and pupils (Meena, 1996, p. 40).

This argument could have informed scholars to examine discursive strategies constructed by these sociopolitical and educational structures to produce, reproduce, or challenge practices that repeat such gender inequalities and domination. However, to date, few empirical studies have been conducted, especially in developing countries' contexts.

Elsewhere, Apple (1988) and Bowles and Gintis (1976) found that capitalist economic systems reshaped education policy reforms and the school curriculum for their economic interests. That is, they reproduced social class structures existing in the wider society and increased social class inequalities based on class, race, and gender. As capitalist driven policies, marketisation and privatisation policy reforms in developing countries were introduced and financed by global capitalist financial and economic institutions: the IMF and World Bank. It is therefore important to critically examine the extent such reforms reshaped secondary schooling and teachers' work in Tanzania.

As discussed above, one area of teachers' work politics is their recognition in curriculum development. Despite some variations in teacher identity recognition across and within countries through policy texts, some educators (Carl, 2002; McNeil, 2003) argue that curriculum should be an outcome of social interaction between empowered teachers and learners. An important aspect of teacher empowerment is curriculum development through curriculum content selection.

2.2.5 The politics of secondary school curriculum evaluation

In this section, I review studies by historically tracing how the secondary curriculum evaluation in Tanzania and elsewhere is shaped and reshaped by education policy reforms. According to Mbilinyi (1979), since NECTA's establishment in 1973 (URT, 1973), school curriculum evaluation was externally shaped and curricular emphasised passing exams for students' transition to the next education level. As Mbilinyi states, examinations had "a significant backwash-effect on the curriculum and especially on the teaching methods and organization of work in schools and classrooms." (p. 100). Further, examinations were "structured intentionally to fail the majority" (p. 100), policy that led to pyramidal structure in education. Some students who could not pass were labelled as 'failed', thus reproducing class and social inequality. Similarly, Mbilinyi noted that curricula evaluations still emphasised "testing memory rather than problem solving ability and creative thought" (p. 102). National examinations reshaped teachers' work organisation because they were normally conducted at the end of Form IV, and the pressures from the inspectors to complete the syllabi developed a hostile atmosphere between subject teachers and heads of department, and between students and subject teachers. Despite such criticisms noted in the 1970s, recent Tanzanian studies (Mkumbo, 2012a, 2012b; Njabili, 1999) on evaluation did not examine the hegemonic and ideological effects of national examinations since their introduction in the colonial education policy. Instead, they reconstructed examinations as if they were effective secondary curriculum evaluation instruments and less problematic in Tanzania, although evidence from classroom practice highlights the failure of the examination tool as an assessment and evaluation tool to reduce social inequalities.

Mushi (2009) established similar findings about examinations. Similarly, Jokolo (2004) identified tests, assignments, and exercises as the main constructed curricular evaluation forms, focused on lower level cognition than higher levels that enabled students' critical thinking. For example, sample evaluation questions asked were: "What is a hormone? What are the seven characteristics of a hormone? Name the hormones that are secreted by the anterior lobe of the pituitary gland" (p. 88).

However, despite identifying these forms, Jokolo (2004) did not examine who shaped these evaluation contents and forms and whose interests were served, nor did he note their impact on knowledge, ideology, and identity construction. Further reviews (Bartlett & Vavrus, 2013; Komba, Kafanabo, Tryphone, & Kira, 2013; Mkumbo,

2012a, 2012b; Vavrus, 2009) concentrated on examination content analysis, without first examining curricular content relevance for social, economic, and political changes needed by Tanzanian society. For example, Mkumbo (2012) found that such national examination contents were ‘valid’ to curriculum contents, while Bartlett and Vavrus (2013) identified some examination items’ weaknesses to measure students’ critical thinking, official knowledge, and creativity. The authors also established that national examinations determined teachers’ pedagogic practices by limiting them to teacher-dominated pedagogies rather than transformation to learner-centeredness. However, such studies focus only on examinations and neglected other forms of evaluation. They also neglected the political and ideological impact of marketisation policy discourses on examination practices themselves, and on other aspects of teachers’ work practices and outcomes. That is, there has been insufficient attention focussed on how curriculum evaluation forms were influenced by marketisation policy reform discourses, such as MCR and financing, which have been implemented since the 1990s. MCR have a discursive impact on curriculum, pedagogy, and evaluation and need research. Third, the role of political and sociocultural influences and influencers of curriculum evaluation were neglected.

Studies on *High-Stakes Testing* (Thomas, 2005) show that emphasis on testing and examinations have similar effects to ‘collateral damage’ discussed by Saltman (2005) and others (Hewitt, 2005). Ironically, these studies show that new forms of capitalist exploitation through public school corporatisation, commercialisation, and school–business partnerships constructed high-stakes testing evaluation forms that constructed ‘unquestioning’ attitudes towards corporate business among students in schools. Teachers and students were being exploited, especially when schools were not able to support themselves financially. Moreover, under this uncritical operation of corporate sponsoring of public schools, students fail to understand the social, economic, and political inequalities that exist in the larger society and cannot learn to “identify and evaluate the ideological justifications for such inequalities” (Hewitt, 2005, p. 50). It also denies opportunity for students to assume their social responsibility to fight against these inequalities.

2.3 Teachers' professional identity politics during educational policy reforms

Historically, in many countries, teachers undergo specific professional training in and orientation to professional knowledge, pedagogy, ethics, and codes of conduct. The purpose is to construct their identity for curriculum and knowledge construction as their major professional task. Below, I review and discuss studies on the meaning, theories, and politics of teacher professional identity.

2.3.1 Theoretical overview of teacher professional identity

As Davey (2013) argues, despite the use of the term in educational policy research, there is wide disagreement and diversity in the notion of teacher *professional identity*. This is because some scholars use the terms 'identity', 'self', 'self-image', and 'self-narratives' interchangeably, while others use these to mean different things. Reviews indicated that like other professionals in society, teacher professionalism rests on three pillars: knowledge, autonomy, and responsibility (Carr & Kemmis, 1986; Day, Pam, Stobart, Kington, & Gu, 2007; Furlong & Maynard, 1995; Furlong, Whitty, Whiting, Burton, & Miles, 2000). According to these scholars, these three variables define *professional identity* relevant for analysis because, to a greater or lesser extent, it is reshaped by their beliefs, lives, and work. As Day et al. (2007) state:

identity is an important determinant, and plays a crucial part in influencing teachers' emotional well-being and effectiveness. Teachers' sense of professional and personal identity is a key variable in their motivation, job fulfilment, commitment and self-efficacy; and is itself affected by the extent to which teachers' own needs for autonomy, competence and relatedness are met. (p. 102).

According to Davey (2013), the use of the term 'identity' in education literature draws from psychological, sociocultural, and poststructural theoretical perspectives. It is argued that the psychological perspective rests on the argument that identity is a stable aspect of an individual and the external contexts had less impact, although they had effects on its formation (Day, Kington, Stobart, & Sammons, 2006). This means that in the context of marketisation, who teachers are and what they do is an outcome of "internalized mental models or ideals located within them ... [although this]... may change in response to external events, but they can only be constructed by individuals as reflections about themselves" (Davey, 2013, p. 26).

However, those who focused more on sociocultural factors of identity formation criticised this psychological position. For example, Wenger (1998) expanded the psychological perspective to include the individual, societal, and cultural contexts of identity construction. Wenger conceptualises teachers' and students' identity construction in terms of the daily practices they perform. He argues that identities may take multiple forms and be constructed in complex interactions during practice. He conceives identity as "*negotiated experience*", "*community membership*", "*learning trajectory*", "*nexus of multimembership*", and as a "*relation between the local and the global*" (p. 149). For Wenger, identities are reconstructed in a community of practice through participation and non-participation as part of the social and define the individual as a member of the community performing a social practice, which he calls a *community of practice*. Building an identity consists of negotiating the meanings of our experience of membership in social communities. The concept of identity serves as a pivot between the social and the individual, so that each can be talked about in terms of the other.. In the sociology of education, an individual's identity as a social phenomenon may be expressed in terms of the concepts of subjectivity — power, practice, and ideology — because, ideally, these are primarily variables of an individual's characteristics constructed and reflected in discourse. For example, according to Wenger (1998):

There is a profound connection between identity and practice. Developing a practice requires the formation of a community whose members can engage with one another and thus acknowledge each other as participants. As a consequence, practice entails the negotiation of ways of being a person in that context. (p. 49).

However, Wenger's theory emphasised 'social participation' and 'non-participation' as the major determinants of learning, without an emphasis on history, effects of discursive power, ideology, and resources, which may facilitate or hinder 'social participation' and, thus, meaningful culture, knowledge, and identities. Ideologies, power, and resources, which are discursive in nature, are significant aspects in the learning process and may facilitate or limit it. Further, despite explaining the ways in which identities may be reconstructed in a social context, Wenger's theory does not explain the various kinds of identities that may be reconstructed in various sociocultural and historical contexts. The theory backgrounds the political influences that may influence identity reconstruction in particular sociocultural and historical contexts. Based on these criticisms, a poststructuralist perspective was put forward, as I discuss below.

On the other hand, poststructuralist perspective on identity that focuses on identity construction in social and political institutions. It can be constrained and facilitated, among other factors, by discursive structures of power relations and access to essential economic and sociocultural resources in the process (Gewirtz & Cribb, 2009). In this case, individuals may construct different, similar, or collective identities because, in most cases, “individuals actively choose and negotiate their identities” (p. 137). However, such choices are constrained or facilitated by discourses that are accessible to them. For Gewirtz and Cribb, there is variation among some people in making these choices because some people face more constraints than others do “because processes of identity construction take place within networks of power and differential access to economic, social and cultural resources” (p. 137).

Gewirtz and Cribb (2009) further argue four main properties of identity in the poststructuralist sense. First, “identities are never fixed, nor one-dimensional. Rather, they are fluid, contingent, plural and hybrid.” (p. 139). Because identities are about the ways individuals think they are and in struggling to redefine their current positioning using available discourses, they transform their identity. This makes individuals different or similar from others whom they want or do not want to identify. Second, a group of people may share a collective identity if they have or want to have similar interests, thinking, beliefs, attitudes, or ideologies (p. 140). Third, identity relates to the social class variables of sex, gender, race, ethnicity, age, and occupations that are shaped by them and the practices of people involved in their daily lives. Fourth, drawing on Giddens (1991), Gewirtz and Cribb (2009) argue that in the postmodern context, identity is a reflexive project, implying that peoples’ identities are reflexive of rapid and frequent social, economic, and political changes.

Similar to the concept of identity, the meaning, scope, and role of human agency transforming actions and practices has been critically debated over the past four decades. More specifically, poststructuralist understandings of human agency differ significantly from the humanist (Davies, 1991). According to Davies, for humanist scholars, “to be a person is to have agency” (p. 341), and agency is substituted for concepts like free will, freedom, self-regulation, rationality, authority, and ‘power to’. However, poststructuralists (Benson, 1990; Davies, 1990, 1991) reject this position and propose that people’s agency is constructed within discourses available to them. That is, people with more access to discourses will have more agency than others who are not (Davies, 1990).

In view of this position, I view teachers' and students' agency in the context of marketisation policy reforms as being mostly determined by their positioning within the intersection of marketisation and other policy discourses. For example, as discussed in Chapter 9, each teacher responded to dominant discourses that passively positioned them in different and particular ways, depending on their available personal and collective positions and resources. Thus, some chose to 'improvise' teaching aids from the environment, others borrowed from fellow teachers in the same or other schools, and others purchased their own marketised books from bookshops because they were being positioned as passive, dependent, and mechanical workers through inadequate access to those resources.

2.3.2 Teacher empowerment

Based on poststructuralists, scholars (Beijaard, Meijer, & Verloop, 2004; Blase & Blase, 2001; Boey, 2010; Carl, 2002; Zemelman, Ross, & Harvey, 2009) show that teacher empowerment through participation in school management decision making, and curriculum development is one strategy for teacher professional growth, status recognition, and motivation. For example, Blase and Blase (2001) discuss some empowerment strategies, including shared governance; trusting teacher expertise, respect, and dignity; creating supportive structures and innovative chances; working autonomously; providing resources; "valuing and rewarding good work" (p. 121); and reducing work risks and threats. These strategies, they argue, develop teacher creativity, power, motivation, pedagogic knowledge, and autonomy in curriculum decision making. However, other scholars like Bullough (1997) stressed the role of teacher education training discourses as the first step in the construction of teacher identity. It is initial teacher training and later in-service professional development programmes that reshape teacher knowledge, motivation, work values, and ethics, especially in the face of local, national, and global political, social, and economic changes. Accordingly, Furlong and Maynard (1995) and Furlong, Whitty, Whiting, Burton, and Miles (2000) argue that while teacher knowledge is about content, pedagogy, and learning theories, autonomy relates to the extent and how teachers use such knowledge and pedagogy for teaching and assessment. On the other hand, responsibility relates to the extent to which teachers perform their work as required by the profession and society, including curriculum development, planning, and decision making (Carl, 2002; McNeil, 2003).

2.3.3 Teaching as a reflective activity

Teacher professional identity and empowerment identifies what educational discourses refer to as the ‘good teacher’ and ‘good teaching’ (Moore, 2000, 2004, 2012), which identify empowered teachers who have knowledge, autonomy, and professional responsibility. It is argued that autonomy enables teacher *reflexivity*, which enables them to become *reflective practitioners* (Schön, 1983). To ‘reflect’ means to ‘think deeply’ about a phenomenon. The reflective practitioner model emphasises teachers’ capability to think deeply and consciously in a constructive manner about their work experience in order to generate skills and knowledge that enhances work effectiveness. Reflection therefore involves multiple “strategies and techniques one has at one’s disposal or that one is in the process of developing” (Moore, 2000, p. 129). It is done in selective, flexible, and strategic ways, while considering the historical, political, and sociocultural contexts of the practice or problem at hand.

Thus, reflection involves teacher thinking of some alternative ways of improving their work by relating their past and current practices for improving future teaching practice (Pollard & Collins, 2002, 2005). The reflective practitioner discourse mainly encourages teachers to go beyond the traditional teacher preparations and classroom presentation of the subject matter by involving students and evaluation of both the teaching–learning process objectives, depending on their experiences and situations (Armstrong & Savage, 1998; Schunk, 2008). The discourse also requires teachers to be conversant with appropriate teaching and learning theories and research and to develop ways of improving their practices, including personal diaries and journals for self-evaluation of their daily teaching. Schunk (2008) argues that in order to develop reflective professional skills, teachers need to “reflect on their beliefs and theories about students, content, context, and learning and check the validity of these beliefs and theories against reality” (p. 272). Similar views are found in four characteristics of reflective teachers and teaching put forward by Armstrong and Savage (1998, as cited in Schunk, 2008) that include: considering the context; utilising personal and professional knowledge; constructing fluid curricular plans; and committing to formal and informal professional development.

Despite its relevance, reflective practitioner discourse has been undermined by government policies and teacher education programmes (Moore, 2000). As opposed to a

competence discourse, which focuses on the “teacher as a technician and deliverer of knowledge and skills that can be easily monitored through measurable outcomes” (p. 130), the reflective practitioner discourse stresses more on the qualitative research approach. This approach is concerned with teaching practices that emphasise “meaning-assignment and situation-defining, and how the social world is defined by people, how they are continually striving to make sense of the world” (Moore, 2000, p. 130). According to Goodson and Walker (1991, as cited in Moore, 2000), the reflective practitioner discourse accepts the fact that curriculum practices are complex processes that cannot be reduced to a set of competencies, and that it is influenced by individual and educational systemic factors. It can be accomplished by the application of different approaches, intuitions, and personal judgments. In theory and practice, the reflective discourse is linked to the postmodernist scholars who consider teaching as an art that focuses on classroom processes, experiences, and desires (Moore, 2000).

In connection to the reflective practitioner discourse, literature also suggests another discourse, *reflexive teacher*. According to Moore (2000, 2004), ‘reflexive’ discourse is concerned with people who practice and is more about “the wider personal and general social contexts within which practices takes place, than on the reflection about practice per se” (2000, p. 133). Thus, a ‘reflexive teacher’ is concerned with right and wrong practices, the reasons for such practices, and the influence of a teacher’s past and current work experiences on such practices in an effort to improve the performance of their work. The reflexive process is consistent with three aspects of ‘reflective activity’, namely “returning to experience, attending to feelings, and re-evaluating experience” (Moore, 2000, p. 133). Debates on reflexive teaching and learning also suggest the role of multiple intelligences and representations, multiple roles and contexts, and critical reflection of both teachers’ and students’ classroom practices and actions. Similarly, in his empirical research with student teachers, Moore (2004) identified four kinds of reflective activity and five sites of reflective practices. The activities were “ritualistic reflection, pseudo-reflection, productive, constructive, or authentic reflection, and reflexivity” (p. 105).

2.3.4 Teachers as researchers, theorists, and strategists

Another model of effective teaching that defines teacher identity is that of the teacher as a ‘researcher and theorist’ (Moore, 2000, 2004, 2012) and is based on teachers’ use of

various theories and research relevant in enhancing their practices. These theories include, among others, sociocultural and developmental learning theories that inform teachers on principles of effective curriculum processes. Similarly, research plays a significant role in relating the actual practice and theory for the aim of improving practice. However, according to Moore (2000), effective research for teachers is *action research* because it is “most closely linked to reflection and reflexivity” (p. 139). For Moore, this is also because it “is carried out by practitioners on own practice in response to perceived problems or set of problems, aimed at improving understanding of the issues and situations at stake, leading in turn to the development of more effective practice”. (p. 139).

As ‘strategists’, teachers need to develop teaching that takes into account ‘human factors’ and both long-term and short-term unforeseen work situational factors. Teachers then formulate approaches to handle each of these situations (Jones, 1987; Moore, 2000). This implies that teachers need to develop pedagogic identities that rely on the application of models that suit the situation at hand, be it competencies, reflection, reflexivity, and theories and research techniques discussed above. It also requires teachers to be contingent of the situations confronting their work and develop effective teaching strategies based on past weaknesses and ‘external’ factors that might have contributed to them. Moore (2000) argues that strategic teaching pedagogy:

...involves drawing both on the different discourses or models of the good teacher *and* on a range of specific approaches and responses, in order to construct an appropriate professional identity that will promote a reasoned, proactive response rather than a predominantly self-blaming or reactive one, to the full range classroom situations including those that present major difficulties. The specific strategies are worked out *by* the teacher in response to the situation, and are as likely to draw on lists of competences as on the less formal, ongoing advice offered by colleagues during the course of practice (p. 142).

In addition to these models, it is argued that effective curriculum process is a result of individual and teamwork efforts that is to be supported by what Moore (2000) calls ‘whole-school’ institutional and curriculum policy. These policies relate to the availability and use of physical, human, and financial resources, and they need to be dynamic and context specific. They also need to be made at the school level and involve teachers in enhancing the effectiveness of their work.

Despite such work, Moore (2000) did not consider the effects of these dominant discourses on teachers’ work, knowledge, cultures, and identity construction, especially

in the context of neoliberal education policies that have influenced education and schooling in the United Kingdom (UK), US, New Zealand, Australia, and Sub-Saharan Africa. Moore could have given adequate empirical evidence to support his theoretical analysis. Based on this point, I aim to extend Moore's studies by examining the effects of the dominant discourses on marketisation policy reforms with an experience of a case study from a developing country's education system.

2.3.5 Teachers as socially organised and collaborative workers

Studies indicate that in the work contexts, teachers organised themselves into subject departments rather than the school as a whole (Siskin, 1994, 1995). In a case study of high school teachers, Siskin found that teachers worked as a community by sharing available resources in their environment and curricula. Consequently, various social characteristics developed along with the professional work within the subject departments. These characteristics were: the emergence of 'social norms'; acquisition and distribution of limited economic resources; and what Siskin called *epistemological communities*. The social relationship between teachers was found to be strong in the schools studied, but decreased with the increase in school size. The departments also acted as 'administrative units' within schools and maintained teachers' professional identities as teachers identified themselves and interacted with the subjects they taught, being English, Mathematics, or Science (Siskin, 1991). Further, Talbert, and McLaughlin (1994) ascribe teacher identity construction through collegiality and collaboration which help to develop major professional values and practices. However, in practice, the above professional roles that define and maintain teacher identity have, in many cases, been problematic, especially in the contexts of politically driven, intense education policy reforms as the following section demonstrates.

2.4 The effects of domination and the control of teachers' work

In this section, I discuss the various effects of domination and control of teachers' work through the ways discussed above. Generally, literature categorises these effects into material, ideological, and political effects.

2.4.1 Material, ideological, and political effects

Studies (Apple, 1982b, 1986, 1995; Apple & Teitelbaum, 1986; Saltman, 2000, 2005; Smyth, Dow, Hattam, Reid, & Shacklock, 2000) identified that the material and ideological effects of domination include *deskilling* and *reskilling*, *work intensification*, and demotivation. Similarly, Saltman (2005) has shown an ideological effect of neoliberal corporatisation policy is that it constructed teachers' and students' loyalty to a business corporation — the *Edison*, as opposed to the state. For example, students pledge to be loyal to the corporation before a national flag, probably an everyday event. Teachers and students were “being instructed in pledging themselves to the corporation.” (Saltman, 2005, p. 3). According to Saltman, there are three reasons why business corporations have invested in schooling over the past thirty years. These include marketing in schools and profiting from public school administration contracts; curriculum control for private interests; and preparing its future discipline workforce and consumers from out-of-school graduates. The other ideological impact is the construction of teachers' and students' ideologies that the private sector is better than the public, and that the latter is bureaucratic, inefficient, and incompetent to run public schools. In the US for example, *Edison*, owned and utilised mass media to cultivate a business-oriented perspective among the citizens and students.

Domination and control of teachers' work also have political effects. For example, Smyth et al. (2000) identified teachers' resistance to domination, either as individuals or as groups. Thus, there were several active and passive forms of teacher resistance: through ignoring reforms, altering them to fit their work philosophy or selecting useful aspects of the reforms, or rejecting to conform with them. Whatever form it took, resistance reshaped teachers' work and the achievement of state educational objectives in the interest of particular groups. It also led to wastage of scarce resources and time that cannot be easily replaced if wasted. Smyth et al. also argue that control and domination reshaped teacher professional identity by creating a social gap between them and the school level policy interpreters. Consequently, the relationships between school administrators and teachers changed from educational leadership and work colleagues to relationships of employment, entrepreneurship, business management, and line management. Similarly, resistance to neoliberal reforms not only involved teachers, but also public reactions and resistance through protests and

debates in the form of mass demonstrations, and breaking school rules and regulations that also involved students (Saltman, 2005).

2.4.2 Teachers and students' critical literacy and numeracy

Tanzania's literature on teachers and textbooks has neglected to note the effects of marketisation on teachers' and students' critical literacy and numeracy. Elsewhere, Moore (2000) found that students spent less time on reading because of "dealing with questions from textbooks, copying from books or the board, and 'skimming' texts in search for answers" (p. 78). It was argued that teachers reinforced this pattern of reading in the argument that it favoured slow learners:

Clearly, school subjects will differ in the emphasis they place on learning from written texts. However, if generally there is very little continuous and 'engaged' reading going on across the curriculum it seems bound to limit students' opportunities to *develop* their reading, including their ability to profit from it. For this reason, many schools encourage all subject departments to find opportunities to build continuous reading activities into their subject syllabuses and curricula (Moore, 2000, p. 78).

According to Moore (2000), students found difficulties in reading texts that were set for them in implementing the curriculum. This problem was severe for students who were joining secondary schools at age 'eleven'. Teachers faced an additional task of simplifying the books for use by the students and this was quite expensive in terms of time and other resources. In addition, "simplified texts will be less likely to help students become familiar with the range of vocabulary appropriate for their learning" (p. 79). Teachers also resorted to solving the problems of textbook difficulty by creating collaborative and 'group reading' programmes and orienting students to the new sources.

Further, most students were good in 'literal comprehension', but faced great difficulties in understanding text meanings and relating these with their prior knowledge. Moore (2000) concluded that students could benefit more effectively from their reading comprehension if they had adequately reflected on their readings. He recommended 'Direct Activities Related to the Texts' (DARTs) as one effective strategy. DARTS consisted of a number of shared group reading activities that enabled students to concentrate "on the structure and meaning of different types of texts encountered in school" (p. 79). Three tasks were used, including '*sequencing exercises*',

‘*prediction* exercises’ and ‘*cloze* passages’ that involved filling in the blanks. However, Moore’s study is not related with the effects of marketisation.

2.5 Education policy, and teachers’ pedagogical code, knowledge, and identity construction

As mentioned earlier, pedagogy is one dimension of teachers’ work. This section considers the effects of the historical, sociocultural, and political contexts of classroom pedagogy. As this study focuses on how marketisation policy and politics, discussed in Chapter 1, may have affected teachers’ pedagogic practices, I discuss how classroom pedagogy has varied over time and its relation to wider institutional and societal, political, and cultural contexts of education policy. Below, I review studies relating education policy, teachers’ pedagogical codes, pedagogic practices, and identity.

2.5.1 Teachers’ pedagogical codes and the construction of power/knowledge and identity

Bernstein (1975) suggests that “pedagogy defines what counts as a valid transmission of knowledge” (p. 85). Similarly, Anderson (2005) provides that pedagogy is an important tool for educational knowledge transmission because it “determines how teachers think and act. Pedagogy affects students’ lives and expectations. Pedagogy is the framework for discussions about teaching and the process by which we do our jobs as teachers.” (p. 53). Further, pedagogy also defines teachers’ professional knowledge and forms their beliefs about how students learn educational knowledge planned for reproduction. Thus, pedagogy defines teaching and learning culture in a school and classroom. Moreover, Alexander (2001) provides that “pedagogy encompasses the performance of teaching together with the theories, beliefs, policies and controversies that inform and shape it” (p. 540). Pedagogy ties together the teaching process with cultural, structural, and social factors.

In analysing how teacher pedagogy reshapes the social construction of educational knowledge and identities in schools in the context of marketisation, Bernstein’s (1971) concept of a ‘*pedagogical code*’ or pedagogic discourse is important because teaching and learning involves a process of communication through language discourse that follows some established rules and principles. These rules or principles are what Bernstein (1971) calls *pedagogical codes*. A code is generally defined as “a set

of organizing principles behind the language employed by members of a social group” (Littlejohn, 2002, p. 178). In his analysis of social class and educational knowledge transmission in schools and classrooms, Bernstein (1971) proposed the sociolinguistic theory of language codes. As Littlejohn (2002) argues, Bernstein’s code theory suggests how the linguistic codes teachers use in everyday classroom communication both reveal and reshape the assumptions they make about the curriculum, pedagogy, and evaluation. Moreover, the forms of relationship constructed within and between teacher and students influence language use as well as social interaction. Pedagogical codes influence what and how teachers think, behave, and communicate curriculum and official knowledge in the classroom. For Bernstein (1971), teacher pedagogic codes are socially and politically constructed from historical, social, political, and cultural discourses at the societal, institutional, and local school levels. Thus, an ‘educational knowledge code’, according to Bernstein (1975), “refers to the underlying principles which shape curriculum, pedagogy and evaluation, and the form it takes depends upon social principles which regulate the classification and framing of knowledge made public in educational institutions” (pp. 85-86).

This means that the way language is used within and between teachers and students influences the importance and meaning attached to the subject matter knowledge and ideas or the message communicated between them. Littlejohn (2002) supports this argument by saying that we learn our “place in the world by virtue of the language codes” (p. 178) we use. The linguistic code teachers employ in their work definitely denotes their social identity (Bernstein, 1971, 2003). Bernstein (2003) thus proposed *restricted* and *elaborated codes* as two forms of language codes, based on linguistic and psychological levels. Based on the linguistic level, for an elaborated code, “the speaker will select from a relatively extensive range of alternatives and therefore the probability of predicting the pattern of organizing elements is considerably reduced” (p. 58). In addition, for restricted codes, “the number of these alternatives is often severely limited and the probability of predicting the pattern is greatly increased.” (pp. 58).

Moreover, Bernstein (1971, 2003) distinguishes the two codes at the psychological level based on “the extent to which each facilitates (elaborated code) or inhibits (restricted code) the orientation to symbolise intent in a verbally explicit form.” (p. 58). Consequently, behaviours resulting from these code types will “develop different modes of self-regulation and so different forms of orientation. The codes

themselves are functions of a particular form of social relationship or, more generally, qualities of social structure.” (p. 58-59). Bernstein elaborates on the origins and functions performed by these codes in the communication process:

An elaborated code has its origins in a form of social relationship which increases the tension on the individual to select from his linguistic resources a verbal arrangement which closely fits specific referents. The code becomes a vehicle for individual responses. If a restricted code facilitates the construction and exchange of ‘social’ symbols, then an elaborated code facilitates the construction and exchange of ‘individuated’ symbols. The verbal planning function associated with this code promotes a higher level of structural organization and lexicon selection. The preparation and delivery of relatively *explicit* meaning is the major purpose of the code. (p. 59).

Based on the above discussion, I define *teacher pedagogic code* as linguistic texts employed by teachers in the curriculum process that represent their power/knowledge, ideologies, beliefs, perceptions, and desires. For this study, I critically examine how marketisation policy texts and discourses reshaped secondary teachers’ pedagogical codes and the nature of curriculum, pedagogy, and evaluation practices developed in schools and classrooms. Teachers’ pedagogical codes in the context of marketisation is related to policy because, as Ball (1994) argues, policies are reshaped from the contexts of policy text production, of influence, and of practice; teacher pedagogical codes are also reshaped in Bernstein’s (1990, 1996, 2000) three fields of pedagogic device and their associated rules.

Bernstein (1990) also relates the school curriculum and the construction of official knowledge, social class, and identity formation through his concepts of classification and framing strengths. He stressed that strong classification leads to a sharp boundary and, in turn, strong boundary maintainers. Strong classification also creates a strong sense of membership in a particular class and, so, a specific identity. In addition, a strong frame reduces the power of the student over what, when, and how they receive knowledge and increases the teacher’s power in the pedagogical relationship (frames). However, strong classification reduces teacher power over what they transmit as they may not overstep the boundary between content. Strong classification also reduces teachers’ power versus the boundary maintainers.

Studies (Bernstein, 1975; Hall & Murphy, 2008) show that education policy, pedagogic practice, curriculum culture, power/knowledge, and identity construction are based on the argument that:

Pedagogy involves understanding ways of participating in practice, people's opportunities and lack of opportunities to participate, and the positions people take up and are given within activity, opportunities and positions, which in turn signal identities and emerging, new ways of being in the world. (Hall & Murphy, 2008, p. ix).

The above statement identifies four major elements of pedagogy. These are pedagogy as (1) practice; (2) participation and non-participation; (3) positioning; and (4) identities. Hall and Murphy (2008) refer to this as a 'sociocultural perspective' of understanding teachers' work by locating it within a wider 'social order' and the 'experienced world'. Thus, I focus on teachers' work as influenced by the social structures in which it takes place and the actual practices constructed through marketisation policy experience.

Similarly, as curriculum leaders, teachers' pedagogical practices are significant for the development of different 'pedagogic identities'. A pedagogic identity refers to the way "teachers perceive and present themselves and their professional practice" (Moore, 2000, p. 42). These identities are constructed from the professional work demands, philosophies, and discourses. Bernstein (1996) describes three teacher identities that can be constructed in their professional work contexts as they struggle to respond to the complexities imposed on them by the nature and type of work contingencies. These identities are "decentred ... retrospective, [and] ... prospective" (p. 76).

Identity defines the way teachers respond to demands imposed on their professional work in the context of educational reforms, which differs from one context to the other, time to time, person to person, and work experience (Moore, 2004). Thus, experienced teachers will respond and develop different professional identities as compared to less experienced teachers. Moore further argued that in the contexts of externally imposed educational reforms teachers developed pragmatic discourses. This means that in order to survive and perform their day-to-day activities, teachers compromised their "positions in order to cope with the competing 'calls' to which they were subjected" (p. 14). Specifically, it was found that "qualified teachers adopted professional identities and pedagogic practices that depended less on informed reflection on classroom interactions than on strategic responses to [external] influences" (p. 14). From this study, Moore defined three kinds of pragmatism developed by teachers: 'the contingent', 'the principled', 'and the discursive'. For Moore, *contingent pragmatism* is a temporary and flexible teaching approach where teachers responded to

situational and locational demands of work. These pedagogies may change with time and space. *Principled pragmatism* referred to teaching approaches where teachers adopted “introduced changes into their existing practice more deliberately and proactively than is the case with contingent pragmatism” (p. 134). Furthermore, *discursive or ideological pragmatism* is a situation in which teachers developed a pragmatic positioning that is valuable in itself and “is an appropriate, ‘balanced’, and ‘rational’ approach to professional life... [and] is likely to be found on teacher’s part across a far wider range of changes” (p. 136).

Similarly, Moore and Ash (2002) explored determinants of reflective practice among student teachers. They observed that pre-service teacher training contributed little in the development of teacher professional identity. However, some student teachers had evidence of change about previously developed conceptions and assumptions about the teaching profession (Moore, 2004). These changes among teachers’ professional identities are associated with historical, social, and political situations in which teachers were working at any given period and location. Based on such findings, it is important to critically examine how secondary teachers in Tanzania constructed their work practices using MCR. This is because their work involves a pedagogic discourse which functions in the transformation of MCR discourses from their original communicative practices and contexts and repositioning them according to contexts (Bernstein, 1990).

2.5.2 The politics of classroom pedagogic practice

For Bernstein (2000), teachers’ pedagogic practice refers to “the fundamental social context through which cultural reproduction-production takes place” (p. 3), and includes the relationships between teachers and students in this process. Some scholars (Anyon, 1980, 1981, 2005, 2011; Apple, 1995, 2004; Bernstein, 1990, 2000; McLaren, 2005) investigated the relationship between social class and schools’ curriculum construction. They established that existing power relations and systems of inequalities in society are reflected in the social construction of school curriculum and official knowledge. In particular, a community’s economic position and contribution in school marketisation policy links with Bernstein’s theory on the relationship between power, social class, and school knowledge reproduction. These critical curriculum theorists agree that school curriculum and official knowledge construction is not ‘neutral’ and ‘objective’; rather, they argue, it is political and takes place in a “nexus of power relations” (McLaren,

2005, p. 409). These politics reproduce structures of inequalities that exist in the wider society and schools (Apple, 1988, 2000, 1995, 2004). Further, they argue that within such power relations are social structures, cultures, and ideologies, including those of teachers and students. These cultures, relations, and ideologies are related with curriculum and knowledge construction processes and, therefore, may limit or facilitate the processes.

Tanzania's recent studies on secondary teachers' *pedagogic content knowledge* (Kitta, 2004) show that externally imposed and donor-funded dominant discourses of what Kitta calls *exemplary materials* provided through seminars and workshops programmes such as the *Collaboration to Support Mathematics Teachers* (COSMAT) and *Teacher Education Assistance in Mathematics and Science Project* (TEAMS) improved teacher pedagogic knowledge. This improvement was through 'peer collaboration', knowledge, and skills. Kitta also identified that through collaboration with students, teachers reproduced a "discussion of the past exam questions and solving students' questions." (p. 121). However, such studies failed to critically examine the sociopolitical effects of those programmes on teachers' professional identity, work autonomy, and creativity to discover their own knowledge and pedagogies, rather than relying on donor-funded textbooks and resources. Further, such studies reconstructed among teachers the discourses and ideologies of 'difficulty contents' and 'syllabus coverage' as the main reasons for teachers' work:

In terms of individual use, teachers used exemplary materials intensively in teaching probability lessons. Results indicate that teachers also appreciate the material because the content, which they perceived as difficult to teach, was covered more clearly than in regular textbooks. A few teachers used the textbook as an additional source, because they erroneously thought that the exemplary materials did not cover some topics of the mathematics syllabus. (p. 135).

Similarly, on teachers' and students' interaction and curriculum participation, Kitta (2004) found that these were constrained by students' communicative difficulties because they were less competent in English as a LOI. Findings indicate that a number of students could not respond to teachers' questions, not because they did not have an idea of how to answer, but because they did not know how to communicate their ideas to the teacher. If the same question was asked in Kiswahili, students were able to answer it.

However, Kitta (2004) did not investigate the effect of these learning contexts on the construction of official knowledge/power. He did not look at the reproduction of social structures and cultures of inequalities and domination either, nor how the LOI and marketised curriculum materials could be effective tools for reproduction of class, gender, and cultural hegemony and ideological domination. That is, studies need to investigate the hidden agenda behind English as the LOI and the influence of textbooks to achieve such agendas.

Similarly, studies that examined the ‘symbolic power’ and LOI politics in Tanzania failed to link these with marketisation school textbooks in general and with curriculum, knowledge, pedagogy, and evaluation. For example, the debate on the politics of the effects of the LOI on secondary school teachers’ work in Tanzania (Bhaiji, 1976; Brock-Utne, 1993b, 2000, 2001; Criper & Dodd, 1984; Kinyaduka & Kiwara, 2013; Mvungi, 1982; Qorro, 2013; Roy-Campbell, 1992; Roy-Campbell & Qorro, 1997; Rubagumya, 1991) has shown that teachers’ work has, since independence, been challenged by LOI. These authors argue for the power and ideological struggles between Kiswahili and English, as two opposing languages in the school curriculum on one hand, and ethnic languages as the language of family and community socialisation on the other. Other scholars have considered the use of both English and Swahili as a capitalist and state hegemonic and ideological domination of schools and teachers’ work in Tanzania and other African countries. Brock-Utne (2000) argues that after independence, domination was constructed and reconstructed through education policies and practices that sustained dependence on the capitalist economy. These capitalists include former colonial powers, the global capitalist financial institutions such as the World Bank and IMF, and large private publishers. They maintain dependence through the domination and control of schools, supply grants, conditional aids, physical resources like CR, and LOI. (Rubagumya, 1991) and Brock-Utne (2000) provides examples of how the British Council financed the English Language Teaching Support Project (ELTSP) in Tanzania between 1986 and 1996 on the condition that English continues to be the LOI in secondary schools. Such LOI and publishing politics are maintained by former colonial powers for political, economic, and social policy motives (Bgoya, 1992, 1997; Roy-Campbell, 1992, 2001; Roy-Campbell & Qorro, 1997; Thing’o, 1981). Thus, they aimed “to retain their languages as a way of ensuring book purchases from their publishers, amounting to millions of pounds or dollars in business every year” (Bgoya, 1997, p.17). Further, school CR

publishing had to be controlled and dominated by foreign capitalist publishing companies for hegemonic and ideological domination.

A recent case study by Kinyaduka and Kiwara (2013) on LOI, which collected the opinions and perceptions of teachers, students, and parents without analysing classroom cultures, showed that English was a barrier in students' learning. Therefore, students preferred mixing "Swahili and English during classes" (p. 90). On the other hand, many teachers, parents, and students "preferred teachers to use English as a language of teaching and evaluation" (p. 90). The authors suggested "the use of both, English and Swahili in teaching and evaluation, that is, students should write their exams in either of the languages." (p. 90). From these studies, LOI politics disempowered secondary school teachers and students in their work and, therefore, has challenged curriculum and knowledge construction. However, few of these studies established the extent of the knowledge and ideological construction effects and their relation to school textbook marketisation. Because of this weakness, I employ Bernstein's (1990) concept of 'pedagogical discourse' to analyse classroom pedagogy and its effects on the social construction of curriculum, knowledge, and identities.

Most Tanzanian studies (Jokolo, 2004; Komunte, 1995; Mbilinyi, 1979) on classroom pedagogy share similar findings, and epistemological and methodological approaches. They agree that since the 1970s (Mbilinyi, 1979) until the 1990s (Komunte, 1995) and, more recently (Jokolo, 2004; Mosha, 2011, 2012), teachers' pedagogy selection and practices were determined, among others, by the availability of learning resources and teachers' and students' backgrounds on the subject. For example, Mbilinyi (1979) found that there was little significant change in pedagogic practice for teaching social science curricula because "they remained descriptive and historical, typical of bourgeois ideology which permeated first the colonial and later the post-independence educational process" (p. 100).

As a concern to this study on classroom pedagogy and its effect on curriculum and official knowledge construction, I reviewed theoretical studies (Bernstein, 1971, 1975, 1977, 1990, 1996, 2000; Hall & Murphy, 2008; Leach & Moon, 2008; Marshall, Coxon, Jenkins, & Jones, 2000; Moore, 2000, 2004, 2012). Most studies agreed on the strong relationship between politics, pedagogy, and the construction of cultures, knowledge, and identities. For example, Marshall et al. (2000) argued, "whatever happens in education is influenced by pedagogy. ... And what happens in pedagogy, teaching styles, curriculum, and so on, is the outcome of certain policies adopted by

schools or educational institutions or governmental bureaucracies.” (p. 9). These authors mean that, although there are other influences, classroom pedagogy is shaped and reshaped by political, institutional, historical, and cultural settings in which teachers perform their work, mainly the wider state macropolitical and school micropolitical and sociocultural practices. This is the main reason why Bernstein (1990, 1996, 2000), whose theoretical framework I adopted and discuss later, invested his life in studying pedagogy, as shaped and reshaped by macro and micropolitics, and the reproduction of official knowledge and identities.

However, together with this theoretical understanding that politics, pedagogy, and teachers’ work are connected, there are limited Tanzanian studies that critically and historically trace marketisation policy from the time of its adoption to the institutional and cultural contexts to which it was implemented. Such investigation could have enabled policymakers and practitioners to understand the extent to which marketisation has reshaped classroom pedagogy. To show the importance of this understanding based on critical theory, Bernstein (1996), Bourdieu and Passeron (1990), and Prunty (1984) argue that education policy needs to be critically examined because of “the very role of transmitting values, and selecting people for, or excluding them from, social and occupational positions” (Prunty, p. 41) through pedagogic practices. Prunty therefore suggests that policy analysts must take seriously the dominant values, interests, and power relations reproduced through curriculum, pedagogy, and evaluation that may benefit and disadvantage particular groups.

2.5.3 The sociocultural contexts of classroom pedagogic practice

Criticisms levelled against *cognitivist* (Piaget, 1926, 1971, 1975; Piaget & Inhelder, 1969) and *behaviourist* learning theories (Skinner, 1953, 1974) led to the emergence of *sociocultural* (Vygotsky, 1962, 1978) and *constructivist* learning theories (Jessel, 1999). Piaget and Skinner, among others, were criticised for failure to consider political and sociocultural factors in the learning process. Sociocultural and constructivist theories consider learning as a social and cultural construction of knowledge that takes place in varying historical, social, political, and cultural contexts. Thus, there is no fixed and rigid knowledge waiting to be transmitted to our minds as assumed by cognitivists. However, these learning theories have remained the basis for understanding best teaching and learning practices in many countries, and most teacher education

discourses constructed them as the foundation for informing effective learning (Moore, 2000, 2004, 2012).

A Tanzanian study (Mbilinyi, 1979) identified 'formal administrative structures' and 'role relationships' in teachers' work in schools. These structures and relationships determined teachers' and students' socialisation patterns and their functioning. Most policies that determined teachers' work in schools originated from the Ministry of Education and were to be implemented without teachers' questioning their relevance to schools, curriculum, and their work. At school level, there was less democracy in decision making, and school heads had "*de jure* power and control over the subjects to be taught by each teacher" (p. 102) and allocation of teaching and non-teaching functions. Further, Mbilinyi also noted the departmentalisation and stratification of teachers' work based on taught subjects. There was evidence of separation between arts and science subject teachers that was encouraged by differences in salaries, as science teachers were paid slightly more than arts, a situation that made them perceived as superior to their fellow artists. "Science teachers often took breaks separately in their own offices, usually the laboratory preparation rooms." (p. 102). Further, students ranked "science teachers and science subjects higher, calling them 'tough' and their positions more remunerative in terms of future prospects." (p. 102-103).

According to Mbilinyi (1979), social stratification was encouraged by individual and socially constructed differences in teachers' academic backgrounds, work experience, sex, and marital relationships. This implied that in their working relationships, teachers developed 'communities' of graduates versus non-graduates, seniors versus juniors, and married versus singles which shaped work behaviour, motivation, attitudes, and performance. There were work-related characteristics of authoritarianism, hierarchism, departmentalisation, and social stratification that affected teachers' work.

Similarly, Komunte (1995) found that the majority of secondary teachers selected "student-centered language learning strategies like pair/group/class discussions, reading texts silently and loudly in the classroom" (p. xii). However, it is surprising that Komunte concluded that such selected and practised pedagogies did not influence "students learning processes observed in the classroom" (p. viii). Such findings and conclusion meant that although pedagogy selection and practice was influenced by CR, these did not shape knowledge and identity construction. This conclusion contradicted data presented by Komunte who found that CR shaped students' reading skills. Further,

her finding that students' poor English language knowledge and background, and insufficient reading materials where "four or five students" (p.77) shared an English textbook during silent reading practice, could not demonstrate how student-centered pedagogies were practised and the curricular outcomes. These and similar study findings not only contradict learning theories that I discuss later, but also common sense assumptions about learning. Thus, such studies also exemplify the limitations of survey epistemology and methodology in examining the influence of pedagogic practice on knowledge construction. Komunte's study also reflected the effects of reconstructed power relations of domination reproduced through curriculum and pedagogy because it showed that, in text reading pedagogy, students were "so nervous that they made silly mistakes while reading" (p. 76). Further, she noted students code switching to Swahili in an English lesson, an act that was suppressed by teachers' power. However, the author underestimated these observations as serious policy issues that needed particular in-depth research and policy attention. Thus, Komunte (1995) was consistent with past studies' (Kibogoya, 1988; Roy-Campbell & Qorro, 1987, 1997) findings on note taking and lecturing pedagogies.

Other studies (Kapolessya, 2010; Nzigilwa, 2010; Osaki, 2000) have shown that student-involving pedagogies, such as questions and answers, independent reading and reflection, fieldwork, group discussions, and debates, were effective in enabling students to construct planned curricular experiences. Similarly, through qualitative methods, Jokolo (2004) examined the classroom interactional framework in advanced level Biology among teachers and students and with CR in three selected schools in Dar es Salaam and Mbeya regions. The findings indicated that there was less interaction among teachers and students and CR as teachers dominated classroom interaction because of large class sizes, inadequate resources, less developed students' and teachers' subject matter knowledge, identity, and motivation in shaping their work. For example, when students asked critical questions from their experiences, such as "Why when food particles enter the respiratory tract or when we take in spiced food tears come out?" The teacher's response was, "It is not indicated in the textbook" (p. 86), showing that the teacher's knowledge and practice were shaped and limited by the textbook contents. Their knowledge did not go beyond the textbooks, and they could not think and create for their own knowledge based on their environment. However, Jokolo did not examine how such teachers' responses further constrained students' knowledge, creativity, and critical thinking, and reproduced dependence on textbooks as dominant

discourses. Further, Jokolo did not link these classroom pedagogic practices with the sociocultural, political, and historical contexts of learning and the curricula outcomes shaped by this teacher domination. In terms of social construction of knowledge through interaction, Jokolo (2004) found that interaction in a Science practical-based curriculum was higher than in the theory sessions. However, Jokolo did not examine the cultures and ideologies reproduced through curriculum texts and practices.

Jokolo (2004) also established similar findings with other studies (Chonjo, 1980; Chonjo et al., 1995; Chonjo & Walford, 2001; Mwinsheikhe, 2002) how teacher pedagogy constrained students' participation in knowledge and identity construction. According to Jokolo, teachers predetermined which student should respond to their questions before they asked those questions. This practice discouraged other students from listening and participating because they knew that those questions were for the selected students. Sometimes chorus answering was constructed in the learning process because of a lack of systematic approach to questioning. Further, Jokolo found that the pedagogies prescribed by government curriculum policy texts "were minimally used or were not used at all" (p. 95) and attributed this discursive contradiction to insufficient CR, lack of teacher professional development, large classes, and a lack of teacher motivation. However, Jokolo did not consider the sociopolitical reasons for these attributions, nor the power relations reproduced through the pedagogies constructed by teachers. Moreover, like other studies on classroom pedagogy discussed above, Jokolo (2004) also revealed static classrooms with students' seating arrangements in rows, facing the teacher, and that note copying was the main pedagogic practice constructed in the Biology curriculum process; however, the impact of these pedagogies on power/knowledge and identities was not considered. Jokolo also found teachers' curriculum planning and practice structuring in a similar, linear pattern, beginning with "oral questions followed by lesson presentation by lecturing and few interrupted questions [and] conclusion through summary/questions/assignment" (p. 95). However, the extent to which these patterns were social and politically shaped and their effects on teachers' work were not considered. Further, Jokolo found that most teachers he observed resisted lesson planning, but did not find out why and the effects of this on their work.

Some studies (Mosha, 2011, 2012) have reproduced determinants of the state of the poor quality of education in Tanzania since independence, including teacher-centred pedagogy, lack of CR, school facilities, 'cultural conditions', 'international conditions',

less financing, and teacher quality. Mosha (2012) also noted secondary school CR policy fluctuation over the past few decades from “MOEC, then to the councils, followed by private providers and now it is the schools again” (p. 72). However, these studies fail to involve school institutional sites to examine, nor how and to what extent such factors and the dominant groups affect teachers’ work. In other words, these studies lack the voices of those who experienced policy changes — the teachers and students — who construct curriculum in the first place. Moreover, Mosha (2011) explains capitalist cultures of student selection and competition through the school curriculum without noting their effects on learning and social class reproduction.

2.6 Chapter summary, literature gap, and study focus

In summary, the review in this chapter has shown that many studies on secondary schooling and teachers’ work in Tanzania over the past two decades have ended up reproducing problems faced by schools and teachers such as inadequate textbooks, funds, and teachers in schools, and lack of laboratories that constructed poor educational achievement. It is very interesting that Tanzania’s secondary researchers did not dare to analyse what is in those available textbooks. The idea that textbook contents and organisation have discursive and ideological effects on teachers and students has not crossed their minds. Further, very few researchers have investigated why there were no textbooks in schools and classrooms and how teachers performed their work in such contexts. That is, as Apple (1986) argues, texts are political and cultural artefacts representing the political economy and sociocultural views of the producers, distributors, and consumers. Although in the context of marketisation in Tanzania such resources were published, distributed, and consumed by individuals and groups from diverse sociocultural, political, and economic orientations, no study has specifically addressed teachers’ work politics and cultures reshaped by marketisation policy texts and discourses.

Similarly, although most of these Tanzania’s literatures continued to show that secondary schooling and teachers’ work faced less access to resources, knowledge, inadequate teacher training, and fewer educational achievements, these studies face severe epistemological and methodological limitations. This is because they do not apply critical and poststructuralist approaches. As I discuss in Chapter 3, these approaches are relevant for exposing and challenging the various forms of inequalities, oppression, and power relations that are produced and reproduced through CR and

teachers' work in the face of policy reform challenges as discussed above. These approaches are relevant, especially in the context of marketisation and other education policy reforms where secondary schooling and teachers' work were open to struggle for various powerful competing and contradictory groups operating in the areas of CR financing, production, and distribution as discussed in Chapter 1. Thus, because of such epistemological weaknesses, such scholars continued the passive culture and failed to expose the various interests and effects of the policy reforms and powerful competing groups involved. If we want to expose and challenge the interests of these groups and emancipate our teachers, students, and society from the political effects of such policy reforms, studies need to be critical and poststructural.

Further, critical and poststructural approaches are relevant if we want to expose the sociocultural and political meanings reconstructed through written and spoken policy texts and CR produced and reproduced at points of production, distribution, and consumption. It is important to analyse how these policy text meanings reshape teachers' work. Therefore, there was a need to conduct an ethnographic study to fill this gap. I consequently aimed to critically analyse the politics of teachers' work from historical, cultural, and political perspectives because MCR are cultural products and their production, distribution, and consumption have social, political, and economic implications for the curriculum, pedagogy, and evaluation.

2.6.1 Problem statement, study's rationale, and contribution to knowledge

As the above discussions have shown, the focus on teachers' work in Tanzania in the context of marketisation policy reforms has opened Tanzania's secondary schools and teachers' work into struggle and competition among different capitalist publishing companies and financial institutions with different economic and political motives. Marketisation also changed the government's role as a key player to a facilitator in education provision. Supporters of marketisation argued that such a change would improve curriculum process and knowledge and skills construction. It is imperative to critically examine how marketisation policy reforms reshape Tanzania's secondary teachers' work and professional identity and, thereby, motivation, experiences, beliefs, and effectiveness.

Moreover, over the past few decades, poverty and inequality reduction, gender empowerment, and curriculum change policies foreground the teacher's role and

secondary schooling for quality education and access as empowerment vehicles. For example, both EFA and the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) talk of improving educational access, equity, and quality (Mushi, 2009). Similarly, both the National Strategy for Growth and Reduction of Poverty and the National Vision 2025 highlight education as a tool for poverty and inequality reduction. However, such policies coincided with marketisation policy reforms that emphasised educational privatisation. Further, marketisation and privatisation coincided with secondary education expansion politics over the past two decades, thus increasing pressures over school administrators and classroom teachers.

Textbooks are the major inputs in schooling and teachers' work in developing countries' contexts. However, as I also discussed, MCR production, distribution, and consumption is an area of intense political and ideological struggles because of competing and contradictory discourses of business corporatisation that has dominated education around the world. Further, MCR consumption is also influenced by the historical, political, sociocultural, and economic contexts of its production, distribution, and consumption. Thus, there is a contradiction and dilemma between the increased demand for education and MCR and struggles from global capital, national governments, and communities. All these have shaped and reshaped teachers' work in the classroom, and more pressures are being created.

However, there is less research evidence whether these policy reforms in Tanzania have improved educational quality, equity, and access. What is available is evidence of deterioration in quality, equity, and access in the provision of education at secondary education (URT, 1982, 1984, 1995a, 1995b, 1999b, 2004d). Few studies have investigated the effects of marketisation on teachers' work. Therefore, this study contributes in understanding the nature of teachers' work within these political and ideological struggles and examines strategies for improving teachers' work.

This study thus informs curriculum policy research, theory, and practice in Tanzania by informing policymakers, administrators, teachers, and students on the discursive and constitutive effects of marketisation policy reform. The study's findings add to current knowledge on the effects of educational privatisation and marketisation on teachers' work by delineating the challenges imposed by markets and relevant improvements required on the curriculum, pedagogy, and evaluation. This study is therefore a contribution to the on-going debate on education privatisation and

marketisation as opposed to public provision that emerged in the late 1980s as discussed in this and previous chapters.

2.6.2 Purpose of the study

The purpose of this study was to critically analyse the politics and culture of teachers' work in the context of marketisation policy reform innovation in one national setting of a case study of three secondary schools between 1992 and 2012. The study aimed to answer the overarching question: How do marketisation policy texts and discourses shape and reshape secondary school teachers' subjectivities and work practices?

2.6.3 Research questions

The study and the data collection process critically analysed and deconstructed marketisation policy texts and discourses to discern their constructive and constitutive effects on teachers' work through the following questions:

1. What policy texts and discourses were constructed in the process of marketisation policy interpretation in secondary schools?
2. How do marketisation policy texts and discourses reshape secondary school teachers' subject positions and pedagogical codes?
3. How do the subject positions and pedagogical codes constructed by marketisation policy texts and discourses reshape teachers' pedagogic practices and official knowledge construction?

In the next chapter, I discuss the theoretical approaches I selected to answer these research questions. These approaches underscore the epistemological and ontological positions that suited a critical analysis of the effects of marketisation policy reforms on teachers' work as implied in this chapter.

CHAPTER THREE

THEORISING MARKETISATION POLICY PROCESS AND DISCURSIVE EFFECTS ON TEACHERS' WORK

3.1 Introduction and chapter overview

In this chapter, I discuss the theoretical approaches I take to understand the discursive effects of marketisation policy reforms on teachers' work. I consider these theories in relation to other contemporary theoretical positions applied in education policy analysis over the past five decades. These approaches, I consider, inform understanding of the political and sociocultural nature of teachers' work in complex and dynamic contexts, and the values of institutions and individuals involved in the policy process. These approaches reject the assumptions that there is a single theory that perfectly explains marketisation policy effects because of its complex and dynamic processes and consequences. Policy analysis therefore requires a 'theoretical toolbox' rather than a single theory (Ball, 1990, 1994, 1997b). Such a 'toolbox' informs our understanding of the multiple interpretations of policy texts and discourses made in different local, institutional, and societal contexts in which schools and teachers are a part. The toolbox also relies on multiple sources of evidence to complement the weaknesses of each other.

Based on the above arguments, two epistemological positions were relevant for this study. They are *Critical Policy Studies* (Marshall, 1997; Muganda, 1999; Taylor, 2004) and *Poststructuralism* (Culler, 2008; Derrida, 1997; Foucault, 1972, 1977, 1978, 1980; Scheurich, 1997). However, as I use *Critical Policy Studies* include three theoretical approaches: *Critical Discourse Analysis* (CDA) (Fairclough, 1989, 1992, 2001, 2013, 2015), *Theory of Pedagogic Discourse* (Bernstein, 1971, 1975, 1990, 1996, 2000), and *critical ethnography* (Anderson, 1989; Carspecken, 1996). These theories form my 'interpretive resources' to understand the constructive and constitutive effects of marketisation policy and politics on teachers' work. I employed these epistemologies to analyse marketisation policy and politics through a 'policy trajectory' framework that considers policy from the contexts of text formulation, influence, and practice at the local, institutional, and societal levels of interpretation (Ball, 1994).

I organise this chapter in four parts, beginning with an introduction and overview. The second part discusses the meaning, nature, and scope of educational policy and policy analysis. The third section traces the developments in education

policy research by clearly delineating the shifts in epistemological and ontological positions in policy analysis research. I show that public policy analysis has moved away from the traditional to interpretive, critical, and poststructural theoretical approaches. The section concentrates more on CDA and Bernstein's (1990, 1996, 2000) theory of pedagogic discourse as forms of critical policy studies. It further discusses poststructuralist theorising of the discursive construction and constitution of teachers' work subjectivity and cultural practices. Section four concludes and summarises the chapter by highlighting the theoretical toolbox I have selected to guide my study, among those discussed.

3.2 Understanding education policy: Meaning, nature, process, and scope

In this section, I consider debates on the meaning, the political nature, and the scope of educational policy and policy analysis from a theoretical perspective. Understanding this debate is important because this informs the study and readers that there is no single meaning of policy, nor of the political nature of the policy process. I begin by a discussion on the disagreements on the meaning of *policy*.

3.2.1 The changing meaning of 'policy'

Some policy analysts (Ball, 1994; Ball, Maguire, & Braun, 2012; Guba, 1984) observe that many policy researchers fail to produce expected results because of a lack of a clear definition of 'policy'. To them, defining *policy* is important, but is a much complex process because there are many and sometimes contradictory definitions which influence the policy research process, outcomes, and consumption (Guba, 1984). For example, Guba's literature review identified eight different 'policy' definitions and their application to different policy arenas that produced different outcomes in terms of research questions, epistemology, methodology, and findings.

Macdonald's (1981) view of policy is that it is 'written', 'spoken', and 'enacted'. *Written policy* appears in the day-to-day organisational functioning documents, such as memos, charts, policy documents, guidelines, and minutes of meetings. A *spoken policy* refers to what the policy actors appear to speak about the policy. However, an *enacted policy* refers to "what actually goes on whether written down or not" (Macdonald, 1981, p. 103). Any discrepancy between these interpretations, Macdonald states, represents separation among organisational members based on power

relations. This is supported by Codd (1995, as cited in McLaughlin, 2000), who defines policy as “sets of political decisions which involve the exercise of power in order to preserve or alter the nature of educational institutions or practices” (p. 442). These political decisions involved in policymaking and interpretation expand the meaning of ‘policy’ to include “both text and action, words and deeds, it is what is enacted as well as what is intended” (Ball, 1994, p. 10). Thus, for Ball, *policy* needs to be understood in its broader sense as a ‘text’ and ‘discourse’ because it is represented and translated through written and/or spoken statements and includes what is expected and what is unexpected.

Ball’s (1994) use of *discourse* led me to review its meaning and I learned that it varies with contexts and the purpose of its users (Allan, 2008). It originated from Foucault (1972), who used it to mean “the general domain of all statements, sometimes as an individualizable group of statements, and sometimes as a regulated practice that accounts for a certain number of statements” (p. 80). Fairclough (1992) understands such statements as “spoken or written language use.” (p. 62). These definitions informed my understanding of marketisation policy discourses as historical and cultural meanings constructed through policy texts reshape school policy actors and teachers’ work practices. They reshape because policy discourses have multiple “meanings, metaphors, representations, images, stories, statements” (Burr, 2003, p. 64) that define individuals, groups, and institutional social, political, economic, and cultural events in a specific way over time. Within this framework, policy discourses also represent MCR categories produced, distributed, and consumed in schools and classrooms as the products of marketisation policy.

Ball’s (1994) conceptualisation of policy as texts and discourses further means that policy has discursive properties on teachers’ work. First, policy discourses influence alternative opportunities that actors have for thinking and limit their responses to change. This limitation may be made more complex by multiple interpretations because policy discourses construct multiple meanings to multiple actors. Second, policy effects are redistributive when they reproduce the voices of one group at the expense of others, especially the powerful. For Ball, such policy effects change with policymaking and implementation contexts, institutional history, and available resources because of the changing meanings of texts and discourses. In addition, this is because policy text production, distribution, and consumption go beyond and “also involves processes prior to the articulation of the text and the processes which continue

after the text has been produced, both in modifications to it as a statement of values and desired action” (Taylor, Rizvi, Lingard, & Henry, 1997, p. 28). This understanding of policy as text and discourse contributed to poststructuralist and critical approaches based on text and discourse analyses, as discussed later in this chapter.

3.2.2 Policy enactment as opposed to policy implementation

There is an argument that policy has sometimes been limited to its narrow understanding as a ‘written document’ made from the top state hierarchy to be implemented in education systems and institutions (McLaughlin, 2000, 2005). However, as Ball et al. (2012) argue, such conceptions disregard many other instances in the policy process and ‘policy enactments’ taking place in schools. That is, schools and their actors do not just implement policies formulated from the top. Rather, in the process of policy text *interpretation* and *translation*, they enact their own policies, which might not necessarily conform to those formulated from higher levels (Ball et al. 2012; Fulcher, 1989). Thus, there is less policy implementation at school levels. Rather, there is policymaking and re-making because of struggle, contestations, competitions, and conflicts between different categories of actors involved and the meanings made in the policy process. This is why Ball, Maguire, and Braun (2012) emphasise school *policy enactment*, which “involves the creative processes of interpretation and recontextualization—that is, the translation of texts into action and the abstraction of policy ideas into contextualized practices—and this process involves ‘interpretations of interpretations’” (p. 3). Enactment implies that policy text meanings and directions are contested, mediated, struggled, and/or ignored in different school contexts. The authors describe school contexts that influence policy interpretation and translation, including “situated contexts, professional cultures, material and external contexts” (p. 21).

Furthermore, according to Marshall and Gerstl-Pepin (2005), there are several limitations to educational policy enactment and interpretation at school level. First, any policy intersects with other policies that have their own objectives and goals. It is from this basis that policies compete and conflict for financial, physical, and human resources within the limits of state budgets, human thinking, information scarcity, and other challenges. The formulation of strategies to implement policies at school level is therefore not an easy task for policy actors. Rather, they face many limitations that may impinge on the achievement of policy objectives and goals. Secondly, policies are

interpreted within the diverse school political, social, economic, and cultural contexts. Several studies (Ball et al. 2011a, 2011b) indicate that school contexts have significant influences on policy interpretation and translation. Even within similar schools, education policies are reshaped by a variety of factors. That is why Ball (2011a, 2011b) argue that if we need to understand policy effects on teachers' work, policy analysis needs to seriously take into account school contexts, including "school intake, history, staffing, school ethos and culture, 'material' elements like buildings, resources and budgets, as well as external environments" (Ball et al., 2011a, p. 585). The authors conceptualise these factors in terms of situation, materiality, professionalism, and being external to the school.

The third challenge in school-based policy enactment is the problem of changing multiple meanings of policy texts and discourses. The fact that texts and discourses have multiple interpretations based on policy actors' variables, such as age, experience, knowledge, ideology, ability, educational background, school contexts, and commitment to the policy objectives and that of education, means that policy interpretation will produce varied, competing, and sometimes conflicting outcomes in schools.

3.2.3 Education policy processes and practices as political

Literature agrees that the whole policy process is political because it involves struggles, conflicts, competitions, and contestations (Ball, 1993a, 1994, 2008; Fulcher, 1989; Taylor et al., 1997). For Taylor et al. (1997), these politics occur "right from the moment of appearance of an issue on the policy agenda, through the initiation of action to the inevitable trade-offs involved in formulation and implementation" (pp. 28-29). These politics involve particular groups and individuals with differential power relations and values. Consequently, the meaning and policy effects and outcomes are reshaped within such struggles in the politics of policymaking, adoption, interpretation, and evaluation (Ball, 1990).

From this debate, therefore, education policy may be made at any level and context of education systems and institutions, which implies that such policies may significantly differ according to where they are made and implemented (McLaughlin, 2000). However, over the past two decades, education policies in various countries have been under intense pressure from global, national, and local politics in the discourses of

globalisation (Rizvi & Lingard, 2010). Despite these influences, state power and ideology remain the major determinants of education policy. This makes policymaking and implementation inseparable from state power and ideology, which critical policy analysis needs to consider.

3.2.4 Educational policy analysis

Education policy analysis is a recent area of study as part of mainstream public policy studies which developed from political science in the 1950s (Marshall & Gerstl-Pepin, 2005). Despite this, policy analysis in the past three decades has grown in scope, but is still within mainstream policy studies. Policy studies focuses on the state's role and its institutions because policy is primarily a state business, and it is the main player in the policy process (Ball, 1990; Ham & Hill, 1984; Hill & Ham, 1997). From this perspective, policy analysis is concerned with the bureaucratic nature of the state in the policymaking and implementation and its consequences for its 'subjects' and actors.

As Rizvi and Lingard (2010) argue, education policy analysis is broadly understood as an activity without universal procedures and rules, and that analytic approaches vary depending on their definition and purpose. However, despite the lack of universal procedures, scholars (Codd, 1988; Dunn, 1999; Gordon, Lewis, & Young, 1977) seem to agree on policy analysis purpose as the production of practically oriented policy knowledge. Informed by Gordon, Lewis, and Young (1977), Codd (1988) identifies two aspects of policy analysis: 'analysis *for* policy' and 'analysis *of* policy'. While *analysis for policy* provides advocacy information relevant for education policymaking, *analysis of policy* examines inputs and processes involved in the policy and its consequences on the intended and unintended groups. Thus, the latter also "examines the values, assumptions and ideologies underpinning the policy process" (Codd, 1988, pp. 235-236). Codd suggested that *analysis of policy* through policy documents "should be regarded as texts which are capable of being decoded in different ways depending upon the contexts" (p. 236) of the policy process. For Codd, linguistic text analyses examine the language of policy documents through interpretation of policy texts, contexts, and discourses.

However, such information from policy analysis may vary with the policy analyst's political and professional orientation. After discussing the meaning and purpose of education policy analysis, I critically discuss the available approaches to

conducting the analyses. I also delineate their specific strengths and weaknesses for this study.

3.3 Developments in education and public policy analysis research

Since the emergence of public policy analysis in the 1950s (Dunn, 1999) and its subsequent adoption in educational policy research, analysis has varied in epistemological and ontological positions, as discussed below.

3.3.1 Rational or traditional policy analysis approaches

According to some scholars (Olssen, 2008; Rizvi & Lingard, 2010), like in other social science disciplines, education policy analysis began with functionalist or traditional approaches that framed policy as a science resting on positivist pillars aiming to generalise and universalise the policy processes and effects (Taylor, 1997, 2004). Rational policy analysis “sought to render policy more scientific and less political by removing policy-making authority from elected bodies and giving it to expert commissions and professional city managers instead” (Stone, 2012, p. 9). For Stone, rationalists emphasised policy analysis that was *objective* and follows a series of linear steps, aiming to build an objective society.

Three main shortcomings were noted in this approach. First, rationalists neglected the effects of politics and multiple interpretations of policy texts, contexts, and individual and institutional policy actors’ agency in policymaking and interpretation (Taylor, 1997). By neglecting the influence of politics in public policy analysis, rational educational theorists underestimated the impacts of power in the policy process and its consequences (Stone, 2012). Analysing power that operates through policy texts and discourses is important because, as critical and poststructuralists believe, discourses facilitate individuals or groups to use power in ways that benefit them (MacNaughton, 1998). That is, traditional/rationalist approaches considered policy actors as passive policy recipients and implementers, and that all policy texts have similar or static meanings to individuals and institutional contexts (Allan, 2008; Bacchi, 2004; Ball, 2007; Ball, Maguire, & Braun, 2012; Codd, 1988; Gale, 2001; Marshall, 1997; Muganda, 1999; Stone, 2012; Taylor, 2004). Second, the dynamic and complex historical, cultural, and political contexts of policy actors and institutions that may change with, or be changed by, local, national, and global influences were taken for

granted in rational policy analysis (Marshall & Gerstl-Pepin, 2005). Thus, policymaking was considered as a task of powerful ‘elites’ who decided the types, resources, and expected policy objectives and who mostly resided at the upper state strata and education systems and institutions. Third, the rational approach ignores human “emotional feelings and moral intuitions, both powerful parts of human motivation and precious parts of our life experience” (Stone, 2012, p. 11) that also influence the policy processes. These criticisms led to the emergence of interpretive approaches to policy analysis, which I consider below.

3.3.2 Interpretive or hermeneutic approaches to policy analysis

According to Ball et al. (2012), educational policy at the micro level involves ‘policy interpretation’ and ‘translation’ as opposed to the traditional ‘empiricist approach’ discussed above, emphasising ‘policy implementation’. Policy interpretation and translation, therefore, may be understood through an ‘interpretive approach’ (Ball et al., 2012). The interpretive approach is based on the philosophy of ‘hermeneutics’, the art of interpretation (Wagenaar, 2011; Willig, 2012; Yanow, 1996, 2000), which is core to critical theory, qualitative research methodology, and poststructuralist deconstructionist philosophy (Klenke, 2008; Wagenaar, 2011). Interpretation is concerned with multiple, competing, and sometimes contradictory “meanings of policies, on the values, feelings, and/or beliefs which they express, and on the processes by which those meanings are communicated to and ‘read’ by various audiences” (Yanow, 1996, pp. 8-9). Educational policy researchers adopting the interpretive approach are guided by the philosophical assumptions that such “human meanings, values, beliefs, and feelings are embodied in and transmitted through artifacts of human creation, such as language, dress, patterns of action and interaction, written texts, sculpture.” (p. 8).

Thus, while analysing marketisation policy, the interpretivist philosophy empowered me with awareness that it is possible for policy actors and subjects in schools to interpret policy texts and contexts differently and, therefore, act differently to achieve different intended and unintended policy objectives. Such textual and contextual meaning interpretations, Wagenaar (2011) argues, may be constructed through “hermeneutic, discursive, and dialogical” (p. 40) meanings. For Wagenaar, hermeneutic meaning refers to meanings we construct through interpretation, which may not be the ‘conventional meaning’ of a word or an utterance. ‘Discursive meaning’

refers to meaning contained in texts and discourses, which represent the historical and cultural practices of the institution and society. ‘Dialogical meaning’ is a ‘shared meaning’ constructed between social agents in interaction with themselves and the word.

However, despite their popularity, in practice, interpretive approaches were criticised for mismatch between their theory and methods because of the sophistication and complexity of the social structure as well as interpretation of texts and contexts, of which the analysts may be less informed (Wagenaar, 2011). The process of interpretation requires what Wagenaar calls “active engagement” (p. 62) to discover the varieties of hidden and complex meanings of the policy texts and contexts. Moreover, interpretation is a value-laden process because analysts bring to the process their ‘intersubjective’ knowledge, beliefs, perceptions, preconceptions, and desires that may influence the meanings constructed. Yanow (2000, p. 6), takes this point:

...it is not possible for an analyst to stand outside of the policy issue being studied, free of its values and meanings and of the analyst’s own values, beliefs, and feelings. The argument assumes that knowledge is acquired through interpretation, which necessarily is “subjective”: it reflects the education, experience, and training, as well as the individual, familial, and communal background, of the “subject” making the analysis. Not only analysts, but all actors in a policy situation ..., interpret issue data as they seek to make sense of the policy. Furthermore, human artifacts and actions, including policy documents, legislation, and implementation, are understood here to be not only instrumentally rational but also expressive-of meaning(s), including at times individual and collective identity.

Therefore, in adopting the interpretive approach, I critically considered policymakers’ and actors’ values, beliefs, ideologies, power, knowledge, and desires because such values influence interpretation and translation of the analytic process and the research findings. I considered these ‘subjective’ influences and those of the ‘local knowledge’ of the research sites to maximise the credibility of the research findings. The interpretive or hermeneutic approaches and methods were helpful in examining the multiple and sometimes contradictory and competing meanings constructed by teachers’ work cultures, marketisation policy texts, and MCR produced and distributed in a given historical period (O’Donoghue, 2007). However, Habermas (1971a, 1991b), as cited in Alphonse, 2000) criticised interpretive approaches for “being too dependent on the subjective understandings of the individuals involved” (p. 64) and the lack of strategies to deal “with ideological distortions in the process of interpreting social reality” (p. 64).

These criticisms led me to consider critical and poststructural approaches that take into account such criticisms.

3.3.3 Critical approaches to education policy analysis

As discussed in Chapter 2, critical approaches are based on Marxist and neo-Marxist critical theory which takes various forms, including critical policy analysis, critical pedagogy (Freire, 1972, 1973, 1976, 1993, 1996, 2005; Giroux, 1988, 2001; Kincheloe, 2004), critical race theory (Parker, 2003a, 2003b), and feminist critical theory (Allan, 2008; Allen, 1999; Bacchi, 1999, 2000, 2004; Harrington, 2008; Lazar, 2004). Others are critical ethnography (Anderson, 1989; Ball, 1994; Bowe, Ball, & Gold, 1992; Flores, 2002; Melgarejo, 2002; Scheurich, 1997; Tamboukou & Ball, 2003; Walford, 2003, 2001; Walton, 2010) and CDA (Fairclough, 1989, 1992, 1995, 2001).

Critical educational policy research aims at critically exposing and challenging “educational policy and politics in order to understand the nature of relationships in social systems, with the purpose of eliminating those that maintain privilege and oppression” (Marshall, & Gerstl-Pepin, 2005, p. 89). It is concerned with scrutinising the existing social structures of inequalities, domination, discrimination, exploitation, and subordination produced and reproduced in society through educational policy and practices. For example, Apple (1979b, 1982a, 1986, 1989, 1990, 1995, 1996a, 1999, 2000, 2003, 2004) and Bernstein (1971, 1975, 1990, 1996, 2000) have consistently argued in their work how structures of power and ideology influence and are influenced by the selection and organisation of curriculum content, pedagogy, and evaluation. However, Apple (1979a) also criticised theorists like Bernstein and Bourdieu for underestimating the state role as a capitalist agent for cultural and economic reproduction. For Apple, the fact that the state through its agencies and policymakers has power to manipulate and control school curricula content, pedagogy, and evaluation should be given due consideration when analysing education policies. Thus, based on Gramsci’s Marxist theory of hegemony, throughout his academic work, Apple (1979b, 1982a, 1982b, 1990, 1993, 1995, 1996a, 1996b, 2004) and Apple and Beane (1999, 2007) developed a theory that relates aspects of power, ideology, and culture with schooling. This theory considers the extent to which the state, the publishing industry, and education system, society, schools, and classrooms have a considerable influence on the selection and implementation of curriculum, pedagogy, and evaluation (Apple,

1979b, 1982a, 1982b, 1990, 1995, 1996a, 2003, 2004). It also considers how various forms of class, gender, race, and ethnic inequality and domination existing in the wider society are reproduced.

Other critical analysts (Chouliaraki & Fairclough, 1999; Fairclough, 1992) criticised Foucault for not taking into account the impact of linguistic texts in the production and reproduction of ideologies that reside in the social structures. For them, ideologies are produced and reproduced through social structures and discursive practices. By failing to address how ideologies reproduce social structures through social practices and texts, Foucault's approach was considered less suitable for policy text analysis. This argument led me to consider Fairclough's (1989, 1992, 2001) *Critical Discourse Analysis* (CDA), which considers texts for ideological analysis in understanding social structures and power relations historically and discursively reconstructed through policy texts and discourses (Bacchi, 2000, 2004; Bailey, 1995; Taylor, 2004). Below, I discuss CDA.

3.3.3.1 Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA)

CDA is a blend of both critical theory and poststructuralist epistemologies. Its researchers take an active role in understanding, exposing, and, thereby, resisting forms of power abuse and social inequality reshaped through policy texts and discourses. Analysing power is a major concern because "power comes from privileged access to social resources such as education, knowledge and wealth, which provides authority, status and influence to those who gain this access and enables them to dominate, coerce and control subordinate groups" (Machin & Mayr, 2012, p. 24).

The CDA model overcomes Foucault's alleged neglect of texts and is relevant for critical policy analysis for four main reasons (Taylor, 1997, 2004). First, it is *multidimensional* with three interrelated dimensions of texts, social practice, and discursive practices, each relevant to analyse power, hegemony, and ideologies produced and reproduced through marketisation policy texts and discourses. Second, it is *multifunctional* for having three functions, useful to analyse how marketisation policy texts and discourses construct and constitute teachers' and students' knowledge and beliefs, social relations, and social identities. Third, it is *historical* and focuses on intertextuality to examine how marketisation policy texts are constructed in different, but related, historical and social contexts. Fourth, CDA is *critical* for exposing the

hidden power and ideological relations reproduced through marketisation policy texts and marketised textbooks as cultural texts (Fairclough, 1992).

Furthermore, I found the CDA model (Fairclough, 1989, 1992, 1995, 2001; Chouliaraki and Fairclough, 1999) useful for this study because it examines the political struggles for marketisation policy interpretation focusing on variation, changes, and struggles across and within institutions. That is, schools and teachers' work practices varied with time and contexts because of their struggle to respond to the challenges of marketisation policy reform and other local, national, and global sociocultural and political forces reshaping their work. Fairclough (1992) argues that both critical linguistics and poststructuralists have not adequately examined what he calls the "duality of discourse" (p. 36), referring to "the way in which discourse contributes both to the reproduction and to the transformation of societies." (p. 36). Important to this reproduction and transformation are the ideologies and social practices. For Fairclough (1989, 1992, 1995, 2001, 2010), these can be critically analysed through his three-dimensional CDA model, consisting of three interrelated dimensions and procedural stages for analysis. The dimensions are "text, discursive practice, and social practice" (Fairclough, 1992, p. 62). Below, I discuss each dimension, respective stages, their purposes, and usefulness in analysing the effects of marketisation policy reforms on teachers' work.

3.3.3.1.1 Marketisation policy discourses as 'texts'

The first CDA dimension (Fairclough, 1992) considers, 'discourse as texts', and the corresponding 'description' stage is concerned with linguistic and semiotic texts produced, distributed, and consumed in the policy process and teachers' work interactive communication. These texts are analysed for their forms and meanings to discern embedded social power relations, hegemony, ideologies, beliefs, and perceptions that define the third dimension of "discourse as social practice" (p. 86). Fairclough argues that text analysis focuses on four main aspects: 'vocabulary', 'grammar', 'cohesion', and 'text structure'. Description focuses more on what Fairclough (2001) calls discourse participants' 'experiential', 'relational', and 'expressive' values representing "*contents* and knowledge and beliefs", 'social relationships', and "*subjects* and social identities" (p. 93), respectively.

3.3.3.1.2 Marketisation policy discourses as ‘discursive practices’

Fairclough’s (1992) second dimension is “discourse as discursive practice” (p. 73) and deals with the processes of text production, distribution, and consumption. This dimension with its procedural stage of ‘interpretation’ was relevant in my study because it informed how schools’ marketisation policy and curricular texts and discourses positions teachers and students. Fairclough (2001) suggests important questions for analysing subject positions through the institutional and “situational context and discourse type” (p. 123). These questions focus on participants’ involvement in the policy and the curriculum, and how the kind of social power relations, “social distance and so forth, are set up and enacted in the situation.” (p. 124). The questions determine key elements of discourse that “embod[y] certain constraints on contents, subjects and relations, or on the experiential, expressive and relational meanings which it makes possible” (p. 124). The first question, ‘What is going on?’ determines the ‘contents’; the second, ‘Who is involved?’ determines ‘subjects’; and the third, ‘In what relation?’ determines the nature of the relationships amongst social subjects. Moreover, *intertextuality* is central in the discursive practice dimension and was useful in analysing the discursive practices of school institutions, teachers, and students in the classroom and their relations with the wider social practices (Fairclough, 1992). This helped me to identify how power and ideologies reproduced through marketisation discourses structured those practices and their ultimate production and reproduction through teachers’ work practices.

3.3.3.1.3 Marketisation policy discourses as ‘social practice’

The third dimension, “discourse as social practice” (Fairclough, 1992, p. 66) assumes that in the social world, individuals, groups, and institutions are involved in political, social, cultural, and economic activities reshaped by power and hegemonic relations produced and reproduced through discourses. This dimension corresponds to the CDA procedural stage of ‘explanation’ which deals with the ways in which discourse produces and is reproduced by social structures of power relations and social struggles, which may either sustain or change these relations and struggles (Fairclough, 2001). Explanation considers discursive struggles in ‘situational’, ‘institutional’, and ‘societal’ levels of social organisation.

Focusing on the ‘situational level’ implies understanding how marketisation policy texts and discourses were shaped and reshaped by the situational contexts of policy in terms of both effects and determinants. A focus on the ‘institutional level’ delineates how marketisation policy texts and discourses determine and were determined by the institutional (schools and subject departments) social and political practices, and how these reproduce social structures. Moreover, a focus on the ‘societal level’ attends to wider social structures of power relations, ideologies, knowledge, beliefs, and identities in and through marketisation policy texts and discourses. According to Fairclough (2001), this can be understood by integrating the stages of interpretation and explanation.

Thus, while I analysed discursive practices for power relations and ideologies in the processes of text production, distribution, and consumption through text analysis and intertextuality, I analysed social practices for ideology and, more importantly, how they were employed by the dominant groups to produce and reproduce sociocultural, political, and economic hegemony. Based on Gramsci, Fairclough (1992) argued that hegemony “within particular organizations and institutions and at a societal level are produced, reproduced, contested and transformed in discourse.” (pp. 9-10).

Fairclough (1992) argues that discourse has three creative and constitutive effects that I applied to understand teachers’ work culture and history in the context of marketisation policy reforms: the construction of social identities and subject positions, social relationships, and systems of knowledge and beliefs. Fairclough states:

Discourse contributes to the constitution of all those dimensions of social structure which directly or indirectly shape and constrain it: its own norms and conventions, as well as the relations, identities and institutions which lie behind them. Discourse is a practice not just of representing the world, but of signifying the world, constituting and constructing the world in meaning. (p. 64).

Despite its wider use in social and education policy research, CDA was criticised for the probability of bias in text analyses that may lead to subjective findings (Blommaert, 2004; Paltridge, 2006, 2012; Paltridge & Burton, 2000). Blommaert (2004) constructs three major criticisms of CDA. First, it relies heavily on language and, where linguistic texts are lacking, the analysis would be constrained. Second, CDA is restricted because it was developed based on social and cultural changes taking place in particular social contexts, mainly the developed world. Third, CDA is limited “*to a particular time frame*” (p. 37). The first criticism is beyond my knowledge. For the second, as this

study demonstrates, over the past two decades, school curriculum texts in Tanzania contained marketisation policy texts and discourses, such as advertising. The above criticism cannot rule out the fact that capitalism has integrated all societies, schools, teachers, and students through globalisation. As it will be clear later, many marketised textbooks I analysed in this study were full of advertising texts, thus reshaping developing societies into a capitalist world as consumers of capitalist products.

The third criticism about CDA putting less attention on the analysis of “historical developments” (Blommaert, 2004, p. 37) in policy process and practices is simply a partial criticism. This is because the ‘intertextuality’ concept attends to both past and present texts and practices, which signify the historical elements of policy practices. The historicity of discourses is further emphasised by CDA principles, that discourses are ‘historical’ (Fairclough & Wodak, 1997) and, for this study, history can be read from the policy texts and MCR, which indicate the time for their production and distribution. Moreover, to account for this weakness, as discussed later, I draw on Foucault’s (1980) genealogical and archaeological methods.

However, these criticisms do not make CDA irrelevant as CDA is still useful for social research. As Fairclough (2003) himself acknowledges, CDA is not without its limitations because such textual analysis is limited and needs to be “used in conjunction with other methods of analysis” (p. 15). For Fairclough, analysts need to interpret texts “and more generally at how texts practically figure in particular areas of social life” (p. 15). This involves linking the micro and macro levels, and analysing social practices that are consistent with Bernstein’s (1990, 1996, 2000) theory of pedagogic discourse (Chouliaraki & Fairclough, 1999).

Therefore, where CDA falls short in this study, such as failure to differentiate curriculum content and classroom pedagogic discourses, Bernstein’s (1990, 1996, 2000) theory helped because it recognises the difference between the message and its carrier. It also distinguishes “between that which is relayed, the verbal message, and the relay, the structures through which the verbal message is realised” (Clark, 2005, p. 34). Below, I discuss Bernstein’s theory and how I combined it with Fairclough’s CDA model.

3.3.3.2 Bernstein’s theory of pedagogic discourse

As Singh, Thomas, and Harris (2013) argue, Bernstein’s theory of pedagogic discourse through the concepts of *recontextualisation* and *code* inform policy interpretation and

translation because they explicate the effects of power and control exercised in the various stages and *fields* of the policy process. Bernstein proposed that the fields of production, recontextualisation, and reproduction are where educational knowledge is reshaped. These fields consist of an interrelated and hierarchical set of rules (codes) of distribution, recontextualisation, and evaluation. He argues that these rules carry power and ideologies that reconstruct instructional and regulative discourses of pedagogic practice.

The *production field* is where new knowledge is produced and, for this study, includes where MCR and policy texts are produced and distributed for schools, colleges, and training institutions. For example, this could include the private international, local, and state book publishers, the Ministry of Education, and the universities. In this study, the rules of distribution are concerned with production, distribution, and access to sources of educational knowledge to different categories of schools, subjects, teachers, and students. Thus distribution rules may mean the distribution and access to MCR and other educational resources at societal, institutional, or classroom levels.

The *recontextualising field* defines the interrelationship between the education system's micro and macro levels. For Singh, Thomas, and Harris (2013), recontextualisation is "the relational processes of selecting and moving knowledge from one context to another, as well as to the distinctive re-organisation of knowledge as an instructional and regulative or moral discourse" (p. 465). Similarly, recontextualisation rules are concerned with how MCR producers transform them for use by teachers and students. They, in turn, transform, translate/decode, and situate those concepts and theories from MCR as, for example, to fit their work context through discourses. If teachers use the same text, then they are recontextualising intratextually, and if this involves different categories of MCR, that is *intertextual recontextualisation* (Linell, 1998). Thus, for Bernstein, distribution rules influence recontextualisation processes.

The *reproduction field* involves the transformation of knowledge, beliefs, ideologies, and attitudes obtained from the production and recontextualisation fields. This usually occurs in schools and classrooms by teachers and students. However, knowledge reproduction process in this field is also influenced by the family, peers, and community discourses (Singh, 2002). This field has evaluation rules, which relate to the assessment processes for students' knowledge construction in the pedagogic practice.

The interaction of these three rules determines the kinds of knowledge, identities, and cultures constructed among students.

As Kirk, Macdonald, and Tinning (1997) argue, Bernstein (1990, 1990, 2000) supplements poststructuralist theories (for example, Bourdieu, Giddens, Habermas, and Foucault) discussed in this chapter because their theories of cultural and social reproduction in education failed “to show how educational experiences give form and substance to the social construction of class, race and gender and, crucially, to forms of social disadvantage and injustice arising from class, race and gender oppression” (p. 274). They failed because they explain knowledge and identity production without focusing on both ‘the message’ (curriculum content) and ‘the carrier’ (pedagogy) as equally important in cultural reproduction through education policy. Bernstein captures this weakness through ‘code theory’ which explains how the various agencies and agents operating in the three fields may reshape the what, how, when, and for whom of educational knowledge construction and reconstruction processes through marketisation policy texts and discourses (Singh, Thomas, & Harris, 2013). That is, what happens in the three fields in which marketisation policy texts and discourses are constructed and reconstructed may reshape secondary teachers’ pedagogical codes in various ways:

The codes are defined in terms of the probability of predicting which structural elements will be selected for the organization of meaning. The structural elements are highly predictable in the case of a restricted code and much less so in the case of an elaborated code. It is considered that an elaborated code facilitates the verbal elaboration of subjective intent whilst a restricted code limits the verbal explication of such intent. The codes themselves are thought to be functions of different forms of social relations or more generally qualities of different social structures. A restricted code is generated by a form of social relationship based upon a range of closely shared identifications self-consciously held by the members. An elaborated code is generated by a form of social relationship which does not necessarily presuppose such shared, self-consciously held identifications with the consequence that much less is taken for granted. The codes regulate the area of discretion available to a speaker and so differently constrain the verbal signalling of individual difference. (Bernstein, 1971, p. 84).

This means that codes define how the various individuals and groups in the policy interpretation and classroom practices formally relate, both vertically and horizontally, and the kinds of language they use which implies power and control relationships between them. Understanding codes is important in marketisation policy analysis because they are reshaped in the three fields of educational knowledge and have

implications for the nature of teachers' work in schools (Singh, Thomas, & Harris, 2013).

Similarly, as Atkinson (1985) argues, pedagogic codes function as a means for the transmission of cultures and identities. That is, pedagogic codes are tools for the reproduction of power, knowledge, ideologies, beliefs, attitudes, and dispositions. By doing so, codes facilitate and constrain policy actors' behaviours in schools and classrooms. "If anything, the social structure and the social division of labour are determining. Codes are mechanisms of reproduction, and to that extent regulate and constitute what is reproduced: at least, they set limits and create possibilities." (Atkinson, 1985, p. 69). This was supported by studies (Buzzelli & Johnston, 2001; Christie, 1995; Fitz, Davies, & Evans, 2006; Kress, Jewitt, & Tsatsarelis, 2000; Morine-Dershimer, 2011; Woodside-Jiron, 2011) that utilised Bernstein's (1990, 1996, 2000) theory of pedagogic discourse in the schooling context.

According to Bernstein (1996), pedagogic discourse involves two discourses, *instructional discourse* and *regulative discourse*. These represent the nature and types of teachers' work, knowledge, and skills and their relation to each other, as well as the wider social order of which it is a part. *Instructional discourse* creates teachers' specialised professional work knowledge, skills, and pedagogic identity. It relates to curriculum content taught and learned which is contained in MCR.

Regulative discourse translates to "the goals, purposes, and directions of teaching-learning activity" (Christie, 1995, p. 221). It explains the social conduct of such work. This includes how teachers' work was dominated and controlled through marketisation policy discourses, and how they practised the same. Bernstein (1996) further argued that regulative discourse is the principal discourse that always embeds the instructional discourse. That is, the social and political context in which teachers' work embeds the instructional skills and practices employed to perform their work. At the macro level, regulative discourse translates to discourses constructed at higher levels to reshape schools and teachers' work practices. These include all policy texts, MCR, and curriculum guides. These are further translated at micro level practices as rules, teacher authority, relationships, and guidelines.

For analysing marketisation policy and politics' effects on teachers' work, Bernstein's (1990, 1996, 2000) theory is relevant because it considers "the production, distribution, and reproduction of official knowledge and how this knowledge is related to structurally determined power relations" (Sadovnik, 2008, p. 22). It shows how these

processes affect various social groups at the microsociological level. Bernstein considers the effects of political struggles for control of pedagogic discourses at both macro and microstructures on the production and reproduction of official knowledge in schools and classrooms. As discussed in Chapters 1 and 6, the struggling powers include state agents and policymakers, MCR publishers and distributors, parents, schools, teachers, and students.

As Chouliaraki and Fairclough (1999) argue, Bernstein's (1990, 1996, 2000) theory powerfully attends to aspects of social change reshaped by policy discourses because it deals with "the dialectic between voice and message—the potentially transformative tension between social positioning and particular interactional practice" (p. 150). The theory accounts for the extent to which teachers' and students' social positioning in the policy process and classroom curriculum reshape their power/professional knowledge. While the 'voice' relates to pedagogical codes, the 'message' relates to curriculum content, both of which are relayed with two sociological structures of power and control, and their shaping of 'consciousness' in terms of knowledge, ideologies, and beliefs (Christie, 1999). Thus, for example, it considers how teachers' and students' social classes shape and reshape pedagogical codes and, hence, influence interaction, production, and reproduction of cultures and knowledge transmission processes and outcomes. Bernstein's theory "describes and prescribes what knowledge and competences are to be brought together under the auspices of educational expertise" (Atkinson, 1995, p. 93). That is, it links what and how teachers and students construct official knowledge to achieve curricular goals and objectives.

Bernstein (1975, 1990, 1996, 2000) further argued that a set of internal rules of pedagogic practice underpins both the instructional and the regulative discourses. The instructional discourse is underpinned by discursive rules or the *rules of selection, sequencing, pacing, and evaluation*. The rules regulate the progression and transmission in time and establish sequences in the classroom discourse and knowledge construction contexts. The regulative discourse, on the other hand, is reinforced by the *rules of hierarchy*, which are either formal or informal or both, and constitute the social relationship between teachers as leaders of curriculum knowledge construction and students as active participants in this process. Thus, the hierarchical rules determine transmission hierarchy. Bernstein identified the third set of rules supporting the two discourses as *rules of criteria*, which define what is regarded as legitimate or illegitimate learning in the pedagogic relation.

Bernstein (2000) argued that the inner logic of any pedagogic practice consists of the relationship, essentially between the hierarchical, sequencing, and criteria rules, and that all modalities of pedagogic practice are generated from the same set of rules and vary according to their classification and framing values. Classification represents power relations and is concerned with the strength of the boundaries or the degree of insulation between the categories, agents, actors, or discourses. Therefore, classification, defined by the degree of insulation, is a principle of the social division of labour that creates specialised agents, categories, and discourses. The degree of insulation between categories regulates the classification values, and classification can be either strong or weak. While classification translates power relations, framing is underpinned by the principle of control, which regulates relations within a given context.

The classificatory principle, weak or strong, indicates how a policy context differs from another, thus differentiating work contexts and enabling policy actors to adjust legitimate plans and decisions in each context (Bernstein, 1990, 1996, 2000). For Bernstein, recognition rules are the means by which school administrators, teachers, and students recognise work context specialty. Recognition rules also enable teachers and students to learn the transmission context of pedagogic practice and decide the contextual requirements. If there is no such rule, the context cannot be understood and pedagogic practice remains unknown. constrains the comprehension of the context and remains unconscious of the pedagogic practice.

Thus, the concept of strong classification is useful in understanding how teachers and students were given opportunities to plan, decide, and implement their work depending on school and policy contexts. Strong classification constrains them to determine relevant curriculum, pedagogy, and evaluation frameworks, depending on each context, and they are thus unable to recognise the context or read the text. The concept of weak classification, on the other hand, gives rise to ambiguities in contextual recognition, where teachers and students make curriculum, pedagogic, and evaluation plans and decisions for each context instead of the curriculum policymakers explaining them. On the other hand, Bernstein's (1990) realisation rules determine how teachers and students put meanings together and how they make them public. Different framing values act selectively on realisation rules and, thus, on the production of different texts. However, recognition and realisation rules form a firm foundation for successful recontextualisation and demonstration of knowledge in a given context.

Interpreted for classroom curriculum discourse and knowledge construction, framing informed this study to analyse how teachers' and students' power and control reshaped "the selection, sequencing and pacing of the instructional discourse" (Bernstein, 2000, p. 13). In the context of strong framing, teachers as knowledge transmitters control the pedagogic discourse, and in a weak framing, the control lies with the students. In general, where framing is strong, there is 'visible' pedagogic practice, the rules of instructional and regulative discourse are explicit, and teachers have clear control over the selection, pacing, and criteria. Weak framing shapes 'invisible' pedagogic practice where students have some control over their learning process. This implies that "the rules of regulative and instructional discourse are implicit and largely unknown to" students (Bernstein, 1996, p. 27).

Following Bernstein, I employed these sets of rules, the principles of classification, and framing to understand how subject teachers interpreted and practised different pedagogies in the classroom in relation to marketisation policy texts and discourses. Further, I used recognition and realisation rules to determine the extent to which teachers' identity were recognised in marketisation policy interpretation, and how this enabled or constrained them to construct appropriate pedagogic knowledge and skills required to conduct their work in the classroom and reconstruct students' identities. I used pedagogic discourse to examine how marketisation policy discourses constructed teachers' and students' power relations, knowledge, class inequalities, and identities in the curriculum discourse in the classroom (Bernstein, 1990). Teachers' and students' identity formation is assumed to take place in the discursive interaction, the curriculum content, and MCR within the structural challenges of local, institutional, and societal contexts (Christie, 2002). These interactions are made possible for the purpose of knowledge and skills transmission in the different curriculum subjects. As Fontinhas, Morais, and Neves, (1995) argue, "any given modality of pedagogic code translates a realization of power and control relations in specific contexts of transmission-acquisition, namely the instructional and regulative contexts." (p. 447). In the next section, I discuss the contribution of critical ethnography to the critical analysis of marketisation policy.

3.3.3.3 Critical ethnography

Literature indicates that a critical understanding of school policy interpretation and enactment that involve struggles are best examined using critical ethnography

(Anderson, 1989; Ball, 1994; Carspecken, 1996; Flores, 2002; Hamilton & Corbett-Whittier, 2013; Melgarejo, 2002; Tamboukou & Ball, 2003; Walford, 1994, 2001; Walton, 2010). This is because critical ethnography explores “the dialectical relationship between the social structural constraints on human actors and the relative autonomy of human agency” (Anderson, 1989, p. 249) in the local school settings. In addition, ethnography relies more on the voices of those who experienced the policy reforms in the first place (Ball, 1994; Gordon, Lahelma, & Beach, 2003). As Ball (1994) states, there is “a possible role for ethnography (as sets of cultural texts) in relation to theorization, similar to the role played by historical texts in Foucault’s genealogical method. In other words, there is a methodological affinity between ethnography and genealogy.” (p. 3).

Thus, I employed critical ethnography together with other critical and poststructural approaches to critically analyse how marketisation policy texts and discourses reshaped secondary teachers’ pedagogic codes and practices over the past two decades. Ethnography also helped to expose power and ideological structures that constrained or facilitated teachers’ work through dominative and repressive policy discourses. In this way, critical ethnography focused on schools’ and classroom cultures constructed in interaction between various individuals and groups. The focus on teachers’ cultural practices was important because they are the main curriculum leaders and knowledge construction agents. Critical ethnography provided room for deeper understanding of the sociocultural and political changes, dilemmas, frustrations, contradictions, competitions, and stagnations brought about by marketisation policy reforms (Gordon, Lahelma, & Beach, 2003). Thus, like other education policy ethnographers, my task was “to generate critical perspectives upon the impact and effects of policy in local settings” (Ball, 1994, p. 2). In combination with text and discourse analysis, critical ethnography highlighted “the details of local life while connecting them to wider social processes” (Barker, 2012, p. 32) of power and ideological reproduction, resistances, negotiations, and legitimation constructed through marketisation policy reforms. Therefore, the combination of critical ethnography and CDA informed my investigation of schools and teachers’ work politics and practices. In the next section, I consider poststructuralist theories that may be relevant for analysing the politics of marketisation policy.

3.3.4 Poststructuralist theoretical approaches to education policy analysis

The literature review indicates that two versions of poststructuralism have dominated sociology of education and policy analysis research over the past four decades (Allan, 2008; Ball, 2007; Ball, Maguire, & Braun, 2012; Lingard, 2014; Lingard, Rawolle, & Taylor, 2005; Lingard, Taylor, & Rawolle, 2005; Marshall, 1997; Rizvi & Lingard, 2009; Rawolle & Lingard, 2008; Taylor, 2004; Thomson, 2005; van Zanten, 2005). They are *poststructuralist theories of practice* and *discourse theory*. For the purpose of this study, understanding poststructuralism is important because it focuses on *language*, and marketisation policy texts use written and spoken language. Moreover, language performs social and political functions in all social and political institutions (Fairclough, 1989, 2001), including secondary schools. Below, I discuss these poststructuralist theories and develop an argument that, despite the popularity of practice theory, discourse theory suits this study more.

3.3.4.1 Poststructuralist theories of practice

Poststructuralist *theories of practice* consist of *Theory of Practice* (Bourdieu, 1977, 1990), *Theory of Pedagogic Practice* (Bernstein, 1971, 1975b, 1990, 1996, 1999, 2000), and *Theory of Structuration* (Giddens, 1979, 1984). One common feature of theories of practice is that they explain teachers' work practices and subjectivity by locating them within the wider social structures that also constitute and reconstruct individual and group agency (Bourdieu, 1977, 1990; Giddens, 1979, 1984). These authors argue that our social practices and subjectivities must be viewed within the web of interactive historical, sociocultural, and political contexts. That is, teachers' work practices and subjectivity should be seen as producing and also be produced by the interactive relationships between teachers and the wider historical, structural, sociocultural, and political relations and 'material conditions' that produce and reproduce those relations. In what follows, I discuss the strengths and weaknesses of practice theory to explain teachers' work subjectivities and practices.

Bourdieu's (1977, 1984, 1986, 1990, 1993) practice theory explains teachers' work practices as an outcome of the intersection of their *habitus*, *capital*, and the related *field*. Thus, "(habitus) (capital) + field = practice" (Bourdieu, 1984, p. 101). Bourdieu (1990) defines *habitus* as "systems of durable, transposable dispositions, structured structures predisposed to function as structuring structures" (p. 53). These structures

work “as principles which generate and organize practices and representations that can be objectively adapted to their outcomes without presupposing a conscious aiming at ends” (p. 53). Teacher habitus are subjectivities that intersect with *capital* and *field* to construct their knowledge, pedagogic practices, and identity through history and culture. For Bourdieu (1986), capital is ‘accumulated labour’ that enables social agents to develop social power “in the form of reified or living labour.” (p. 241). Bourdieu (1986, 1993) outlines five types of capital: *economic*, *cultural*, *social*, *symbolic*, and *academic* that construct ‘symbolic power’ with unequal distribution between different classes.

The concepts of habitus, capital, and fields may explain the construction and reconstruction of teachers’ and students’ identities before and in context of marketisation policy reforms. For example, teachers’ and students’ previous training, recognition, relationships, and experiences are forms of capital that may explain the nature of their subjectivities. Teachers’ work practices and identities as symbolic power are reshaped by their recognition and cultural formation, and are determined more or less by their habitus and cultural and symbolic capital, although other capital forms are important as well. Thus, for Bourdieu, cultural and symbolic capitals are important in the construction of teachers’ work practices and identity. Moreover, as discussed in Chapter 2, MCR are forms of cultural capital, which contain the cultures, knowledge, ideologies, and beliefs of the dominant groups that produced and distributed them. This implies that MCR as cultural capital may considerably reshape teachers’ work practices and identity.

For this study, Bourdieu’s theory of culture and power, especially symbolic power, is important because MCR are the cultural resources. For Bourdieu, cultural resources are discursive and reproduce the ‘symbolic power’ and knowledge of those who produce and distribute them. Textbooks and all forms of schoolbooks and media texts are examples of such resources. For Bourdieu, by reproducing these forms of power, cultural resources reproduce existing social structures through teachers’ work.

Bourdieu’s *habitus theory* is related in many aspects to Bernstein’s (1971, 1975, 1990, 1996, 1999, 2000) *code theory* discussed above (Harker & May, 1993). Critics argue that Bourdieu failed to develop a theory relevant for the sociological analysis of language (Chouliaraki & Fairclough, 1999). Bernstein (1990) also criticised Bourdieu’s habitus as more general, although comprehensive, than his concept of *pedagogic code* in explaining the production and reproduction of class structures, cultures, knowledge, ideologies, practices, and identities. For Bernstein, it is not “clear what are the rules of

these class-specialized grammars and fields of practice, nor is it clear how the specialized grammars are constructed and relayed in the process of their transmission and acquisition.” (p. 3).

There has been a strong debate on the usefulness of Bourdieu and Bernstein in analysing education policy. For example, some scholars (Atkinson, 1985, 1995; Evans, 1990; Harker & May, 1993; Sadovnik, 1991) label them as structuralists and criticised them for downplaying the role of human agency in the production and reproduction of social structures and practices. Harker and May (1993) conceived Bernstein’s codes as more rigid rules as opposed to Bourdieu’s habitus. On the other hand, for Chouliaraki and Fairclough (1999), Bernstein considered the essential role of texts in sociological analysis, an aspect neglected by Bourdieu. That is to say, Bernstein’s theory is:

...oriented to text and interaction, and are in that sense closer to the categories and logic of discourse analysis. Bernstein’s account of the recontextualising rules of the pedagogic device points to the complex articulation of various discourses within pedagogic discourse in configurations which are determined by the recontextualising principle. (p. 118).

Despite this strength, Chouliaraki and Fairclough (1999) state that Bernstein left a gap in connecting the linguistic and the sociological and in available languages of description for sociologically relevant analysis of language, and that CDA could contribute to filling that gap.

Furthermore, Bourdieu’s critics argued that he considered habitus as ‘unconscious’ and constrained people to act in specific ways to change their lives and practices and challenge structural constraints (Bourdieu & Passeron, 1990; Browitt & Nelson, 2004; Chouliaraki & Fairclough, 1999; Reed-Danahay, 2005). For example, this is clear when Bourdieu and Passeron (1990) consider *habitus* as “the generative, unifying principle of conducts and opinions which is also their explanatory principle, since at every moment of an educational or intellectual biography it tends to reproduce the system of objective conditions of which it is the product.” (p. 161). Thus, it is argued that Bourdieu underestimates human agency’s role in the reproduction of habitus and practices, implying that he considered power as domination and less resourceful for ‘agency’ for the dominated.

Further criticisms from Apple (1979a) are that both Bernstein and Bourdieu put less emphasis on the role of the state as an agent of cultural and economic reproduction through the school curriculum, pedagogy, and evaluation. In his words, there is a

tendency “to underestimate the significant role played by the state in the reproduction for which they want to account, something of which Gramsci, at least, was much more cognizant” (p. 335). For Apple, the fact that the state through its agencies and policymakers has power to manipulate and control school curricula content, pedagogy, and evaluation should be given due consideration when analysing an education policy. Thus, based on Gramsci’s Marxist theory of hegemony, Apple (1990, 1993, 1995, 2004) and Apple and Beane (1999, 2007) developed a theory that relates aspects of power, ideology, and culture with schooling. This theory gives prominence to the state, industry, the education system, society, schools, and classrooms. All have considerable influence on the selection and implementation of curriculum, pedagogy, and evaluation and, therefore, reproduce various forms of class, gender, race, and ethnic inequality and domination existing in the wider society (Apple, 1985, 1986, 1989, 1994, 1996a). For Apple and Apple and Christian-Smith (1991), school textbooks provide the most effective ways through which the powerful groups in society, such as the state and capitalists, control the curriculum, pedagogy, and evaluation and, therefore, reproduce political, sociocultural, and economic domination. Despite such criticisms, Bourdieu’s and Bernstein’s work explain how policy discourses reshape schooling and teachers’ work in producing and reproducing the cultural domination and symbolic control of schools, teachers, and students. That is, theories of *code*, *habitus*, and *capital* attempt to explain the reproduction of social class, cultures, power, and knowledge through the curriculum policy and practices.

It has been argued that Bourdieu, Bernstein, and other sociological studies like Ozga and Lawn (1988) that focused on teachers’ work and schooling considered “structures as external constraints” (Shilling, 1992, p. 83). Thus, they neglected the fact that structures are also enabling and may be located within the individuals (such as knowledge, beliefs, and perceptions) and institutions. It is from these criticisms that I consider Giddens’ (1979, 1981, 1984) *Theory of Structuration*, which has also influenced education and social policy research over the past three decades (Archer, 1990; Clark, 1990; Scott & Morrison, 2005; Shilling, 1992).

For Shilling (1992), structuration theory explains the notion of ‘dualism’, which was neglected by educational sociologists for a long time. Based on this theory, teachers’ work subjectivities and work practices may be understood by locating them within the social, political, economic, and cultural structures and agency of which they are a part. The influence of these structures and agency on the teachers’ work practices

in the context of marketisation policy reforms is important (Scott & Morrison, 2005). Based on structuration theory, teachers' work practices result from their struggle to perform their work in the intersection with those structures. For Giddens (1979), structures do not totally constrain agents' practices. Instead, neither the structures nor the agents can be explained independent of the other, forming what he calls "the *duality of structure*" (p. 5), referring to:

...the essential recursiveness of social life, as constituted in social practices: structure is both medium and outcome of the reproduction of practices. Structure enters simultaneously into the constitution of the agent and social practices, and 'exists' in the generating moments of this constitution. (p. 5).

Based on Giddens, Scott and Morrison (2005, pp. 229-230) delineate four aspects of structures: "constraints on human action", "rules and resources in society that both constrain and enable social actors in what they do", "persistent relations between human beings", and "the character of the physical world and the corporality of the body". These structures may influence, and are influenced by, what teachers think and practice in the context of their work.

Based on these meanings, teachers' work practices can be understood by locating them within wider micro and macro historical, social, and political structures in which they operate. Such structures and teachers as agents influence each other, and one cannot be explained independent of the other. Thus, for Giddens, teachers' knowledge, identities, and agency are reshaped in and through social practices, which are also the outcomes of structures' interaction with agents. Giddens (1984) explains the intersection of the three elements of agency: "reflexivity ... practical consciousness ... [and] discursive consciousness" (p. 7) that produces routine practices:

The concept of routinization, as grounded in practical consciousness, is vital to the theory of structuration. Routine is integral both to the continuity of the personality of the agent, as he or she moves along the paths of daily activities, and to the institutions of society, which *are* such only through their continued reproduction. (p. 60).

Moreover, Giddens' concept of 'reflexivity' is relevant for understanding teachers' work and marketisation policy process. For Giddens, reflexivity forms the social agent's response to contemporary social structural constraints (Moore, 2000, 2012; Ransome, 2010). That is, as they live, teachers reflect on their work practices and identify

discursive rules and resources that shape their work in particular ways. Therefore, they are able to interact with others and transform their work in active ways. However, for Bourdieu, reflexivity is a research methodological tool derived from critical theory that helps us to reflect on the knowledge construction process to produce reliable knowledge (Deer, 2008).

In considering teachers' work identity and practice in terms of Giddens' (1984) concepts of practical and discursive consciousness, I argue that social positioning informs teachers with knowledge in both practical and discursive ways. The concept of social position coincides with subject positioning, that I discuss later. That is, knowledge, beliefs, and attitude construction is, among other factors, determined by 'social positions' that teachers and students occupy in the policy processes and classroom discourses. Interpreted in practice, social position includes things like subjective experiences with resources, training, and participation that enables access to knowledge and power.

Like Bourdieu, Giddens' (1984) structuration theory was criticised for lacking in clarity on the major concepts he used, including 'rules' and 'resources', that have many interpretations (Archer, 1990; Ransome, 2010; Shilling, 1992; Thompson, 1989). Further, his focus on rules and resources does not include institutional roles that produce and reproduce them, and some rules and resources are more constructive than others. Shilling (1992) provides more criticisms that the theory does not define the possible course of change or transformation brought about in and by social practices, which are the interactional outcomes of structures and agents. In addition, the theory is silent on the "the ontological depth of different social [and material] structures" (Shilling, 1992, p. 84). Giddens' structuration theory also equates the social agents' settings "with consciousness; thus failing to articulate either a fully embodied notion of human agents" (p. 84). Finally, Giddens underestimates the extent to which structures can constrain human agents and emphasises that structures are more 'internal' to social agents than 'external'. This argument underestimates the power of external agents that may be more constraining than those within the individual agent (Thompson, 1989). In Giddens' (1984) words:

Structure is not 'external' to individuals: as memory traces, and as instantiated in social practices, it is in a certain sense more 'internal' than exterior to their activities in a Durkheimian sense. Structure is not to be equated with constraint but is always both constraining and enabling. (p. 25).

These criticisms directed my consideration of *poststructuralist discourse theory* because it explains the extent to which structural constraints, what poststructuralists call ‘discourses’, can either constrain or facilitate or both, social agents’ practices and, thus, produce and reproduce subjectivities, structures, and practices. Thus, in general conception, ‘discourses’ stands for Giddens’ ‘structures’, ‘rules’, and ‘resources’, and ‘codes’ for Bernstein’s code theory.

3.3.4.2 Poststructuralist discourse theory

Unlike the practice theory discussed above, *poststructuralist discourse theory* (Ball, 2012, 1994; Foucault, 1972) provides both a theory and a method for systematic and critical policy analysis (Jørgensen & Phillips, 2002). Central to *discourse analysis* is the focus on spoken and written texts through which marketisation policy practices, actions, beliefs, and knowledge were communicated, represented, and reconstructed (Coyle, 2007). Unlike *theory of practice*, discourse theory explains teachers’ history and cultural practices as constructed and reconstructed through *discursive practice* (Foucault, 1972). For Foucault (1972), *discursive practice* is “a body of anonymous, historical rules, always determined in the time and space that have defined a given period, and for a given social, economic, geographical, or linguistic area, the conditions of operation of the enunciative function.” (p. 117). Unlike Bourdieu’s and Giddens’ theoretical concepts discussed above, the *discursive practice* concept helps to deconstruct how powerful groups involved in marketisation policy reforms reshape teachers’ and students’ subjectivities. I understand discursive practice as practice resulting from marketisation policy implementation and teachers’ work cultural practices in the three schools.

Poststructuralists like Foucault and Derrida assume that policy texts and discourses have multiple and culture-specific meanings that can be analysed through deconstruction, genealogical, and archaeological methods (Williams, 2005). *Deconstruction* is a “method of penetrating and analysing policy texts to explore their different shades of meaning to determine why they are officially privileged” (Gutek, 2009, p. 158). Deconstruction (Gutek, 2009) focuses on the analysis of written and spoken texts produced, distributed, and consumed through social and political practices. It is consistent with the interpretive and critical approaches discussed above.

Similarly, Foucault's (1972, 1977, 1978, 1980, 1982) discourse theory, which consists of *theories of the subject* and *power/knowledge*, has been central in critical education policy analysis (Ball, 1993b, 1994; Peters & Besley, 2007; Peters & Burbules, 2004; Scheurich, 1997). Based on discourse theory, policy analysis rests on three pillars (Arribas-Ayllon & Walkerdine, 2008). First, there is a focus on policy history and practices, or what Foucault calls 'genealogy'. Genealogy is "concerned with describing the procedures, practices, apparatuses and institutions involved in the production of discourses and knowledges, and their power effects" (Carabine, 2001, p. 276). Carabine suggests that genealogy helps us to understand the effects of marketisation policy discourses on teachers' work by "tracking their history and the regimes of power/knowledge involved in that history" (p. 276). Fairclough and Wodak (1997) support this by arguing that policy discourses are historical because they "are connected to other discourses which were produced earlier, as well as those that are produced synchronically or subsequently" (p. 276), what they technically call 'intertextuality'. The second pillar is that Foucault's discourse theory attends to the system of power relations and how power functions in social and political institutions to construct and reconstruct social subjects, objects, and subjectivity. Thus, the third pillar is "subjectification" (Arribas-Ayllon & Walkerdine, 2008, p. 91), concerned with the various strategies in which school administrators, teachers, and students are historically and discursively constructed in and through discourses. However, these three pillars are not independent because they form a single coherent discourse analysis, as I discuss in detail in the following sections. Two concepts are important in discourse theory: subject positioning and subjectivity.

3.3.4.2.1 Subject positions and subjectivity

I adopt Weedon's (1997, p. 32) definition of 'subjectivity' as "the conscious and unconscious thoughts and emotions of the [social subjects and the] ways of understanding [their] relation to the world". Subjectivity is about 'conscious or unconscious' human mental processes that define the world, and is a historically and discursively produced phenomenon, not predetermined. Thus, the marketisation policy process produced MCR and other discourses that have implications for teacher subjectivity—thinking, action, and practices—in particular ways.

In understanding the effects of marketisation policy texts and discourses in the construction of subject positioning and subjectivities, I found Walshaw's (2007) arguments relevant:

Policy texts are sites where subject positions are created and where meaningful experience is constituted. For all their formality, it happens that policy documents are one of the easiest ways to track how subjectivity is produced. The reason is simply this: policy is one of the central means by which behaviours are regulated and made productive within the population. (p. 45).

Walshaw continues to argue that an education policy constructs and reconstructs school policy actors, teachers, and students as subjects "through words, conventional illustrations, linguistic and discursive signs" (p. 47). Thus, poststructuralist discourse theory explains how the 'subject' and subjectivities are constructed through powerful discourses (Foucault, 1982; Mansfield, 2000). For these scholars, people are situated and constituted in both the complex relations of production and power. However, Foucault concentrated on the relations of power, which can be understood through subjects' construction (Koch, 2007). Similarly, Fairclough (2001) argues that the occupation of various subject positions in a considerable period constructs subjectivities for social subjects, including school policy actors, teachers, and students, in the context of marketisation policy reform. Poststructuralists (Lacan, Nietzsche, and Foucault) criticised the freedom and autonomy of social subjects (Mansfield, 2000), and argue that subjectivities are socially constructed through power that operates through policy discourses.

Based on this framework, I understand subject positions constructed for teachers by marketisation policy discourses as their place and role in particular social and discursive activities. These then determine how they act, think, and practice based on power relations reshaped through policy discourses (Kress, 1985). Thus, in order to understand how teachers were positioned or repositioned themselves in and through marketisation policy discourses, poststructuralists suggest the analysis of power/knowledge manifested in and through discourses, as discussed below.

3.3.4.2.2 Marketisation policy discourses and power/knowledge

Teaching as professional work aims to construct and reconstruct learners' official knowledge and reproduce selected societal cultures and identities. Teaching requires teachers to be equipped with subject matter and pedagogic knowledge that is

historically and discursively constructed in and through their experiences and socialisation in teacher education. Teaching and teacher education processes reconstruct knowledge from textbooks, internet sources, on-the-job training programmes, and social interaction. However, as I discussed in Chapter 1, in the contexts of marketisation policy reforms in Tanzania, there were political struggles that empowered private publishers, distributors, capitalist financial institutions, school heads, and government policymakers to influence the policy process and teachers' work. These influences came through MCR production and distribution at the global, national, societal, and local school and classroom levels. It is therefore important to critically examine how these struggles positioned school policy actors, teachers, and students and, therefore, reshaped their knowledge. These struggles can be understood through the poststructuralist concept of power/knowledge discussed below.

Following Nietzsche, Foucault (1977, 1978, 1980) argues that there is an intricate relationship between power, knowledge, and discourse (Feder, 2011; Mills, 2003, 2004; Sarup, 1993). For Foucault, discourse is related to power and knowledge through the 'repressive hypothesis'. That is, the powerful always control discourse to influence how an issue can be discussed and by whom. Consequently, the powerful are able to control what knowledge people have about such issues. By controlling knowledge, they are further able to determine how people think and who they are, their social identity. This control further maintains their position in power/knowledge.

Unlike Bourdieu, Foucault's (1977) understanding of the power/knowledge relationship is double-edged because he considered power as both destructive and productive. Thus, Foucault criticises earlier theorists who considered power as only negative. He argued that "power is exercised rather than possessed; it is not the 'privilege', acquired or preserved, of the dominant class, but the overall effect of its strategic positions—an effect that is manifested and sometimes extended by the position of those who are dominated." (p. 26). Foucault argued that power is also productive because "it 'excludes', it 'represses', it 'censors', it 'abstracts', it 'masks', it 'conceals'... power produces; it produces reality; it produces domains of objects and rituals of truth... individual and the knowledge" (p. 194). Similarly, he argues that power is omnipresent "because it is produced from one moment to the next, at every point, or rather in every relation from one point to another. Power is everywhere; not because it embraces everything, but because it comes from everywhere." (1978, p. 93).

Thus, unlike practice theorists discussed above, Foucault's conception of power as discursive, circulating, and dynamic is useful for critically analysing marketisation policy texts and discourses for two reasons. First, it shows how the dominant groups involved in marketisation policy interpretation reshaped teachers' and students' subjectivities: knowledge, ideologies, beliefs, attitudes, identity, and social inequalities. That is, how they constrained and/or facilitated production and reproduction of culture, power, ideologies, and beliefs, thus reproducing the social structures of domination and inequalities. Second, as I argued above, from a poststructuralist perspective, official knowledge and pedagogies are specific to historical, political, and sociocultural contexts to which they are produced and reproduced.

3.4 Chapter summary and conclusion

In this chapter, I discussed the theories I apply to analyse the discursive effects of marketisation policy reforms on teachers' work. I examined how education policy research has moved away from the rational or traditional to critical and poststructural theoretical approaches, and discussed their strengths and weaknesses. Thus, I adopted a policy meaning relevant for those approaches. I also argued that because of the complex and diverse nature of education policymaking and interpretation, education policy analysts subscribe to multiple theoretical and epistemological positions with various assumptions. Analysts employ a theoretical 'toolbox' rather than relying on a single theory and method as assumed by the traditional/rational policy mode. For the purpose of this study, the toolbox has CDA, critical ethnography, Bernstein theory, and poststructuralist discourse theory. This toolbox suited the study because the theories consider contextual differences, influences, multiple interpretations of policy texts, and institutional and individual struggles in the policy processes that were neglected by rational approaches. The toolbox theories combined theoretical positions that share one major interest of human emancipation from the capitalist evils of exploitation, inequalities, and domination based on gender, class, age, race, and ethnicity. These theoretical positions challenge these social problems, and support sociocultural and political transformation, and change. To achieve these purposes, critical and poststructuralist theorists focus on political and sociocultural practices that reproduce subjectivities, including unequal power relations and ideologies, through policy silences. As Allan (2008) argues, "dominant discourses embedded in policy are normalized to such an extent they are rarely called into question." (p. 2). For Allan,

these dominant discourses can be analysed through what she calls *Policy discourse analysis* that uncovers dominant “discourses to examine the discursive shaping of policy problems and solutions.” (p. 2). *Policy discourse analysis* has moved beyond the traditional and narrow focus on structures, material inputs, and outputs as policy analysts’ concerns (Rizvi & Lingard, 2010). Moreover, analysts include issues of history and cultural diversities and complexities in the analysis. They recognise the historical, sociocultural, and political processes that construct and reconstruct educational policy processes and outcomes in a given space and historical time (Marshall & Gerstl-Pepin, 2005; Stein, 2004).

These toolbox theories worked together to enhance the weaknesses of each theory, focusing on discourses constructed at societal, institutional, and local classroom levels for power and control relations, and identities. They also informed the analysis of the subjective interpretation of marketisation policy texts and discourses, which are specific and diverse historical, sociocultural, economic, and political contexts. These contexts, resulting practices, and representations are a construction of meaning which needs to be analysed through qualitative research methodology and methods that allow interaction between the researcher and the participants. In Chapter 4, I discuss the research methodology and methods I selected and used in collecting relevant data to answer the proposed research questions.

CHAPTER FOUR

METHODOLOGICAL FRAMEWORK

4.1 Introduction and chapter overview

Consistent with the theoretical framework discussed in Chapter 3, in this chapter, I discuss the methodological framework I employed to understand the politics of teachers' work and the philosophical bases that justified their selection. According to Crotty (1998), methodology consists of "methodologies and methods" (p. 1). The former refers to the selection and implementation of particular designs that meet the epistemological and ontological perspectives. The latter refers to the strategies and systematic procedures utilised in data collection and analysis, consistent with the research questions. Based on this understanding, I reviewed past related studies on critical education policy analysis to answer the research questions I constructed in Chapter 2.

I divide this chapter into four sections, beginning with an introduction and chapter overview. The second considers the research designs, and includes why and how I selected the ethnographic case study schools, the participants, and how I collected, stored, and analysed field data. In each case, I discuss the methodological strengths and weaknesses of the approach I used. The third section discusses the ethical issues I considered in the research process, and the fourth section explains how I enhanced findings' trustworthiness and researchers' reflexivity. Finally, I summarise and conclude the main methodological issues discussed.

4.2 Research design

My first task was to decide on the appropriate research design that fits the theoretical tools and research questions developed above. Since I examined secondary teachers' work subjectivities, history, and cultural practices over the past two decades, ethnographic case study design was useful. This design is a combination of *case study* and *ethnography*. However, ethnographic case study requires comprehensive and interpretive observation and description to gain an understanding of policy cultures and resulting practices (Shank, 2006). Though the data collection period could not allow participant observation, I conducted adequate non-participant observations to understand schools' and classrooms' cultures. These cultural practices were those of

school administrators, teachers, and students, based on their views, experiences, perceptions, and biases constructed in interpreting marketisation policy texts and discourses.

Ethnographic case study was suitable for this study because it embraces observations, interviews, policy documents, and artifacts, representing multiple policy texts' meanings and consequent work practices and beliefs at different historical and cultural contexts (Ball, 1994; Carspecken, 1996; Mills & Morton, 2013; O'Donoghue, 2007; Pole & Morrison, 2003; Zou & Trueba, 2002). These education policy ethnographers believe that these methods provides subjective interpretations of marketisation policy and practices as opposed to 'objective data' collected through 'decontextualized methods' like surveys and questionnaires. Therefore, rather than relying on single and less flexible research methods for interpreting past practices constructed by marketisation policy, critical and poststructuralist education policy analysts call for multiple methods, depending on the research problem being investigated (Willig, 2012, 2013).

It is argued that ethnographic 'research observation' differs from 'ordinary observation' because the former considers the physical setting, participants, objects, actions, events, timing, goals, and feelings (Shank, 2006). Further, as Walford (2003) argues, if carefully conducted, such observations and descriptions are very informative for policy research and decision-making. However, ethnographic case study may involve difficulties in access to data and some sensitive research sites and sources, like classroom practices, and needs to be supplemented with other sources of data (Levinson, 1992). Others criticised this design based on the influence of the researcher, which may be great to distort the context and interpretation of policy and cultural texts and practices. I overcome such difficulties through ethical procedures, spending a period of six months in schools and classrooms, and establishing rapport and reflexivity (Ball, 1994), as I discuss later. These measures facilitated the interaction and co-construction of knowledge of schools and teachers' work cultural practices together.

Philosophically, ethnographic case study is concerned with how individuals and groups interact in specific settings to produce particular cultures over longer periods (Lodico, Spaulding, & Voegtle, 2010). These scholars argue that educational policy ethnographers thus examine policy implementers in their natural "environments, their culture, and how their interactions in a cultural group are influenced by the larger society" (p. 36-37). By examining cultures, educational policy ethnographers are

concerned with meanings that are “structured by culture - that is, by collectively shared and transmitted symbols, understanding, and ways of being” (p. 37). Thus, ethnographic case study design was “useful in the discovery of knowledge that is embedded within a culture or community” (p. 151). Popular educational ethnographers like Willis (1977) successfully applied ethnography to analyse historical, political, and sociocultural contexts that reshape teachers and students’ subjectivity and cultural practices, or the “attitudes, knowledge, values, and beliefs that influence the behaviour of a particular group of people” (p. 151).

Therefore, ethnographic case study was useful in this study to provide in-depth data collection and interpretation through multiple sources (Yin, 2009). It provided comparative and in-depth evidence for the understanding of marketisation policy practices using a small sample. The multiple sources include policy and professional documents spanning over the past two decades that helped to supplement the interpretation of cultures constructed in those challenging marketisation policy contexts, as discussed in Chapter 1. I used observation and interviewing school administrators and teachers to get into their ‘lived experiences’, views, and practices related to school social organisation, power relations, work cultures, and beliefs reconstructed in and through marketisation policy discourses (Hammersley, 1999; Hammersley & Atkinson, 2007; Johnson & Christensen, 2012; Merriam, 1998, 2009). I considered three schools as a ‘case’ and selected teachers, the curriculum leaders, as ‘units of analysis’ (Yin, 2009).

I also found case study suitable to investigate on-going marketisation policy perspectives, which have existed since 1992 (Yin, 2009). This approach favoured tracing the policy texts and discursive events historically and comparatively to analyse how they shaped and reshaped school administrators and teachers’ work across schools and individual agents (Ball, 1993a, 1994, 1997a, 1997b; Gale, 2001; Scheurich, 1994, 1997). Finally, I used case study to gain marketisation policy contextual knowledge that may be used to research similar contexts and reflect on other schools’ and teachers’ work challenges (Merriam, 1998, 2002, 2009).

Ethnographic case study is consistent with the social constructionism and poststructuralist discourse theory I adopted, which assumes that subjective knowledge, multiple realities, and experiences of marketisation policy reform are socially constructed. In the research process, I understand this to mean that knowledge and realities about marketisation policy effects on teachers’ subjectivities and work practices

is socially constructed in the active interaction between the researcher and participants. This enabled illumination of those multiple, sometimes conflicting and competing values and experiences constructed in marketisation policy interpretation. This perspective informed me to adopt qualitative inquiry, by collecting narrative data in the form of ‘words and pictures’ to obtain teachers’ work experiences of marketisation policy through ‘open-ended’, inductive exploration or discovery (Guba & Lincoln, 1994, 2005; Lincoln, Lynham, & Guba, 2011; Mertens, 2005, 2010; Morgan, 2007).

As argued by Mertens (2010), qualitative inquiry involves data collection strategies that enhance construction of meaning through social interaction between the researcher and participants, and takes place in different social and cultural contexts. Meaning is about “how people make sense of the world and how they experience events” (Willig, 2013, p. 8), which forms the foundation for the development of themes that may be relevant for hypothesis development or theoretical explanations of a phenomenon (Freebody, 2003; Hatch, 2002; Johnson & Christensen, 2012; Lichtman, 2010; Schostak, 2001). In this way, I understand teachers’ work practices as the interpretation of the meaning of narratives of their practices as they experienced the marketisation policy reform. Such meaning cannot be easily approached through a quantitative approach because this may encourage the ‘de-contextualisation’ of human actions and practices (Scheurich, 1997; Scheurich & Young, 1997). Further, such meanings, actions, and practices are represented through participants’ perceptions, beliefs, knowledge, desires, and actions that are difficult to quantify (Ward, 2004). In support of the suitability of qualitative research methods in exploring social/educational policy discourse and practices, Scheurich (1997) argues that social reality and educational reforms that can lead to social inequality and other social problems are difficult to understand using positivist ‘false rules’ of investigation which have been refuted by epistemologists.

4.2.1 The selection of case study schools and participants

The basic criteria for selecting cases for a study according to Patton (2002) are richness in information that meets the purpose, strategy, and available resources. Further, the qualitative designs I adopted support ‘purposive sampling’ (Patton, 1987, 1990, 2002; Sandelowski, 1995). Purposive sampling “is 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” (Maxwell, 2009, p. 235). Based on this argument, I purposively selected three schools in Arusha Region, located in northern Tanzania. I name these schools according to their contexts with their pseudonyms in brackets:

1. Urban government secondary school (*Urgova*);
2. Urban private secondary school (*Urpisa*); and
3. Rural government secondary school (*Rugosa*).

I use these pseudonyms throughout the remaining part of this study. I selected the schools based on their long time establishment and location to access teachers and school administrators who have ‘lived experiences’ of marketisation policy reform, and could narrate the changes in their work practices over the past two decades. Further, as opposed to newly established schools, old schools have good systems of keeping policy documents and artefacts to access. The schools formed a ‘single case’ to gain a ‘deeper understanding’ and compare the extent of the discursive effects of marketisation policy on teachers’ work history, politics, and cultural practices in urban and rural, public and private, school contexts.

Further, I purposively sampled three (3) academic subjects: Mathematics, English, and Biology because these were, and still are, the basic subjects studied by all students in Tanzania. Thus, participants and observations were from these subjects. In each school, participants were school heads, experienced subject teachers who have worked for at least 10 years, beginning teachers, and students.

Similarly, with the advice of Heads of Departments (HODs), I purposively selected teachers from the three subjects using three main criteria. First, they had to have taught in secondary schools for at least 10 years so that they could tell their experiences of the policy. However, I came to select four beginning teachers to get their opinions because some experienced teachers’ narratives implicated a different identity for the beginning. Second, I made sure to have a good mix of both genders to get different gender and class experiences. Third, I selected teachers based on their orientation to liberal or neo-liberal school reforms, which meant getting both positive and negative aspects of marketisation. However, I used “maximum variation sampling” (Patton, 2002, p. 234-235) to include more teachers from the subjects with higher

teacher population in the departments in the three schools. At least one (1) teacher from each subject participated.

With the assistance of the interviewed subject teachers, I also purposively selected six (6) groups of students from Form III to VI classes, with each group having between 5 and 7 students in three classes in each school. At least two (2) groups came from each school, and one group came from each of the Ordinary and Advanced levels to get wider and divergent students' experiences of each school. In each group, students had a good mix of boys and girls. Thus, the study had total participants of three (3) school heads, 14 subject teachers (four of them being or have been heads of department), and 34 students.

4.2.2 Data collection

In this section, I discuss data collection methods and procedures I employed for a period of six months between April and October 2012, and how each method and procedure helped or challenged the process. Marshall (1998) has categorically emphasised that the choice of data collection is determined by the researcher's access to data and participants' acceptance of the investigation. Similarly, Yin (2009) argues that case study data may be enriched using "multiple sources of evidence" (p. 101) to evaluate an education programme and policy, which may come from individuals, groups, documents, and observation. Ethnographic case study design supports multiple data sources, which were accessible and available for critical analysis.

After obtaining formal written permission from national, regional, and districts for school access, as I discuss later, I travelled to the schools, one after the other. On average, I spent two months in each school to familiarise myself and the school communities for data collection. In each school, the process began with discussions with school heads about the purpose of the study, the nature of the teachers and students I aimed to meet, and the documents I wanted to access. Interviews with school heads preceded those with HODs, followed by subject teachers, and then students. In each school, following interviews with school heads, I was introduced to Academic Masters/Mistresses, who introduced me to HODs. I discussed with each of them at different times about the purpose of the study; the teachers and students I aimed to meet; and the documents I planned to collect. I discussed with the HODs and agreed to identify from the available list of experienced teachers who had taught for more than 10

years. We agreed to consider teachers from both genders and their orientation to educational reforms that have been taking place in Tanzania over the past twenty years.

Before each interview, I provided participants with information sheets, confidentiality agreements, and consent forms in advance before the meeting dates. These documents helped them to understand what the study was about and how they could contribute to its success. It also informed them of their rights and responsibilities in the study, such as privacy, confidentiality, anonymity, and withdrawal from the study at any time they felt uncomfortable (Creswell, 2012). I also asked teachers to: allow me to observe one of their lessons in the classroom; provide lesson plans, and copies and lists of textbooks they used; let me see lesson notes; and identify students who participated in the focus group discussion based on their active participation in various discussions. Below, I discuss four major data collection tools I employed to collect both primary and secondary data.

4.2.2.1 In-depth semi-structured interviews

I used in-depth semi-structured interviews to gain an understanding of schools, teachers, and students' discursive practices constructed in and through marketisation policy texts and discourses. I separately interviewed face-to-face three school heads and 14 teachers, depending on their daily timetables and routines. Four (4) of the teachers were, or had been, HODs. We met for discussion in a quiet office and the interviews took between one and one and a half hours. Interview topics focused on participants' experiences, ideas, attitudes, beliefs, and practices on the intentions and effects of marketisation policy interpretation in schools and teachers' work. Each interview was preceded by a general introduction from each side and signing of agreement forms. School heads and HODs explained how the powerful groups—the government, school owner, School Boards, and publishers—challenged school and departmental policy decision making in terms of financing, selection, distribution, book storage, and curriculum changes. For example, they expressed how the government and its agents, like the Inspectorate, Ministry officials, and NECTA, constrained school decision making through limited financing, policy texts and discourses, increased class sizes, and EMAC approval lists and certificates. Contents of the school administrators' interviews are explained more in Appendix 3.

Similarly, subject teachers expressed their experiences, views, and desires with marketisation policy interpretation in terms of how curricular, pedagogic, and

evaluation decisions were shaped by class sizes, MCR selection, MCR discourses, MCR approval, school inspection, curricula changes, school library policy, and lack of adequate MCR. Teachers were free to narrate how their experiences and opinions with frequent government curriculum policy changes affected their MCR selection and use to meet the demands of the new curricula. Further, they asked some questions that aimed to know if I was sent to get their views that could lead to changes in the current marketisation policy. Interview content spanned marketisation policy texts and discourses between 1995 and 2012. The contents of the teachers' interviews are explained more in Appendix 5. With the exception of two interviewees who were uncomfortable with tape recording, all other voices were tape-recorded simultaneous with short notes on my personal diary for some thoughts that emerged in the discussions. Tape recording helped to collect an adequate and rich dataset for answering the research questions.

4.2.2.2 Students' focus group discussions (FGD)

I conducted discussions with six groups of students who came from Forms III, IV, V, and VI. These discussions reflected how parents, school administrators, the government, teachers, and students themselves shaped and were reshaped by marketisation policy texts and discourses. Under my guidance, each group conducted discussions on their own and parents' participation in marketisation policy implementation focusing on availability, access, and use of MCR in the curriculum process. Students explained how various structures, like a lack or small size of school library, subject teachers, school administrators, and parents' politics and ideologies, constrained and facilitated their access to MCR and classroom discourses for knowledge construction. Further, students explained how they and their subject teachers performed their work with those policy constraints. These students' wider experiences with the families, schools, and classrooms provided room for my construction of multiple knowledge and data, thus increasing the trustworthiness of the study's findings (Patton, 1990, 2002). The contents of FGD are presented in Appendix 6.

4.2.2.3 Non-participant observation of classroom cultural practices

I employed semi-ethnographic non-participant observations using a self-designed schedule to observe and record teachers' work cultural practices and subjectivities

reconstructed through marketisation policy texts and discourses over the past two decades. Observations followed each teacher interview to get to their classrooms and observe the classroom discourse practices that also reflected their knowledge, beliefs, ideologies, and perceptions constructed by marketisation policy texts and discourses. Each observation lasted between 40 and 60 minutes to allow me to reflect on and compare the interview data and teachers' classroom practices. I observed what teachers and students did in relation to the type, content, and access to MCR, and the availability and use of MCR in curriculum construction through teachers' and students' activities. Specifically, I paid attention to the following teachers' and students' texts and practices which facilitated the study by highlighting how marketisation policy texts and discourses shaped and reshaped teachers and students' subjectivities:

- Teacher's lesson planning, preparations, decisions on selection and implementation of subject matter knowledge, pedagogy, and evaluation through lesson notes and MCR use and access;
- Clarity of instructions, sequence and logical procedures, and communication of content to the learners;
- Availability and use of lesson plans, lesson notes, and marketised books and their various types and contents;
- Classroom organisation and interaction during the lesson, between teachers and MCR, teachers and students, and students and marketised books; and
- The nature and form of evaluation in terms of exercises and tests provided and practised.

Observations allowed the collection of first-hand information and experience to construct multiple meanings and representations re/constructed in and through school administrators', teachers', and students' interpretations of marketisation policy texts and discourses. I tape-recorded all observations and wrote the main events during the lessons. In total, I observed 11 lessons to gain a deeper understanding and comparison of each teacher's practices in the context of marketisation policy reform. Classroom observations supplemented the data collected through other sources.

4.2.2.4 Policy and professional documents

I collected some policy documents, which reflected state policy actors', schools', departmental, teachers', and students' interpretation of marketisation policy and practices. I focused on how such documents reshaped their knowledge, ideologies, beliefs, and identities. Some of these documents are those from and to the government and its institutions, MCR publishers, school boards, school heads, heads of departments, subject teachers, and students. They include:

- The major policy document titled, *Policy on Production and Distribution of School/College Books*, issued in December 1991. This was an important major document as it contained policy statements that transformed school CR production and distribution from state to the market;
- About 16 government circulars from the Ministry on how schools should select, procure, and finance MCR. These were central for analysis of the policy text discourses that shaped MCR selection, availability, and access in schools and, therefore, teachers' work;
- Four curriculum reviews and change guidelines communicated to schools between 1992 and 2012, which directed schools of the major curriculum changes and reviews. They sometimes even instructed pedagogies teachers should adopt in their work and, thus, reflected their intersection with marketisation policy discourses;
- Six school inspection reports in the past ten years, two for each of the three schools, which highlighted how school inspectors' power, ideologies, and beliefs shaped and reshaped schools', teachers', and students' curriculum, pedagogic, and evaluation decisions and practices;
- I collected and critically analysed six subject syllabi, seven teacher guides, eight teachers' schemes of work, 12 lesson plans, and 7 lesson notes for the classes I observed. These were mainly from sampled subjects: mathematics, biology, and English Language. These informed the analysis on what and how teachers' work in the classroom was shaped by the policy texts and contexts over the past two decades;

- About 22 Mathematics, Biology, and English Language marketised text, supplementary, and reference books (see Appendix 11) that were used in schools from 1996 to 2012, when the school curricula were changed to align with marketisation. I used intertextuality to collect and critically analyse the books most frequently mentioned by the participants during the interview, FGD sessions, and documents, either by their titles, authors, or publishers.
- Further, utilising the concept of intertextuality, I collected and critically analysed 30 Form II and IV national examination papers for the three subjects' since 1999 to 2013. These informed the critical analysis of how evaluations constructed and reconstructed teachers' work practices;
- Some book advertisements, like publishers' catalogues; photos of advertisements which helped to highlight the nature of MCR advertised; the struggle for publishers for dominating and controlling teachers' work and how that has affected the schools' and teachers' choice of MCR;
- Workshop papers, subject departmental meeting reports that show marketisation policy and practices in schools, and the nature of communication between the subject departments and the school authorities;
- Three 'joining instructions' and 'parental report' forms used for communication with parents schools used as evidence of parents' involvement in marketisation policy implementation;
- A list of approved MCR found in MoEVT headquarters, reflecting the politics of national level politics approval and the multiplicity of MCR in the market;
- Some newspaper articles related to marketisation policy to reflect the public concerns over marketisation policy reform;
- Relevant research reports (such as Hakielimu, NECTA, TIE, MOEVT) to identify teachers' and students' practices and views about curriculum, pedagogy, and evaluation during marketisation policy reforms; and

- Publishers' meeting reports, indicating some implications and reflecting government policy and politics on MCR for schools over the period of implementation.

I reviewed, analysed, and evaluated these documents to answer the three research questions stated in Chapter 2.

4.2.3 Case study database and researcher journal

As I discuss below, the study produced a large dataset of over 300 pages. Therefore, I established a case study database and researcher journal for the effective management, storage, and analysis of the data I collected (Yin, 2009). The database was initially for each participant and later for each sampled academic subject, group of participants, and school. On the other hand, the journal helped to document my thinking as it emerged during the fieldwork, data analysis, and report writing stages. Both the database and the journal became interesting documents, as primary and effective ways of managing and 'cross-case analysis' of complex, lengthy, and detailed case study data I collected and analysed from the three schools (Davis, 2010; Merriam, 1998, 2009; Yin, 2009). Below, I discuss how I analysed these complex discourse data collected from the field.

4.2.4 Data/discourse analysis

The theoretical/epistemological and methodological frameworks I developed above guided me to analyse both data and discourses (Babbie, 2014; Layder, 1998). The first analysis stage involved transcription of the recorded interviews, FGD, and some classroom lesson observations. I systematically transcribed the recordings by listening and re-listening to the audio recordings which were completed for a period of four months, between November 2012 and February 2013. In order to ensure data quality, the transcripts included all recorded verbal talks, and as a novice qualitative discourse analyst, this helped me to construct a rich dataset for identifying discourses during the coding stage. However, I excluded some theoretically irrelevant non-verbal communication details, such as laughing and unheard recordings. Throughout the transcript constructions, I presented by maintaining the sequence of speakers' talk with a focus on the "meaning which is created through interaction" (Yates, Taylor, & Wetherell, 2001, p. 37) between the speakers. Transcription also involved translations of the recordings from Swahili to English because most participants were less confident

in responding in English. However, this process challenged and complicated the transcription process by adding working time. To simplify the discourse analysis, I used a few major ‘discourse transcription notations’¹⁰ (see Notes). The transcription resulted in long and detailed transcripts of over 250 pages, while documents were adequate enough to provide for triangulation.

I then read and re-read the interview transcripts several times for a period of four months, although this process was iterative. The purpose was to understand the data and identify various discourses in the form of words, metaphors, statements, and chunks, which contained discourses representing school marketisation policy actors’, teachers’, and students’ subjective experiences and practices embedded with ideologies, power relations, perceptions, desires, and beliefs. I extended similar processes to FGD transcripts, documents, and observation notes for ‘triangulation’. Subsequently, consistent with the theoretical frame, I applied coding for the purpose of ‘data condensation’ (Miles & Huberman, 1994; Miles, Huberman, & Saldaña, 2014) through the construction of ‘matrices’ which helped to reduce data, and identify and compare concepts and themes across individual interviewees, academic subjects, and case study schools (Johnson & Christensen, 2008). From the matrices, I conducted a “detailed analysis of a small number of discourse samples” (Fairclough, 1992, p. 230) I selected from the major corpuses of data collected from the field. The selection was guided by the research questions that aimed to understand teachers’ work practices in the context of marketisation policy reform. I then analysed the discourse samples identified following the theoretical framework based on Fairclough’s (1989, 1992, 2001) three CDA dimensions and stages of analysis of texts, discourse practices, and social practices.

Consequently, I developed a ‘coding frame’ as an ‘initial coding’ or first and second cycle coding (Saldaña, 2013) by selecting three teachers’ comprehensive interview transcripts, one from each school for the three academic subjects. The coding frame I developed guided the coding process for the remaining interview data and policy documents, while triangulating with ethnographic observation and FGD data. I then crosschecked the concepts, themes, and categories from the other forms of discourse data: documents, FGD, and classroom observations to discern participants’ beliefs, attitudes, perceptions, and biases towards marketisation policy interpretation processes and discourses.

In data condensation and throughout the analysis, I employed what Willig (2013) calls “social constructionist reading of the data” (p. 41), a process that requires the researcher to consider participants’ narratives ‘as a *production*’. This enabled me to understand how participants constructed their experiences of marketisation policy using available linguistic resources and, more importantly, what subjects and objects were produced in their narratives. Furthermore, this enabled possible alternative interpretative meanings of those experiences.

Thus, I was identifying dominant marketisation policy discourses and social practices that were constructed and reconstructed in the societal, institutional, and local levels of policy interpretation. Similarly, I identified contradictory and competing policy discourses that intersected to shape and reshape teachers’ work in these three levels. Thus, I categorised the identified discourses into three broad types: the societal, the institutional, and the classroom discursive practices, which reflected the politics of power relations, ideologies, and cultural practices within them. Coding in this stage also involved inductive identification, marking, sorting, and a summarisation of “concepts, themes, examples, events, and topical markers” (Rubin & Rubin, 2012, p. 193). Coding for themes was further facilitated by three main textual criteria relevant for thematic identification: ‘recurrence’, ‘repetition’, and ‘forcefulness’ (Owen, 1984). Similarly, while Fairclough (1992) emphasises the first two textual criteria, in the same way, he calls forcefulness as “force of utterance” (p. 75). Owen (1984) argues that recurrence occurs when participants construct different texts with similar meanings, even if they use similar or different words to imply such meanings. Thus, I examined text meanings’ recurrence, which were explicitly foregrounded or implicitly backgrounded, and the presuppositions involved (Huckin, 1997). Recurrence also relates to Owen’s second criterion of repetition in terms of “key words, phrases, or sentences.” (p. 275). Finally, the criterion of forcefulness helped me to identify meanings in the texts by considering “vocal inflection, volume, or dramatic pauses which serve to stress and subordinate some utterances from other locutions” (Owen, 1984, p. 275). In addition, within the written policy and professional texts, I also identified forcefulness by focusing on underlined words and phrases, the use of capital letters, colourings, and bolding. Such textual features were central in exposing the meaning inherent in policy texts and discourses that constructed school policy actors’ and teachers’ work practices.

In the third stage of the analysis, I was looking for consistent patterns, relationships, or themes (Hatch, 2002) emerging from the identified discourses, within

and across the sampled academic subjects and schools. Hatch defines ‘patterns’ as ‘regularities’ which take the form of similarities, differences, frequency, sequences, correspondence, and causation. I analysed the relationships in the data by focusing on the links, from which I drew conclusions from the textual evidence. Hatch also defines themes as ‘integrating concepts’. Through coding, I constructed themes in the form of subject positions, and dominant and non-dominant discourses from discourse samples, as implied in the course of language used by policymakers and implementers. Thus, for example, I described, interpreted, and explained how heads of schools, teachers, and students used language to categorise MCR, and define themselves, their work, students, the government curricular policy practices, and the institutions involved in the implementation of marketisation policy. I analysed the discourse practices involving text production, distribution, and consumption (Fairclough, 1992). These discourse practices included the processes of school departmental meetings, school policy decision-making processes, and government policy text production and reproduction over the past two decades. The third analysis was of the social practices of teachers, schools, departments, and students, in which I identified and described discourse categories, ideological investments, and social practices (MacNaughton, 1988). In this section of analysis, I focused on how secondary school teachers’ subject positions were constructed and negotiated in interactions with marketisation policy texts, processes, and discourses. That is, I examined how the policy texts, processes, and discourses shaped teachers’ subject positions through policy discourses constructed at societal, institutional, and local levels of policy implementation between 1992 and 2012. For example, I also examined the various ways in which teachers’ power/knowledge, beliefs, and social relations were shaped and are reshaped in and through policy texts and discourses. These were reflected in the curriculum planning and decision making processes: MCR selection, lesson planning and preparation, classroom presentation, and evaluation. Thus, analysis determined how teachers and school administrators found themselves working against or in support of the dominant curriculum, pedagogic, and evaluation discourses. That is, how policy contexts shaped their practice differently, like in MCR selection and use, government funds, students’ participation in curriculum construction, and using MCR in the classroom (Fairclough, 2001).

Further, I examined teachers’ subjective descriptions of their work based on their beliefs, biases, perceptions, and attitudes on how they selected MCR, planned and prepared their lessons, how they selected and presented the subject matter content and

activities, and how they evaluated their lessons. These analyses revealed the practices, histories, and discourses teachers, heads of schools, and students brought to their work contexts. Moreover, I analysed students' expectations and how they engaged in curriculum development processes, as well as teachers' perceptions as these determined which MCR were used in learning encounters. This approach helped to identify how marketisation policy discourses intersected with curriculum policy and practices to facilitate or hinder teachers' work. These intersections had implications in shaping teachers' identity and work practices in particular ways that suited dominant groups' interests and ideologies.

The major discourses I identified are presented in Chapter 6, and their discursive effects are major discussions in chapters 7, 8, and 9. I analysed curricula policy texts and documents used by teachers and students in the curriculum work since marketisation policy adoption to understand the historical, sociocultural, and political implications they had on the production and reproduction of dominant cultures, power/knowledge, ideologies, inequalities, and identities present in the wider social structures. Together with the CDA framework, I used a curriculum analytical framework provided by Smith and Lovat (2003), Beyer and Apple (1998), and other curriculum policy scholars. In analysing curricula texts and discourses, I deeply focused on the intertextuality described above for critically analysing curriculum texts and discourses in a historical and across framework, as referred by the participants. Such texts included MCR, subject syllabi, and examination papers. First, I identified the kinds of worldviews: ideologies, attitudes, perceptions, and behaviours that were constructed for teachers and students by the MCR discourses used in the curriculum work, and strategies used in this construction. Second, I examined the origin of the cultures, knowledge, worldviews, and experiences contained in those texts and discourses, and which were not incorporated. I followed Smith and Lovat's (2003) emphasis on race, ethnicity, class, age, and gender. Third, I identified the groups and individuals whose interests were included and served by those MCR texts and discourses. In all these processes, I was guided by the initial research questions that directed the data collection. Using the research questions, I applied Foucauldian analysis to identify the main 'discursive resources' that were constructed and reconstructed in and through marketisation policy texts.

I conducted thematic analysis (Guest, MacQueen, & Namey, 2011), which focused on marketisation policy texts and discourses as a form of qualitative data

analysis, an approach Roberts and Sarangi (2005) call theme-oriented discourse analysis. These scholars argue that thematic analysis in discourse research calls for critical and interpretative practices that facilitate movement “beyond counting explicit words or phrases and focus on identifying and describing both implicit and explicit ideas within the data, that is, themes.” (p. 10). To these scholars, the developed codes represent the resulting themes that link to the field data and act as ‘summary markers’ for further data analysis.

I analysed discourse through interpretation of meaning by applying iterative, inductive, and deductive approaches through coding the chunks of data, which varied from words, phrases, or paragraphs (Boyatzis, 1998; Miles & Huberman, 1994) or what Fairclough (1992) calls ‘discourse samples’. I analysed these three textual features to identify power, ideology, and struggle in and through policy texts and discourses (Fairclough, 1992; Wagenaar, 2011). This is because, as argued above, power and ideological struggles are central in critical policy analysis as they operate through texts and discourses and, therefore, affect policy actors’ decisions and teachers’ curricular and pedagogic practices. Recurrence, repetition, and forcefulness in CDA are evidence of the existence of ideologies and power struggles taking place in the local, institutional, and societal levels and reflected relationships in wider social structures.

In the context of this study and its discourse theoretical framework, the patterns, relationships, or themes from the summarised chunks of data containing societal (government, parents, and global actors), institutional (schools and departments), and classroom discourses took the forms of (1) dominant ideologies and (2) power relationships reconstructed in and through marketisation policy discourses. I analysed discourse data at the level of sampled subject teachers, students, school heads, heads of departments, and schools, and compared within and across subjects and schools to delineate any patterns of similarities and/or divergences in terms of practices and challenges faced by teachers in the curriculum construction process.

In summary, data analysis involved “segmentation, coding, developing emerging categories, identifying relationships (themes, patterns, and hierarchies) and drawing diagrams, tables, and matrices” (Johnson & Christensen, 2008, p. 531). Patton (2002) stresses the sensitivity of data analysis in qualitative research in that it “involves creativity, intellectual discipline, analytical rigor, and a great deal of hard work” (p. 432). The themes I developed reflected marketisation policy discourses and competing and contradictory dominant and non-dominant discourses (Allan, 2008), as well as

dominant and non-dominant ideologies, which were historically constructed and circulated in the local, institutional, and societal levels. They also reflected patterns of identities constructed and reconstructed by the various subject positions occupied by teachers and students in their work practices.

4.3 Ethical consideration

Two research cultures, New Zealand and Tanzania, guided this study because while the study was done in a New Zealand university, the policy was implemented in Tanzania. For New Zealand, I obtained a ‘*Low Risk Notification*’ from the *Massey University Human Ethics Committee* in March, 2012, as a requirement for a research project involving human beings. Low risk was required because there were fewer issues that could have produced ethical dilemmas in terms of working with schools, teachers, and students to gain access to data. For Tanzania, it is a legal and ethical requirement to follow all the administrative procedures to gain access to schools and participants. These included: first, applying and obtaining research clearance, and permission from the relevant national, regional, and local authorities, and school administrations (Appendix 20). Second, I introduced myself to the school authorities and explained the purpose and significance of the study, the mode of data collection, and the target population. Third, I obtained consent from school heads, HODs, subject teachers, and students, and participants anonymously signed ‘consent forms’ which I kept confidential throughout and after the study. This aimed to increase confidentiality and reduce any harm to the participants and myself.

4.4 Findings’ trustworthiness and researcher reflexivity

As a tradition, readers are concerned with the extent to which study findings may be trusted or validated. Creswell (2007) argued that validating qualitative research findings entails assessment of the ‘trustworthiness’ of the research determined by the researcher and the participants. Emphasis made on the researcher suggests that “any report of research is a representation by the author” (p. 206-207). The researcher has the responsibility for the findings’ worthiness. This is what some scholars (MacQuarrie, 2010; Willig, 2013) call researcher reflexivity. According to MacQuarrie, reflexivity may not only affect data collection, but also the other research processes. Similarly, Willig (2013) argues that qualitative researchers have a significant impact on the quality

of the findings of their studies and, therefore, they need “to attempt to identify the ways in which [their] standpoint has shaped the research process and findings” (p. 7).

Based on these arguments, I maintained and enhanced the production of trustworthiness of the findings through the following strategies. First, as said above, I adopted an ethnographic approach that allowed spending six months in school staffrooms and classrooms to discuss, observe, interpret, and record data. This enabled rapport establishment to reduce power differentials and obtain as much data as possible (Creswell, 2007). Second, during the fieldwork, I remained open to the data generated through participant experiences, which helped to refine my research questions from time to time. For example, I remained open and thoughtful by inviting a few beginning teachers to get deeper into their experiences with marketisation policy reform because some implicated their identities. Third, I triangulated data from four different sources to make myself clear with any contradictory information arising from the collection and analysis (Huberman & Miles, 2002; Miles & Huberman, 1994; Miles Huberman, & Saldaña, 2014).

Fourth, I developed an awareness of the research contexts to reduce negative attitudes towards marketisation and enhance the positive effects in the research process (Thorpe & Holt, 2008). I considered my own thinking and actions based on changing research circumstances (Begoray & Banister, 2010). For example, I continuously explored teachers’ and students’ criticisms and strengths of marketisation policy processes, practices, and products by critically reflecting some biases, values, ideologies, and assumptions that could have affected data collection, analysis, and reporting. Fifth, I conducted wide and in-depth exploration of relevant theories and concepts in understanding discourse theory and methods (Willig, 2013). Finally, I became conscious of my past identity as a secondary school teacher who experienced the sociocultural and institutional contexts and politics of marketisation policy reform (Finlay & Gough, 2008), whose effects I researched. I thus remained neutral throughout the research process to make sure that my power, ideology, and subjectivity did not influence participants’ positions, views, and practices in both the school administrative functions and classroom discourses. For example, I could not intervene when I saw teachers who used traditional pedagogic practices and the non-use or misuse of MCR in the lessons I observed, although I knew that they constrained students’ participation and curriculum construction. Further, I did not intervene in the selection of participants made by HODs and subject teachers, but only explained the characteristics of

participants I wanted to include in my study to get adequate and relevant data. This is what Hammersley (2005) calls ‘toleration’ throughout the ethnographic research process and which helped to increase study authenticity.

However, my past identity as a secondary school teacher who experienced marketisation policy reforms reconstructed the study in two ways. First, I had a greater understanding of the effects of the history, cultures, and politics of marketisation policy reforms. Second, in the interpretation of the situation and data, I could see whether what I experienced in the context of marketisation policy was similar with what teachers in other, but similar, contexts also experienced, and thus offer relevant suggestions for policy.

4.5 Chapter summary and conclusion

In this chapter, I discussed the methodological framework I adopted to critically analyse the politics of teachers’ work reshaped by marketisation policy texts and discourses. I explained how these methods are linked to the epistemological and ontological frames I adopted in the previous chapter. I argued that critical ethnographic case study design was appropriate to develop and analyse qualitative data that provides meanings constructed through policy text interpretation. Such designs allowed my interaction with participating school administrators, teachers, and students as individuals and groups who experienced the policy reforms. I also explained how I purposively selected case study secondary schools, subjects, and participants, and how I collected and analysed discourse data.

In the next chapter, I describe the three case study school contexts in which marketisation policy reforms were implemented. Descriptions will focus on the schools’ physical, human, and material resources to provide a bigger picture of the state and practices of schools, teachers, and students.

CHAPTER FIVE

CASE STUDY SCHOOLS' INSTITUTIONAL CONTEXTS AND STUDY PARTICIPANTS

5.1 Introduction and chapter overview

Chapter 4 has shown how I selected the case study schools and the participants to enable adequate data collection and analysis to answer the research questions outlined in Chapter 2. Based on Chapter three's emphasis on the role of school contexts in policy enactments, this chapter describes the historical, political, and sociocultural contexts in which marketisation policy enactments were made by the school policy actors. That is, the interpretation and translation in policy is about "the culture and history of the institution and the policy biographies of the key actors" (Ball et al., 2012, p. 43). These contexts define the three case study schools and participants.

This chapter has eight sections. This introduction is followed by a description of the schools' history, location, administration, teachers, and student population. These cover sections two to four. Section five discusses the institutional contexts, covering physical resources and their implications for teachers' work. Section six discusses the curriculum organisation and construction in each school. Section seven highlights the state of MCR in the three schools as an outcome of marketisation policy reforms. Section eight summarises and concludes the chapter.

5.2 Schools' history, location, and management

Urgova, Urpisa, and Rugosa are among the oldest secondary schools in Tanzania, established after independence during the 1960s. While Urgova and Urpisa are located in the Arusha urban region, Rugosa is located in a rural area over 100 kilometres away from Arusha city in northern Tanzania. As stated in Chapter 1, the schools are currently under Municipal and District Councils.

Following the 1995 *Education (Amendment) Act* (URT, 1995a), the three schools had similar organisational structures although with some differences. For example, similarities include the hierarchical governing structure with the School Owner/Government being at the top, followed by the School Board, the School Management Committee, the School Head, and the Deputy School Head. Below were Academic Officers, Heads of Departments, subject teachers, and students. However, the

schools' ownership differs, which determines where the School Boards and heads report. Thus, while the Urgova and Rugosa School Boards reported to the Municipal/District authorities, Urpisa dealt with the School Manager/Owner. Therefore, in terms of management, despite the School Board being the highest supervisory and advisory organ for school level decision-making in all the three schools, in practice, the School Board's activeness depended on its involvement by the School Head who runs the daily school activities. Thus, while Urgova School Board seems to be active at times, this was not the case with Urpisa and Rugosa. For Urpisa, the School Manager/Owner closely monitors school administrative tasks and, therefore, there is less School Board involvement.

Further, data indicates that Urgova had a bureaucratic culture. In contrast, Rugosa had a relaxed administration, but had evidence of a culture of mistrust, intimidation, and authoritarianism because teachers had limited democracy and less participation in the school policy decisions. Historically, it had frequent student riots. For example, between 2002 and 2012, three major student riots related to administrative problems and resources occurred. These frequent riots made Rugosa very notorious in the media. The outcomes were school closures and school head transfers, which affected the curriculum as students lacked learning continuity. One of the interviewee, Abubaka explains:

Nobody in the government cares/ until the students have to riot/ you know/ it really doesn't make sense// then is when you can see them coming here and there// like last year/ students rioted//and they came here to see what is the problem// lessons were interrupted//

Since their establishment, the three schools were mainly headed by males, with limited females. For example, Urpisa's headship history indicates two female heads since it was established in the 1960s. Moreover, heads rarely had the opportunity to lead for more than three years, with few exceptions. Over the past 30 years, there were more than 20 school heads, out of which 12 were in the position for between two to three years. This may imply school management instability and ineffectiveness because of a lack of assurance of the position. Urpisa school head, Mr. Matano explains that there was little serious attention paid to schooling by the owners, a business that had other capital investments in the city and the country. This may have influenced school management, resources, and curriculum construction, as discussed later.

For Urgova and Rugosa, the heads were appointed by MoEVT from Dar es Salaam. Most heads were experienced teachers while others were about to retire from

public service. Retirement, transfers, or promotions to other positions encouraged headship changes. For example, Urgova and Rugosa had three school heads between 2000 and 2012. As indicated in Appendix 32, the three school heads were teachers for more than 15 years before they were appointed to their positions. Further, they led for a period of between 10 and 20 years. At the time of this study, Hasani Ilo to had worked for 22 years as a science teacher and four years as Urgova school head, but six years in another two schools. Similarly, Hocsa Jembeli worked as a Kiswahili and History teacher for 14 years before being appointed as Rugosa school head, a position he held for 15 years. Before shifting to Rugosa, he headed three other schools in rural Tanzania. Thus, he had wide experience with rural schooling and management. On the other hand, Matano Borato had 24 years of teaching experience in various urban and rural secondary schools. Before his appointment as Urpisa Acting School Head, he was an academic master, head of Geography, Civics, and History departments. In terms of work complexity, Hasani and Hosca were leading large and complex high schools and considered their work as challenging because, as school heads, they were responsible to resource the school for effective curriculum work. However, they had different urban and rural experience with marketisation.

While Urpisa had eight academic subject departments, Urgova had 10 and Rugosa had seven, each led by a HOD. Each department had between one to five teachers, implying limited human resources and collegiality. Unlike Urgova, both Rugosa and Urpisa had less routines of disseminating school administrative and other policy information. For example, while Urgova's noticeboard had information on government grants, the other two schools had none. As will be seen later, this culture implies a micropolitical strategy for limiting community access to important policy information.

5.3 Teachers' population, welfare, and participation in the study

The teacher characteristics in three schools varied from time to time because of new teachers being employed, and others retiring or shifting work places and occupation. At the time of this study, the schools had subject teachers with qualifications ranging from Bachelors' degrees and *Grade IIIA Teacher Certificates*, to *Teaching Licences*. Urpisa had 15 subject teachers, Urgova had 76, and Rugosa had 22. Thus, teacher-student ratios varied: 1:23 for Urpisa; 1:27 at Urgova, and 1:37 for Rugosa. At Rugosa and Urpisa, teachers had one staffroom where they prepared their work. Similarly, Urgova

teachers were culturally organised into two staffrooms that were 50 metres apart, but staff sometimes got together during tea breaks.

Despite the school administration's shift to PMO-LGRA in 2008, teachers' initial employment postings and remunerations at Urgova and Rugosa were still made at central level MoEVT headquarters in Dar es Salaam. This sometimes delayed salaries and other benefits. On the other hand, the Urpisa School Manager employed teachers directly, and employment terms were very different from Urgova and Rugosa. Most private schools in Tanzania lack the policy to sustain and develop teachers' careers and, hence, have low employment security. Thus, qualified teachers in private schools in Tanzania moved from one school to another, including government schools, although their remunerations were just above that of government schools. This was shared by Rugosa Biology teacher, Madam Estomina:

I began teaching in a private school/ secondary school owned by the diocese/ the diocese of Moshi/ Ummm/ that was owned by a catholic church/ that was since 1996 to 1999/ though I shifted in two schools during that time/ but they were owned by the diocese//

In all the three schools, teachers rarely participated in professional development seminars and workshops because these were less usual and less financed by authorities.

Teachers who participated in this study were aged between 27 and 57 years (Appendix 32). Their qualifications ranged from Bachelor's degrees to Diplomas in Education. Their teaching experience varied from six to 30 years in both urban and rural school contexts, and they specialised in Mathematics, English, Biology, Chemistry, Geography, History, and Physics. Four of the subject teachers were heads of departments for several years in the three schools or in previous schools. Their diverse experience in teaching and departmental leadership helped provide the data collection with broader and more in-depth information on the cultural politics of marketisation policy.

5.4 Student population and participation in the study

The three schools enrolled day, Ordinary Level students from surrounding communities within the local municipalities or districts and some from other regions. The communities were mostly peasants, working employees, and small-scale business people and groups. Thus, most parents had low incomes to finance their children's schooling. Urgova and Rugosa enrolled Advanced Level students who stayed in hostels

and were usually selected from different government and private Ordinary Level schools in Tanzania. Over the past ten years or more, students' enrolment at Urgova and Rugosa had increased tremendously due to secondary school expansion programmes as explained in Chapter 1. This increased class sizes, the demand for resources, and teachers' workloads. The average stream sizes ranged from 50 to 80 students, making a total of between 300 to 400 students per class for Ordinary Level. For Advanced Level, class numbers were between 100 and 150 for Urgova, and 300 and 360 for Rugosa.

Urpisa had 280 students for both Ordinary and Advanced Levels. Its enrolment has significantly dropped over the past few years to about 50 to 80 students per class for Ordinary Level, and five to 20 for Advanced Level. According to Matano, the establishment of community secondary schools in the area contributed to this lessened enrolment. As stated in Chapter 1, between 1995 and 2010, the government encouraged communities in each Ward in Tanzania to construct a *Community Secondary School*. In addition, parents' economic positions and lack of motivation to send their children to private schools also contributed. However, such a drop in enrolment at Urpisa may also imply school ineffectiveness because of administrative and other problems explained above that led to poor academic performance. Matano explains:

Let's say streams/ have decreased beginning 2005// Mainly what has caused this decline is the establishment of government community/ ward secondary schools// they have contributed a lot in the decline of private schools// for/ we had two to three streams/ but after the ward schools were established/ of course more parents have less ability/ they had to send their children to ward community schools//

Urpisa's enrolment decline had significant implications on financial and curriculum resources as private schools depend on fees as their main revenue source.

All 32 students who participated in this study were from Form III to VI classes and were aged between 16 and 20 years. They came from different family backgrounds in both urban and rural Tanzania. Students were mixed from both Ordinary and Advanced Levels. The latter completed their Ordinary Level in different schools in different regions. The 32 students studied arts, science, and commercial subjects. These diverse characteristics enhanced my study because the students provided their experiences from family, previous and current schools, and classroom contexts.

5.5 Schools' physical resources

In understanding the political and cultural characteristics of teachers' work, it was important to assess the state of physical resources in the case study schools. Findings indicate that Urgova and Rugosa had old hostels and science laboratories, with fewer facilities, and had not had any renovation or resourcing for a long time. Comparatively, Urpisa had better science laboratories, but lacked student hostels. Further, while Urpisa had a small library with few CR, Urgova and Rugosa had no library and teachers used cupboards for storage. However, teachers and students at Urgova and Urpisa had the advantage of some access to a regional library and major bookshops in the region due to their urban location. Moreover, unlike Rugosa, Urpisa and Urgova had newly established computer rooms with less than 10 computers and limited internet access. Urgova and Rugosa had limited classrooms with large class sizes as stated above. In contrast, Urpisa had a considerable number of classrooms to cater for the current class sizes. The implications of these physical resources on teachers' and students' access to resources in the contexts of marketisation policy will be clear later.

5.6 Curriculum organisation and construction

This section presents the curriculum organisation in the three schools, which is important for understanding teachers' work discussion in the next chapters. As stated above, the schools offer both Ordinary and Advanced Level curricula, organised in academic subject departments. However, the subject combinations at Advanced Level differed from school to school. With the exception of Rugosa that lacked commercial subjects, the school curricula consisted of arts, science, and commercial subjects. Ordinary Level students studied a minimum of seven and a maximum of 10 subjects. Advanced Level students studied at least three combined subjects that varied from school to school, and they were organised into streams based on those subject combinations. Teachers administered several kinds of tests, exercises, and examinations as will be discussed later.

Urgova is unique because it had morning and afternoon sessions necessitated by its school history and urban location, and large classroom sizes resulting from secondary education expansion. The morning session operated between 7.00 am and 1.30 pm, and the evening between 1.00 and 6.15 pm. According to Mosino, an Urgova Biology teacher, double sessions, wide curriculum content prescribed in the MCR and

subject syllabi, large workload, class sizes, and inadequate CR impacted teacher pedagogy because lesson times were reduced from 40 to 35 minutes, as were daily total lessons from 48 to 32 to accommodate double sessions:

In other words/ the contents are too large and have been subdivided into small sections thus failing to match with the lesson time prescribed in the math syllabus/ especially when I use participatory teaching methods// generally/ it is difficult to cover the contents contained in these textbooks using participatory teaching methods// You will find that the time allocated in the syllabus for each subtopic is not adequate to cover the contents contained in the textbook// The other complicating factor is that our school has double session/ which has affected the length of lessons// Instead of 40 minutes for morning session we have to teach for 35 minutes for afternoon session and have eight lessons per day instead of nine lessons as stipulated in curriculum// the total of 32 lessons per day instead of 48//

Further, the double sessions influenced Urgova's social organisation and work cultures because teachers arrived, worked, and left the school depending on sessions, but shared breakfast between 10.30 and 11.00 am.

As opposed to the other schools, in addition to the core curriculum subjects, Urpisa had established active, new 'subject clubs' that corresponded to the core subjects. These include the *Malihai Club* for Geography, and a significantly new *TAKUKURU Club*, which is similar to the government *Prevention and Combating of Corruption Bureau*. Matano explains:

Yes/ we have for example Malihai club/ we have for example PCCB/ we have-// PCCB for this/ this what?/ for prevention and combating of corruption/ TAKUKURU/ TAKUKURU// We have established to the extent that we are given certificates// ... you will find that we have 20 to 30 students/ they give us things like this/ even for Malihai club/ this year they will also be awarding certificates//

Implicitly, these clubs were sites for the reproduction of social and political values, ideologies, and attitudes that define students' power/knowledge and identity in society.

5.7 The state of marketised curriculum resources (MCR)

In this section, I present the state of MCR as described by participants' policy experiences and my classroom observations. Participants in the three schools described the state of MCR in their schools as inadequate.

For example, at Urgova, Hasani stated that his “students stayed for too long without books” because marketisation policy discourses of approval and finance intersected to constrain school policy decision making and, hence, access to MCR. Similarly, at Urpisa, Matano observed that MCR were so scarce that “students have to scramble” and this affected their “actual time to read and understand”. This intersected with students’ background and behaviour that constrained them to find their own resources to construct knowledge. Matano adds:

You will find that/ you are given ten copies/ five copies/ so students have to scramble// really they have to scramble// Consequently/ they don't get the actual time to read and understand/ and today's student has no time to find for him or herself after they miss it from the school/ by saying “as I have missed a school copy let me purchase mine”//

However, in some cases, teachers’ and students’ ideologies and beliefs constrained their access to MCR in Kiswahili, English, Biology, and Mathematics. For example, Mtunge, Urpisa Biology teacher, described that his students had “completely no access and they completely rely on teachers’ notes”. When students described their experiences with MCR in the classrooms in the three schools, most of the voices at Urpisa said the library had “many books” but were “not the kinds of books” they wanted because the curriculum changes meant the available books were “outdated”. These ideologies constrained students’ access to books to read and reflect curricular content. Two students had this to say about the access to books:

Sipia: In reality there are many books in the class and library/ but they are not the kind of books we need// they do not meet our needs//

Sipib: What I can see is that/ the books that are there/ are out-of-date/ you will find that the books are of the/ may be 1990s/ they are the editions that are out-of-date//

However, when asked to explain the extent to which those library books were outdated and the availability of the newly produced MCR, the two students constructed discourses that constrained their work, including MCR access, library, curriculum discourses:

Sipib: We can't see textbooks/ like those 'reviews'// they are not there// ... the books that are there in the library are few// the books that are there/ are outdated books/ and others are not even there/ when you request a certain book in the library/ they will tell you “is not available”/ so there are few books there/ they are not there// and the ones that are there are not the ones that we need for the subjects we study//

Such contexts had implications for curriculum work as teachers and students constructed curricula with one or few MCR. For example, during an observed lesson with illustrations through diagrams, only one student had access to MCR contents. Others lacked access for long periods of time, probably their entire school lives. Consequently, lessons like Biology that involve drawing diagrams, explanations, and experiments remained abstract to learners, as Sipib explains:

They/ just like that/ and the main slogan is “go and find/ go and find”/ that is what they emphasize/ but to me that is not practical/ because if they come with books/ and we use it during the lesson/ we can understand all get the knowledge/ and effectively/ that saying that “go and find”/ or instead of saying that “tomorrow you read/ tomorrow you will have to go to the library”/ like a song//

School heads like Hasani believed that marketisation policy implementation has been mismanaged since the 1990s. This mismanagement, according to him, is essentially because there was too much ‘freedom’ for MCR producers in the market. He says:

In/ my own view/ the policy was not properly coordinated// Because if you provide freedom/ to a very sensitive issues like this/ everyone uses it/ and everyone writes what he or she see is good to him or her//So/ there appeared many types of books// many types of books// And at the same time/ we as school heads were also confused// which book should you buy?

The market freedom allowed motivated individuals and groups to produce and publish school MCR, which Hasani believed was a “very sensitive issue”. He believes they produced MCR irrespective of their qualifications and experience. Consequently, “many types of books” were produced that affected school heads’ and teachers’ work as compared to pre-marketisation policy. Hasani identified some major challenges of the marketisation policy, including MCR selection complexity. Complexity was caused by the politics and values of particular individuals and groups of teachers and students. That is, power relations, ideologies, and subjectivities had reshaped MCR selection. In addition, the selection was complicated by MCR differentiation. For example, biology or mathematics textbooks had different contents which did not meet curricular needs. This prompted the demand for more titles on the same subject, with implications for school budgets.

5.8 Chapter summary and conclusion

In this chapter, I described the three case study schools and participants who provided data to answer the research questions. I have shown schools' historical, political, and sociocultural contexts and challenges in which administrators, teachers, and students worked in the context of marketisation policy reforms. More specifically, school management history and departmentalisation, teachers' and student characteristics, curriculum organisation, and the state of MCR were highlighted. These contexts were important to describe because they affect the discursive impacts of marketisation and other policy reforms which are the focus of the next chapters. In the next chapter, I identify the dominant policy texts and discourses constructed by the powerful groups in the process of policy implementation and their implications in the struggle to dominate and control teachers' work over the past two decades.

CHAPTER SIX

POLITICAL STRUGGLE FOR DOMINATION OF SECONDARY SCHOOL MARKETISATION POLICY

6.1 Introduction and chapter overview

In Chapter 3, I argued that critical and poststructural theoretical approaches to education policy analysis delineate some hidden powers, ideologies, beliefs, and policy silences constructed in and through dominant policy discourses. I also argued that education policy is an area of intense political and ideological struggles with various individuals and groups competing and contradicting to achieve multiple social, political, and economic interests and objectives. These struggles reshape the policy processes and practices in many ways. In this chapter, I present findings on the first research question: *What policy texts and discourses were constructed in the process of marketisation policy interpretation in secondary schools?* In terms of Bernstein (1990), this chapter shows how the various groups and individuals involved in the marketisation policy process struggled to control pedagogic discourses. Data analysis indicates that schools' marketisation policy interpretation and translation was an area of intense political struggle between global and local MCR publishers, state policymakers, school owners, school administrators, subject teachers, and students. Each group struggled to produce and reproduce its power through marketisation and other policy texts and discourses. This means that various policy texts and discourses circulated, intersected, contradicted, and competed with other global, institutional, and societal policy discourses to influence the policy and teachers' work.

Findings for this chapter are divided into five sections. Section two identifies dominant marketisation policy texts and discourses constructed by policymakers and actors at global, institutional, and societal levels as tools and sites for discursive struggle to influence schools' marketisation policy and teachers' work since 1992. Section three presents marketisation policy contenders and explains why and how they participated in the school level policy interpretation. Section four highlights other contradictory and competing policy texts and discourses that were constructed together with marketisation policy discourses to shape and reshape schools' marketisation policy and teachers' work. More specifically, I focus on why and how these discourses were constructed at

the societal, institutional, and local levels and their implications for teachers' work. Section five summarises and concludes the chapter.

6.2 Marketisation policy texts and discourses

In this section, I identify and describe four dominant marketisation policy texts and discourses reconstructed by the powerful groups discussed later in this chapter. These discourses include (1) marketised curriculum resources (MCR); (2) financial; (3) 'educational materials' approval'; and (4) advertising. Based on Bernstein's theory, the first is an *instructional* discourse, while the last three are *regulative*. While instructional discourses contain knowledge and skills that teachers and students require to perform their work, regulative discourses influence how such knowledge and skills are transmitted by teachers and acquired by students. Below, I discuss them.

6.2.1 Marketised curriculum resource (MCR) discourses

From the data and the definition provided in Chapter 1, MCR discourses may be further classified into marketised books, marketised schemes of work, marketised lesson plans, business newspapers, and marketised teacher guides or manuals. Based on production and distribution and how participants categorised them, three MCR types may be distinguished. First, *locally produced MCR* were those produced and distributed from within Tanzania by local authors and publishers. These resources had lower prices as compared to imported ones because of less capital investment and distribution costs. The free market encouraged the local and global production and reproduction of a large number of textbooks and *cultural texts*. These texts were reproduced in the wider society, schools, and classrooms through TV programmes, textbooks, video tapes, newspapers, radio, mobile phones, teacher talk, and computers. They include music genres, such as *The Comedy Show* and *Mizengwe*, TV Movies, and Tanzanian *hip-hops* called *Bongo Flavour*. For example, Urgova and Urpisa students accessed TV programmes, video, newspapers, and radio, especially during weekends and evening after-class hours, when they watched movies, like *Bongo Flavour* songs by artists like *Diamond* and film movies by *Kanumba*. Matano adds:

You will find them buying comedy newspapers/ like "Diamond"/ and these others// just take a look/ if at all you find a student buying a newspaper/ from the street where goods are sold/ must be looking for news about

“Diamond”/“Amina”/“Kanumba” [Tanzanian singers and actors] // and they are expensive/ cannot buy something relevant//

However, while some of these texts were continuously shown in the media, others were periodic. For example, *Isidingo* and *Bongo Flavour ITV News*, began in the 1990s and were continuous to-date. However, *Mizengwe* was periodic.

The second type of MCR were *collaboratively produced MCR*, such as those produced by the TIE and its business allies after selling its manuscripts to private capitalist publishers in 2004, as described in Chapter 1. These resources had institutional support from the government because, historically, they dominated school curriculum before marketisation. Further, capitalist publishers and monetary institutions that financed marketisation policy supported these resources because some of them were involved in their production.

The third type were *imported MCR*, which were those produced and imported from other countries, mainly from developed countries and other African nations. These resources received less support from the government, school administrators/owners, and parents/students because they were costly and not accessible for some rural school contexts. These resources had higher capital investment than the former two. For example, Mtunge perceived books from Kenya to be good, cheap, and a guide for Tanzania’s teachers and the curriculum:

Books from Kenya are really good/ and they are cheap/ they are cheap as compared to those locally produced/ in the country// Another thing that make me like the imported books/ from Kenya/ from Oxford/ or Cambridge// ... most of their books had directives of what the student has to do/ and more work practically/ of course under the guidance of the teacher//

Some cultural texts produced internationally were “*Isidingo: The need*” and “*Lie to Me*” (TIE, 2011d, pp. 37-39), *Tausi Ndege Wangu* (KBC, 1999), *Sarafina* (Ngema & Nicholson, 1992), *Mjini Shule*, *Neria*, and *Keeping the Promise*. Another competing text and discourse was *BBC News*. For example, *Tausi* began in the late 1990s and ended before 2005. Therefore, each category of the MCR discourses constructed contradictory and competing ideologies and desires which reshaped decision making related to financing, selection, procurement and, hence, distribution and access.

6.2.2 Advertising discourses

Both local and international book publishers and distributors constructed marketing or advertising discourses to reshape their products' power and consumer ideologies to compete with their competitors. In most cases, advertisements were constructed together with other policy texts. For example, there were educational approval discourses, such as "The only EMAC-approved complete English course available for Tanzania" (Figure 3), and 'consistent with 2005 syllabus' through book titles. These were reproduced through advertising and by publishers, booksellers, or their agents visiting the schools. Matano explains:

And in addition to that/ there are people who pass/ who/ these booksellers most of them come in schools to bring their books/ at least you will find that they explain/ they largely come from the ministry of course/ not exactly at the ministry/ it is that linkage/ so someone will/ for example/ textbook writers like Kadeghe//

Further, advertisements were produced as textbook contents, covers, and prefaces; book catalogues and posters; news media, like on television, radio, websites, and social media, and in newspapers.. Other sources of advertisement included bookshops, heads of schools' meetings and seminars, and letters written to school authorities. In cities and towns, some MCR were advertised and sold in the streets and at bus stops for easy marketing to parents, students, teachers, and school administrators.

Within advertising, there was the discourse of *buying and selling*, constructed through the policy interpretation process and reconstructed through curriculum texts and discourses. It is important to recall, as stated in Chapter 1, that before marketisation, Tanzania was a socialist country where most educational goods and services, including school textbooks, were supplied free by the state. For example, it is surprising to see that even TIE (2010), a state public organ entrusted to design and coordinate curriculum, advertised and sold subject syllabi, teacher guides, and textbooks to schools, teachers, students, and all education stakeholders (See also Appendix 26).

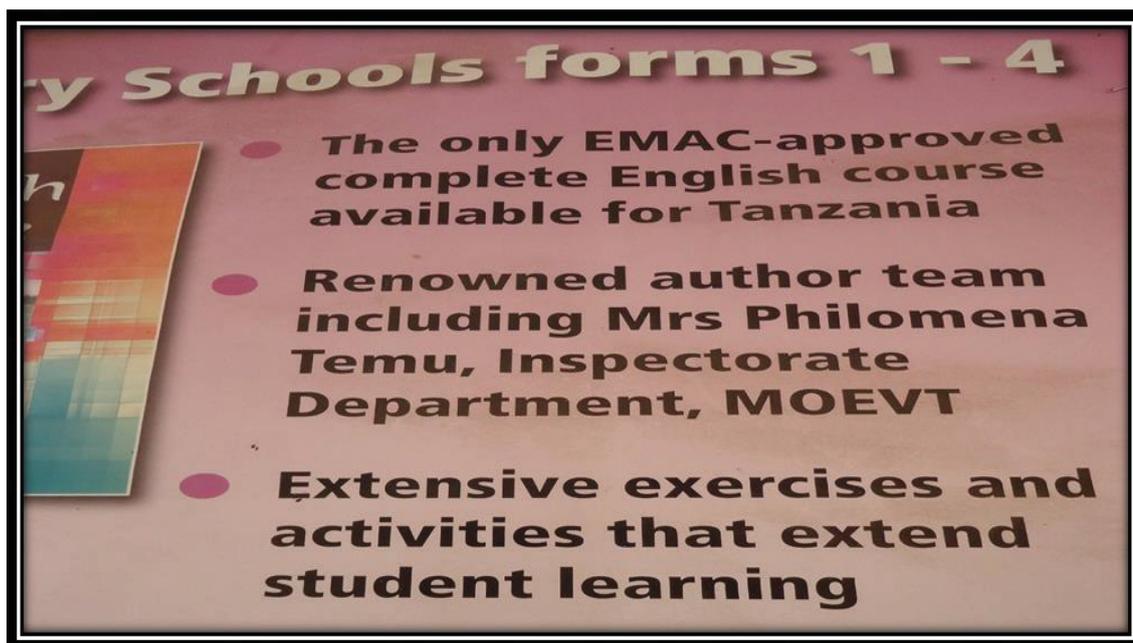


Figure 3. Advertising discourses emphasising EMAC approval, inspectorate-based authors, and exercises.

Source: Urpisa School Notice Board

Further, there was emphasis on MCR cost reduction as “an opportunity available only to those who will purchase at least 1,000 copies of each subject.” (TIE, 2010, pp. 1-2). Buying and selling were also constructed through discourses of (1) curriculum and knowledge construction; (2) the Ministry’s declaration on education improvement meetings; (3) legal discourses; (4) school administrators’ curriculum and assessment supervision; (5) examination results; and (6) the TIE sales office phone number.

6.2.3 Financial discourses

The US and World Bank, for example, dominated and controlled school marketisation policies through funding textbook in form of grants, aid, and borrowing. Financial discourses for government secondary school MCR were in two forms: *capitation grants* (CG) and *school fees*. CG were mostly bureaucratic. They originated from ‘donors’ and were injected from the central government budgets to schools through district councils’ and municipalities’ accounts. Hasani recounts:

Up to now/ we receive funds up to now/ we have recently received funds about 13 million// Eeh/ from the/ from the World-/ I don’t know if it is World Bank/ I don’t know what it is// The funds cover six subjects/ there is physics/ chemistry/ biology/ mathematics/ they have included also//

On the other hand, Urpisa relied mostly on school fees. School fees were collected by schools directly from parents and students on an annual basis. The amount collected thus depended on parents' ability and motivation to pay on time or pay by instalments. Thus, the two sources of finances are dominant discourses because they were regulated and overseen by government authorities, school administrators, and the school owners.

6.2.4 'Educational materials approval' discourses

As stated in Chapter 1, after the marketisation policy was adopted, the government formed EMAC to approve MCR. However, the approval policy was subject to misinterpretation by school policy actors. For example, school policy actors were unsure as to whether some textbooks that were imported and used in schools before marketisation needed approval or not. Through 'educational materials approval' discourse, secondary schools were required to purchase only approved MCR. Approval discourse was therefore constructed and reconstructed together with financial discourse at the national level and reproduced throughout the education system and in schools through policy texts, school management, and inspection discourses. Hasani goes on to say:

But even so/ there was also another problem// To say that/ those books should contain that EMAC emblem// That issue of books to have EMAC/ came to be known as a control/ which are the good books//

Further, these intersected with other societal and institutional discourses that 'EMAC is inefficient', 'its workers are corrupt', and 'it should be abolished'. Approval discourses were also reconstructed through EMAC certificates that appeared on the first or cover pages of books that had undergone the approval processes (Figure 4). Further, EMAC approval certifications with the EMAC logo discourses were reconstructed through the discourses of book advertisements, such as catalogues (Figures 5 and 6). Moreover, they were reconstructed through heads of school meetings, parliamentary debates, *Hakielimu* research articles, education policy texts, newspaper articles, school inspection reports, and list of approved MCR, booksellers, and examinations marking meetings.

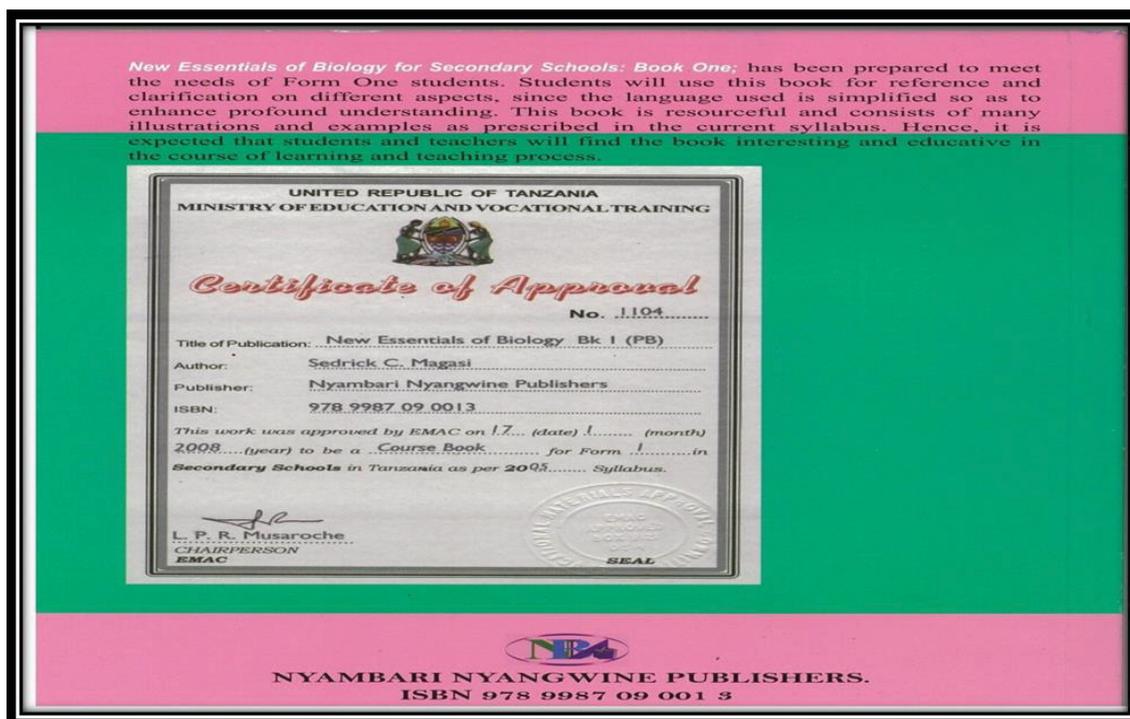


Figure 4. A Sample of marketised books approval certificate offered by EMAC. Source: Magasi (2008, p. Back Cover Page).

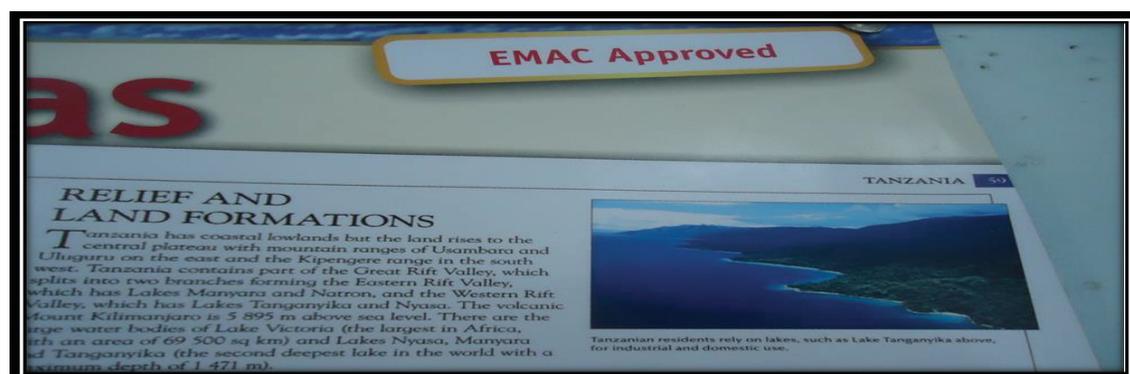


Figure 5. An advertisement emphasising EMAC approval for privately published books. Source: Urpisa School Notice Board

In the next section, I discuss who actually produced and reproduced the above dominant policy discourses, with what aim and how, and the implications for schooling and teachers' work.

6.3 Contenders in the political struggle for domination of schools' marketisation policy

Marketisation policy interpretation and translation at school level involved various social, political, and economic agents and institutions that struggled, competed, or conflicted to dominate school marketisation policy. These tensions reshaped schools'

marketisation policy and teachers' work practices in the case study schools over the past twenty years. I call these individuals and institutions as *marketisation policy contenders*, as discussed herein after.

6.3.1 Global and local capitalist institutions, states, publishers, and distributors

Between 1992 and 2012, secondary school marketisation policy decisions and processes were dominated by global and local capitalist agents, including institutions, states, book publishers, and distributors with varied motivation, interests, abilities, and origin. Below, I outline and discuss these agents. Throughout the study, participants referred to World Bank funds for textbooks, stationery, teachers' guides, syllabi, and laboratory facilities. Although these were supplied through government agencies, some participants were aware that these resources came from the World Bank, the US, and the UK. Hasani states:

We receive funds up to now/ of course we have recently received funds about 13 million// Eeh/ from the/ from the World-/ I don't know if it is World Bank/ I don't know... there is/ small part for sports facilities/ and they state 50% should be for books// The other 50% is for other teaching materials/ and for issues of sports/ sports equipment/ sports activities/ computer/ and whatever//

As the above statement shows, these funds were accompanied with competing and, sometimes contradictory, dominant discourses that facilitated and constrained spending in particular schools, subjects, and class levels as will be seen in Chapter 7.

Book publishers were also sales' agents. Data estimates (see Appendix 11) show that there were over 40 international and local private book publishers and distributors that operated in schools and in the market in Tanzania between 1992 and 2012. For example, participants and policy texts frequently constructed Oxford, Macmillan, Cambridge, Pearson Longman, Nyambari Nyangwine Publishers, and Heinemann. It is clear that these publishers produce for profit and influenced schools' policies and teachers' work. Moreover, between 1992 and 2004, the TIE also continued to produce textbooks, but in collaboration with, for example, Oxford and Macmillan. Therefore, some school textbooks continued with TIE authorship although either Oxford or Macmillan published them. In addition, in 2011, big capitalist states like the United States also supplied Mathematics, Physics, Chemistry, and Biology textbooks to Urgova. Mwanne recalls:

I can't remember/ but was an aid from the United States// We distributed them this year/ but they arrived last year/ similar season like this time I think// So/ last year in the second term/ we distributed them to Form III and collected them// ... They were brought by/ by/ by// I can't remember/ but was an aid from the United States//

Similarly, the UK financed the English Language Teaching Support Project (ELTSP) between 1986 and 1996 through the British Council that coincided with marketisation policy. They supplied English language textbooks and trained English teachers through seminars and workshops conducted mostly in teacher training colleges. Sulata notes:

There was a time when British Council was/ it had a certain project/ that project on// English Language Teaching Support Programme// that project// ... in the level of Form I and Form II// A Form I and Form II students/ The British Council provided lots of books/ that was 94 to 96/ and then there were books for class/ there was 'class reader'// there is 'class library'/ and then there is 'class reader'//

This indicates that through a marketisation policy, Tanzania's secondary schools and classrooms were arenas for competition and struggles for business profit making for international capitalists, and local publishing companies, states, individuals, and political and financial institutions.

6.3.2 Government agencies, groups, and individuals

State policymakers from EMAC, TIE, NECTA, the Inspectorate Department, Parliament, and MoEVT influenced national and schools' marketisation policy financing, selection, and distribution. Powerful people and groups from these institutions, such as the Minister for Education, school inspectors, the Commissioner for Education, curriculum developers, Members of Parliament, and regional and district executives constructed discourses that influenced the policy process. Below, I discuss some of the discursive strategies employed by the government to reshape schools' marketisation policies.

6.3.1.1 Curriculum policy discourses

Throughout this study, I use *curriculum policy discourses*, referring to written and spoken texts, constructed by government policymakers and reconstructed in schools and classrooms by students and teachers through teaching, learning, and daily routine practices. They include MoEVT policy directives; syllabi; and examination schedules, examination papers, and results. These discourses were further reconstructed through

subject clubs, teachers' logbooks, MCR, science practical guides, inspection reports, school administrative discourses, and school routines and timetables. Within the dominant discourses of curriculum policy, there were the discourses of 'syllabus coverage', curriculum change, LOI, tests, and exercises.

The *curriculum change and review* discourses, as discussed in Chapter 1, were constructed by central government policymakers and reproduced in schools. Curriculum change contradicted with MCR produced and reproduced by private sector publishers and, thus, influenced schools, teachers, and students' MCR selection, financing, procurement, and consumption decisions. This was because some curricular content changes that required new teaching and learning resources were either lacking in the market because of delays in their production or non-production. For example, publishers did not produce MCR for Agricultural Science and BAM subjects because of less demand as these subjects were optional and studied by few students. The production of these MCR was less profitable. This struggle was further aggravated by government's ineffectiveness in the production and distribution of subject syllabi to some rural schools that were less accessible. Mtunge says:

I have said/ the government/ has so many changes/ and less concerns with schools/ no even syllabus are brought//

Moreover, there was 'syllabus coverage' discourse constructed by government policymakers, school inspectors, and book publishers and reproduced by school administrators, subject teachers, and students. In addition, most local book authors referred to *syllabus coverage* when advertising their books. Syllabus coverage ideology was also reshaped through school inspection and examination discourses because, for students to sit Regional Mock or National Examinations, they must have covered the subject syllabi produced at the central level. I want to emphasise that *syllabus coverage* discourse largely represented policymakers, teachers, and students' syllabus view of curriculum ideologies, rather than enhancing students and teachers to focus on curriculum objectives, knowledge, and competency construction.

The *language of instruction (LOI)* discourse was also important in curriculum policy and textbook selection and use. LOI refer to official languages used to provide instruction in Tanzania's primary and secondary schools. As explained in Chapter 1, Kiswahili is the LOI for primary schools, except for a few English medium primary schools, and English is for secondary schools.

On the other hand, the *Alternative to Practical* discourse was reconstructed in science subjects' curricula by policy texts introduced in 1992. This constructed the '*lack of practice*' in the curriculum and intersected with '*Mathematics is difficult*' and '*Science is difficult*' discourses to shape schools' marketisation policy and local textbook publishing. In government secondary schools, these discourses were further reshaped by shortages of laboratories, laboratory equipment, and chemicals, and science and mathematics teachers. For the English curriculum, the discourse of lack of practices relates to lack of 'debates', and reading and writing cultures in English and other curricula. The lack of debates and emphasis on English speaking, reading, and writing among teachers and students in schools and classrooms constrained their participation in the classroom curriculum process, which worked to disempower them.

As discussed above, the curriculum also reproduced *the discourse of competition* through MCR, examinations, and classroom curriculum practices. However, the *corporal punishment*, a historical discourse with its colonial origin, continued as legal throughout secondary schooling as a belief that it would help to change students' behaviours. Thus, while corporal punishment empowered teachers, it disempowered students by constructing ideologies of 'fear' that constrained their participation in curriculum work. However, over the past two decades, corporal punishment discourse was highly contested throughout the education system and the wider society, including the state organs like parliament, with some supporting and others against it. Its supporters argued that students would be lazy and misbehave in curriculum work, and those who opposed it argued it was brutal and inhuman. These concerns led to its reform in 1978 and 2002 by government legal texts that empowered the Minister "to prescribe the conditions of expulsion or exclusion from schools of pupils on the grounds of age, discipline or health and to provide for and control the administration of corporal punishment in schools" (URT, 1978, p. 30; 2002, p. 31). Further, as legal interpretation, on 27 November, 2002, MOEC issued *Circular Number 24* (URT, 2002d) that specified the conditions that school heads should follow when administering corporal punishment. Thus, some teachers resisted such state laws by punishing students who did not read, perform exercises, came late to school, or absconded. This further constructed teachers' power and domination through coercion.

Moreover, there was *class size* discourse, referring to the number of students studying in a classroom in the three schools which reshaped schools' marketisation policy and teachers' work in terms of financing, selection, distribution, and access to

MCR. Thus, government schools' large class sizes demanded more funding and constrained equal MCR distribution, access, as well as teacher and student interaction in the curriculum construction. Class size also reshaped utilisation of other resources, like subject teachers, textbooks, desks, and the physical infrastructures. For example, Rugosa and Urgova's large class sizes mismatched with the increase in facilities and resources.

Finally, *curriculum evaluation policy* discourses refers to those constructed through examinations, tests, and regular classroom and home exercises reconstructed in the education system, schools, classrooms, and wider society in three main forms. First, as discussed in Chapter 1, examination policy discourses were legalised by the 1973 NECTA Act (URT, 1973) and all Education Acts' (URT, 1978, 1995a, 2002a) legal discourses. Second, state policymakers reconstructed examinations texts, especially national Form II, IV, and VI (URT, 2010e, 2011a). For example, "Form Two National Examinations introduced in 1984" (URT, 2011d, p. 45) were sometimes accompanied with financial contribution from students (URT, 2012c), earlier eliminated in 2008, but reintroduced in 2011 (URT, 2011d, p. 45). According to URT (2011d), through policy texts, the government set a pass mark from time to time and, in 2011, "the pass mark was 30%" (p. 46) for students to continue to Form III. For example, in 2011, examination policy emphasised that "a student who fails to get this mark, will be required to repeat Form II only once" (p. 46) and may be "eliminated from the formal education system." (p. 46). Third, examination discourses were reproduced through textbooks, examination papers and results, national awards, business newspapers, subject syllabi, teachers' guides, and national level NECTA examination performance reports. Fourth, "midterm, terminal, monthly" (URT, 2011c, p. 22) tests and annual examinations were constructed at national level and reconstructed in schools and classrooms. These discourses emphasised examinations more than other curriculum evaluation discourses, like tests, regular classroom exercises, and homework. Therefore, they reproduced examinations' hegemonic power and ideologies that reshaped schools, teachers, and students' MCR selection, financing, and distribution of MCR and practices.

6.3.1.2 School inspection policy discourses

By *school inspection* discourses, I refer to school inspection reports and meetings constructed by school inspectors who were, by the Education Act (URT, 1978, sections

41- 44), the 1995 Education (Amendment) Act No.10 (URT, 1995a, sections 31-32), and the Revised Education Act 2002 (URT, 2002a, sections 41-44), responsible for inspecting all private and government schools every year. These legal discourses were further reproduced through the *School Inspectors' Handbook* (URT, 2009b) that empowered inspectors to observe, assess, and grade school administrators' and teachers' work performance, resource availability, students' work in the classroom, and academic results (URT, 2009b). Other issues include ICT, student pregnancies, drug abuse, language use, school relations with community, and learning resources (URT, 2009b). Inspection would be a 'whole school' assessment of all aspects of school performance. There could also be a 'follow-up inspection', when the school's weaknesses reported in the whole school inspection were reassessed. A school could further be inspected through a 'special inspection' related to a new school for registration, poor academic performance, or disciplinary matters such as student riots, and teachers' breach of codes of conduct. Finally, inspectors could make a 'school visit' to see the school's daily activities and provide any needed advice. Inspection reports were discussed in the respective schools and sent to district, regional, and central ministry authorities for action on the weaknesses and strengths observed. However, the school inspectorate was always faced with challenges related to financing and staffing, leading to less frequent school inspections being conducted. Thus, for example, over the past ten years, at least two school inspections were conducted in the case study schools and their reports were availed to schools, departmental heads, and subject teachers.

6.3.1.3 Legal discourses

The discussions above have cited a number of laws that influenced schools' marketisation policy decisions on a regular and irregular basis. In addition to the government's legal discourses discussed above, various other laws guided marketisation policy decision making and teachers' work at national, school, and classroom levels. These were the *Education Act 1978* (URT, 1978), the *Education Amendment Act 1995* (URT, 1995a), and the *Subsidiary Legislation to the Education Act, [Cap. 353, R. E 2002]* (URT, 2002a). Others were the *Public Finance Act 2001* (URT, 2001c) and *The Public Procurement Act* (URT, 2001d, 2004i, 2011b).

These laws empowered education ministers and school heads, rather than teachers, in decisions related to financing; schools' physical infrastructures; examinations; teacher certification, posting, licencing, and registration; and students'

enrolment, registration, attendance, and disciplines. Other practices included school inspections as discussed above; school management and administration; and school curriculum and instructional practices and resourcing. Thus schools' MCR financing, selection, procurement, and use were subjected to four main legal discourses.

For example, the above Education Acts empowered the Minister for Education to exercise powers on the kinds of MCR used in schools. These Acts state: "The Minister may, by order in writing, prohibit the use in any school of any book or material for any reason which he/[she] may think fit." (URT, 1978, p. 28; 2002a, p. 28). Further, they empowered the Minister, rather than schools and teachers, to control finance, curriculum, and examinations. Such powers contradicted with marketisation policy discourses that decentralised decision-making powers to schools and parents so they would get MCR from the market. For example, in relation to curriculum and marketised textbooks, the Acts state:

The Minister may make regulations ... (URT, 1978, p. 29; 2002, p. 30) ... to provide for the control of instruction limitation upon the subjects taught and the documents which may be upon school premises or which may be used in schools, and the preparation and content of syllabi to be used in schools; (URT, 1978; p. 30; 2002, p. 30).

In relation to the control of examinations, the Minister, rather than teachers, was empowered "to provide for the examination of pupils in schools" (URT, 1978; p. 30; 2002, p. 30). Further, in relation to school fees, the Minister had the power "to prescribe, after consultation with the proper officer, the minimum fees payable in any public school, the manner of payment and the recovery of those fees" (URT, 1978; p. 30; 2002, p. 31). Such legal discourses thus constrained schools' policy decisions on MCR selection, financing, access, and use.

Moreover, schools' marketisation policy was influenced by the legislature. For example, in their sessions and debates, some Members of Parliament constructed dominant discourses that locally produced MCR were 'substandard', 'low quality', 'unapproved', and 'less useful' for teachers' work. Hosca elaborates:

Even the parliament has complained about EMAC// That it has admitted poor quality textbooks used in schools// there is a problem with the whole system of marketisation// ... In fact they are not books/ they are handouts or pamphlets/ but they motivate/ encourage students to buy them//

Further, the government influenced policy budgets for its schools by determining the amount, timing, and allocation of those budgets. Subi explains:

We hear in the parliament/ how they debate about that// and everything/ and also/ the budget can be small/ the way they distribute/ those funds in percentage/ it does not reach where it is supposed to go// the top people will smash/ and reduce they know themselves where they take it// until it reaches here at school/ it is very small//

Furthermore, the government also influenced the teacher training curriculum, programme durations, selection, postings, and licencing teachers to teach in various secondary schools without formal and profession training. It also provided few on-the-job training workshops for teachers that reconstructed their knowledge and pedagogy. For example, at Urgova, a Biology teacher, Kwasu, attended training workshops in Morogoro in 2011 and obtained some knowledge and resources like computer facilities to improve his work.

6.3.3 Professional associations and other organisations

Some professional associations, like the *Mathematical Association of Tanzania* (MAT), *Maasai Women Development Organization* (MWEDO), and *Equal Opportunities for all Trust Fund* (EOTF), influenced schools' marketisation policy and teachers' work by supplying or selling various kinds of textbooks and services for specific subjects. Sometimes they achieved this through advertising and competition discourses. For example, the MAT conducted Mathematics training seminars and workshops, and essay writing and research competitions that influenced school policy decisions, but also empowered urban schoolteachers' and students' access to resources and knowledge. For example, in a letter (Figure 6) dated 7 April, 2004, the MAT National Secretary (Mshimba, 2004, p. 21) influenced schools to participate in a Mathematics research competition, but also advertised 13 Mathematics textbooks through the same. Similarly, Urgova received history textbooks from MWEDO and Rugosa received civics textbooks from EOTF. According to their websites, MWEDO and EOTF are 'non-profit' and 'non-governmental' organisations funded mostly by the so-called 'donors' and the government with particular capitalist interests constructed through free textbooks.

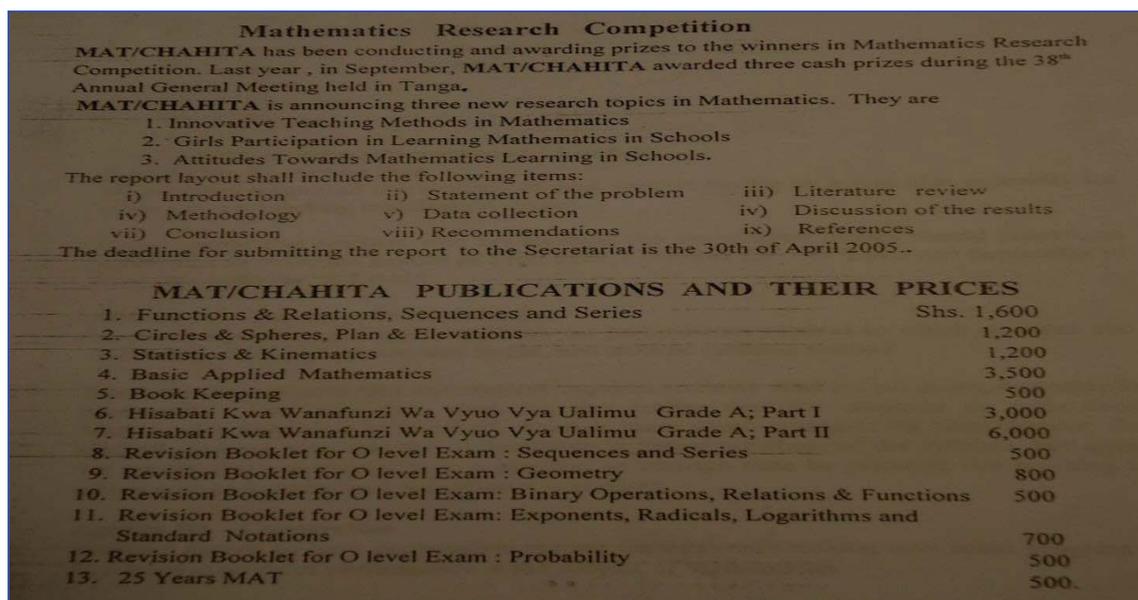


Figure 6. MAT's letter on research competition and textbook advertising for schools. Source: Urgova Departmental file, collected July, 2012.

6.3.4 School management and administrative officials

At school level, the School Boards, private school owners, school heads, academic officers, school management committees, HODs, school bursars/accountants, librarians, and school supplies officers/storekeepers were influential and had differential powers because of varied educational knowledge and qualifications, leadership experience, beliefs, income, gender, age, and ethnic origin. For example, all the school heads and many departmental heads were males. Further, at Urpisa, experienced elderly female and male teachers were favoured for departmental headship and, thus, in decision making. On the other hand, the School Board members lacked training in educational administration knowledge. These variations influenced policy text interpretation in schools because each group and individuals constructed dominant discourses to favour their own interests and objectives based on power and ideologies. Maneno elaborates:

You know "heads of schools are like politicians"// They combine academic issues with politics// The head of school will come and say/ "Eee you know/ we had a meeting/ and we were told to list all the teaching materials we need/ and I have received a guideline/ that states that I will be given about 55 million shillings/ and will have to purchase books"//

Further, some departmental heads influenced MCR selection and kinds available for teachers and students. Similarly, at Rugosa, the storekeeper and accountant collaborated

with the school head and influenced school policy decisions because of their position as purchasing and financial officers. Hasani further states:

After that we tell the storekeeper/ "find quotations for such and such books/ and bring to us"/ After the storekeeper brings/ we look on/ as we have already identified that we are purchasing such and such books/ from the/ may be for 'Civics Book One'/ ... After the orders are made/ there is procurement committee/ school procurement committee/ procurement and finance committee// When they are delivered that committee is responsible for receipt and inspection if they are the same ones we ordered//

Again, at Urpisa, there were struggles between departmental heads and the school heads/owner-manager to obtain resources.

In the process of marketisation policy interpretation at school level, school management and administration used both formal and informal political, historical, and social structures of power, social organisation, cultures, and ideologies. Some of these structures were Education Acts (URT, 1978; 1995a; URT, 2002a) that delineated the reporting and accountability relationships and roles of each school management structure led by School Boards, school heads, assistant school heads, departmental heads, subject teachers, and students. Marketisation policy texts and discourses reproduced these power relationships (URT, 2004f, 2004g, 2004j) through policy decision making. Two main management discourses related were *meetings* and *library and 'book safety'*, which I discuss below.

6.3.4.1 School and departmental meeting discourses

School and departmental *meetings* were the major arenas where school marketisation policy interpretation was made under the influence of school cultures, social organisation, and state laws and regulations. The forms, membership, and frequency of occurrences of these meetings differed with school management cultures, school ownership contexts, and history. However, they generally included the School Board, School Management Committee, academic departments, school procurement and finance committee, academic committee, discipline committee, and subject department meetings. Hasani goes on to say:

So we meet for the school management/ ... the head of school convenes a school management meeting// ... in the meeting we ask ourselves/ how much do we have for these?/ and if we have such amount/ for which department do we purchase the books?/

From the school management and departmental meetings, the following discourses were constructed by school policy actors to inform parents/students' schooling requirements and academic progress. They were 'joining instructions', 'parental report forms', and 'meeting with parents'. Thus, *joining instructions* included written texts that informed parents about new students' schooling requirements and were usually sent to parents at the beginning of a school year. Some of these requirements were financial contributions, fees, and MCR lists, as Hasani explains:

Let me take my experience/ we have listed in the joining instructions/ for advanced/ that "here are the books that are used in the school"/ the parent is requested if is able to contribute-/to purchase for the student// that/ that is the first/ That/ you include in the joining instructions/ a parent who is able/ makes a purchase for the student//

Similarly, *parental report forms* discourses were constructed for continuing students at the end of school terms. They indicated a student's academic progress, class ranking, discipline, living needs, and basic curricular needs for the next school term. The forms differed in general format from school to school, but the contents were similar (Appendix 15). For example, Rugosa's headmaster explained that parents were informed about their contribution, but their participation was less. Similarly, as Matano explains, Urpisa school policy actors directed parents/students to make financial contributions for the school marketisation policy by providing a 'certain amount of money'. The School Board suggested that it would 'provide a half of the cost and the student the remaining half'. Matano continues:

We have to inform the Board/ about the problem of books/ here in school/ they usually suggest that/ at the end of every term/ when students are leaving for holiday/ that we need to write in their parental report forms/ the last few lines should be written "the student is required to report to the school with certain amount of money"/for example/ each student need to have English textbook//

Moreover, Urgova conducted less frequent *meetings with parents*, and these only took place at any time the school management found it feasible, usually at the end of a school term. These involved parents of day students, who were the majority. These meetings encouraged parents 'with good relations with organisations' who supported the school for MCR. However, the ineffectiveness of these policy discourses depended on their intersection with parents' discourses regarding economic positions, ideologies, readiness, and awareness.

6.3.4.2 School library and ‘book safety’ discourses

School library and ‘book safety’ discourses are about storage and access to MCR constructed by school administrators and school owners. Data shows that Urgova and Rugosa had no school libraries, and the few books that were purchased were stored in shared bookshelves in HOD offices for ‘book safety’. On the other hand, Urpisa had a small library with inadequate space and strict and constraining rules for the same discourse of book safety.

6.3.5 Subject teachers

As discussed in Chapter 5, in each of the three schools, teachers varied in age, experience, gender, educational levels, income, and involvement in private tuitions. Thus, each teacher category struggled to exercise control on marketisation policy decisions by suggesting, resisting, or negotiating MCR finance, selection, procurement, distribution, and use. However, while at Urgova, some teachers were more empowered in decision making than storekeepers, while at Rugosa, they were not. Hasani states:

Our common practice/ that we use even up to now/ book request originates from each subject teacher of respective classes//...The teacher send it to the department/ for departments/ we have those/ session coordinators in our school// all those session coordinators are members of school management//

This means that teachers’ knowledge and professionalism was considered in the MCR selection. However, there was a contradiction because experienced teachers favoured some imported MCR, while some beginning teachers favoured the locally produced MCR. However, such contradiction and struggle for power was further intensified because experienced male teachers headed subject departments, which reconstructed their power over beginning teachers. This disempowered the latter in MCR selection decisions and access. Teachers then constructed the following discourses.

6.3.5.1 Private tuition discourses

In the struggle for interpreting marketisation policy, secondary teachers constructed two kinds of discourses, namely: ‘private tuition’, and ‘on-the-job professional training’. Private tuition refers to teaching and learning conducted by some teachers and students out of the formal classroom curriculum. Tuition emerged in Tanzanian secondary

schools as a new phenomenon, simultaneous with the policies of privatisation and marketisation, during the 1990s. Tuition became very popular when some subject teachers established their centres, mostly within primary and secondary school classroom premises, and some in designated buildings in towns. Tuition was mostly conducted during short and long school holidays and after school hours because most of these teachers were regular government or private school employees. Tuition attracted some students, especially in urban schools, where they were very popular because they believed that teachers who conducted them were ‘competent teachers’ as opposed to those who did not. Such teachers therefore purchased their own MCR rather than depending on schools and government sources, and this constructed their power/knowledge and popularity for employing mostly exposition as a dominant discourse. Maneno says:

I have my own books which I purchased personally// I have a book for Form I/ Form II/ III and IV// my own copies/ I purchased myself// You see!!! even those marketised books/ like those by Nyambari Nyangwine/ I have purchased// ... they helped me to teach the topic on ‘accounts’ during my private tuition classes//

By purchasing their own textbooks, such teachers taught some curricula contents that was lacking in prescribed books. Tuition was also an alternative income source for teachers to supplement their regular salaries.

6.3.5.2 In-service teacher education and on-the-job professional development

The other important discourses constructed by teachers was in-service teacher education and on-the-job professional development. Both of these were written and spoken texts that constructed knowledge of teaching and learning theories, pedagogies, principles, and subject matter contents constructed through teacher training and on-the-job training. However, some training was specific to particular subjects, like English, Mathematics, and Science, and was financed by the state, Japan International Cooperation, British Council, and religious institutions like the Evangelical Lutheran Church of Tanzania Northern Diocese.

In-service teacher education discourses constructed various curricula content, participatory and less participatory teaching pedagogies and evaluation discourses. Teacher training curricula discourses, for example, reproduced the importance of different MCR types discussed above. Moreover, teacher education curricula and

pedagogy were reconstructed through school inspection, exercises, tests, and examination discourses.

Further, based on their educational backgrounds, interaction with colleagues, the community, and students, teachers were categorised through the discourses of, as Maneno argues, ‘qualified teachers’, ‘competent teachers’, ‘licenced teachers’, ‘dotcom generation teachers’, ‘vodafaster teachers’, and ‘crash programme teachers’ which were constructed and circulated through the government policy discourses, the education system, schools, and the wider society. As will be discussed later, such discourses constrained and facilitated teachers’ work in particular ways, including work and social relations. However, “for a long period teachers’ on-the-job training were provided for certain areas and teacher groups, and they were unsustainable” (URT, 2009c, p. 1). They were unsustainable because of several challenges, including ministerial politics that led to transfer of secondary school administration under Local Government Authorities in 2008 (URT, 2009c, p. 1).

6.3.5.3 The difficulty discourses

In their struggle, teachers also construct the *difficulty discourses*; by these, I refer to those statements that represented participants’ and societal beliefs, perceptions, and ideologies about some curriculum subjects and contents that were perceived as more ‘*difficult*’ than others. Therefore, there were ‘Mathematics is difficult’, ‘difficult topics’, ‘Science is difficult’, and ‘work is difficult without books’ constructed in schools by school participants and by other education stakeholders through subject workshops and seminars. For example, in a Science teachers’ meeting held in February, 2006, it was reported that Chemistry “teachers in their subject groups named the difficult topics in teaching and the coordinator of the programme promised to get facilitators who will treat those topics in the subject panel” (Chemistry Subject Panel, 2006, p. 2).

These discourses were historical and were constructed and reconstructed in the families, society, schools, and the general education system for a considerable period. They then reproduced ideologies and power relations that positioned students, and especially girls, to dislike Mathematics and Science subjects as compared to other secondary school curriculum subjects. This was shared in a Chemistry Subject Panel (2006) meeting:

The meeting urged the teachers to good models when they teach Science subjects as a means to make students like Science subjects. The teachers were also asked to encourage students to like the subjects and stop the habit of some parents who discourage their kids to take Science subjects. (p. 2).

6.3.5.4 Teacher remuneration policy discourses

Remuneration policy discourses relate to the economic factors that reshaped teachers' lives and work. Among others, they include salaries, 'examination coordination', or marking allowances, salary arrears, work station transfer costs, and leave allowances. For public schools, the state and its agents constructed such discourses, while the school owners did this for private schools. At times, some teachers shifted from government to private schools for better pay. Between 2000 and 2012, the *Tanzania Teachers Union* organised teacher riots because of inadequate salaries compared to living costs. As Matano explains, the government politics of delays, lack of 'knowledge of what is happening in schools', corruption, delays in teacher promotion, and less response to teachers' economic demands in the discourse of small budgets have demotivated teachers and intersected with marketisation policy discourses to reshape pedagogic practices. Time has been wasted as teachers demonstrated to demand their rights. Such discourses and ideologies therefore positioned science and mathematics teachers as powerful, and disempowered students to learn Mathematics and sciences as they lost interest in those subjects.

6.3.6 Parents and the community

Data indicates that parents and community struggles in school policy were influenced by their differences in income, age, gender, educational background, beliefs, motivation, awareness, education level, family politics, and their ideology on their role in the policy. These variables influenced their contribution to schools' marketisation politics. For example, some parents in rural and urban areas had low incomes that constrained their ability and motivation to finance schoolbooks or contribute to school fees. Participants identified that in the three schools, very few students had parents who were able to buy books and send their children for private tuition. Maneno elaborates:

But in that case students from low/ income families are really affected// If you tell some parents to purchase books/ they are really surprised// They say "why should I buy books while the students are in a boarding school?"/ the parent

won't accept/ so this is what affects them// some students understand the role of textbooks/ but parents don't turn up/ because of poverty/ or may be lack of awareness/ or/ I don't know//

Moreover, some families with a single parent, such as the mother, had limited financial resources that were also reshaped by ownership of economic resources. In addition, some families had decision-making power concentrated on the male parents, a situation that constrained mothers in making financial decisions. These dominant discourses limited some parental responses to schools' marketisation policy interpretation.

6.3.7 Secondary school students

As discussed above, although students were the major stakeholders in education policy and the curriculum, their MCR financing, selection, procurement, and use were reshaped by parents' economic position and readiness to finance textbooks. Further, their size of schools, educational abilities, backgrounds, desires, and perceptions on textbooks also influenced schools' marketisation policy. As learners, students aimed to access knowledge and MCR for passing tests and examinations. Therefore, they influenced school administrators' MCR selections, financing, and access through constructing discourses, such as textbooks should be: 'consistent with old syllabi'; 'easy to read', 'contain questions and answers', 'shallow books', and 'go with the syllabus'. For example, Urgova textbook selections were influenced by students' discourses of 'easy to read' textbooks to pass examinations. Hasani explains:

When a student reads a certain book that he or she finds it easy to read/ he or she considers it/ as/ as beneficial or more understandable than others// And his or she will tell you "please teacher/ buy a book of this kind for us"// But at the same time/ when another student reads another book/ wants it to be purchased// So/ there were plenty of books/ so that we could not determine which book to buy//

Thus, even when students received funds from parents, their individual desires, motivations, and beliefs over MCR were reshaped by market discourses and examinations. However, such discourses contradicted those of some school administrators and teachers. For example, some experienced teachers from Urgova did not prefer locally produced MCR selected by students because they perceived them as 'emphasising memorisation'. Therefore, there were struggles that reshaped power relations between some students and teachers because teachers perceived those students as lazy and simply wanted to memorise textbook contents for examinations. The above

discussion indicates that marketisation policy interpretation was highly political because all the groups of people struggled to dominate and influence school policies from global, societal, or local levels.

6.4 Chapter summary and conclusion

In this chapter, I identified several marketisation policy contenders and policy discourses they constructed in the struggle to control secondary schools' marketisation policy and teachers' work. Both the *instructional* and *regulative* discourses that influenced schools' marketisation policy and teachers' work were identified. The discussion indicated that those discourses served multiple, competing, and conflicting interests, objectives, and strategies of the powerful groups. This competition and contestation rendered the case study schools' policies and curricula a battleground for various local, national, and global players. In Chapter 7, I discuss how these instructional and regulative policy discourses constructed multiple and contradictory subject positions and subjectivity in teachers' and students' access to MCR which, in turn, influenced how teachers constructed the curriculum, pedagogy, and evaluation.

CHAPTER SEVEN

RESHAPING SECONDARY SCHOOL TEACHERS' PEDAGOGICAL CODES AND PROFESSIONAL IDENTITY

7.1 Introduction and chapter overview

In Chapter 6, I identified the multiple marketisation policy contenders and dominant discourses they historically and socially constructed in the struggle for domination and control of secondary schools' policy interpretation over the past two decades. In this chapter, I begin to discuss the discursive contradictions and tensions constructed by such struggles and the multiple subject positions and pedagogical codes constructed for secondary teachers, which reshaped their pedagogical codes. I return to the second research question: *How do marketisation policy texts and discourses reshape secondary school teachers' subject positions and pedagogical codes?*

I responded to this question using poststructuralism and Bernstein's theory of pedagogic discourse. I analysed data through the concepts of *subject positioning* facilitated through the discursive strategies employed by policy participants and subjects. In terms of Bernstein's framework, the focus is on how classification and framing exercised in the *fields of educational knowledge production and recontextualisation*, as discussed in Chapter 6, reshaped teachers' pedagogical codes: power, knowledge, ideology, beliefs, desires, attitudes, and perceptions which, in turn, defined teachers' professional identity.

I divide this chapter into five sections. The first is an introduction. The second presents how marketisation policy discourses positioned teachers in school curriculum planning, decision making, and access to subject matter knowledge. Teachers' position in curriculum content, goals, and objectives selection and, thus, power/knowledge and professional identity will be highlighted. The influence of powerful groups' curriculum planning and decision making through the discourses of finance, MCR, textbook approval, and advertising will be discussed. The third section focuses on how teachers' classroom pedagogy selection and organisation were reshaped by the dominant groups through marketisation policy discourses. The fourth section concentrates on how marketisation policy reshaped teachers' curriculum evaluation planning and decision-making, and the fifth presents a chapter summary and conclusion.

7.2 Reshaping curriculum/official knowledge planning and decision making

In this section, I discuss how marketisation policy texts and discourses were employed by the dominant groups discussed in Chapter 6 in the struggle to reshape teachers' and students' curriculum planning and decision making through access to finance, MCR, policy information, and decision making. This reshaping had implications for teachers' pedagogical codes and identity because the subject positions constructed for them constrained their freedom and autonomy to access MCR that some teachers and students believed were suitable for curriculum planning and decision making. However, as findings indicate, this access to resources has varied over time and place since policy adoption in 1992. I begin with teachers' access to resources, like finance and MCR, and schools' policy decision making.

7.2.1 Reshaping access to resources and schools' policy decision making

Findings indicate that the capitalist agents, state policymakers, school policy actors, and parents struggled to influence teachers' and students' access to resources and power/knowledge through marketisation policy and other discourses. However, it is important to note that financial resources were the main powerful tool influencing access to resources and power/knowledge. I will compare the discursive strategies and subject positions constructed and occupied by teachers within and across the three schools and subjects.

7.2.1.1 The influence of capitalist agents and state policymakers

Between 1992 and 2012, the World Bank, developed capitalist states, international and local publishers, and government policymakers influenced teachers' and students' access to financial and MCR resources and schools' marketisation policy decisions. There were struggles among the World Bank, US and UK governments, school inspectors, teacher education institutions, examination authorities, local publishers, and professional associations to influence the three schools' textbook financing by determining the amount, availability, distribution, timing, and accountability. Sometimes, these influences were made at national, education system, local government, and then school levels. At the school level, overall school policy decision-making discourses empowered School Boards, school heads, and school management

committees. Although there was variation within and across schools and departments, teachers were largely excluded from all school policy decisions as if they were unimportant in these processes at national and school policy decision making. This exclusion disempowered teachers with less access to marketised textbooks, lesson plans, teaching aids, schemes of work, and teacher guides which, in turn, influenced their power/knowledge, curriculum content selection, and planning. For example, between 1992 and 2004, 113 schools depended on school fees. Teachers were further disempowered in access to resources because fee collections, allocations, and spending for public schools were dictated and influenced at central state level. For example, one of the policy texts states:

Please refer to Ministry's circular Ref: No.EDS.C4/I/23 of 29/10/1996, regarding the above issue. I wish to inform you that the school fees distribution and spending in boarding schools is as indicated in the attached Table (Appendix 12). Either, you are reminded that school contributions for inspection and sports and games costs from school fees are compulsory. A school head who fails to submit these contributions on time will be required to provide explanations (URT, 1999d, p. 1).

This means that in most cases, schools' policy actors and teachers received decisions made elsewhere and were required to implement them without questioning. At times, they were intimidated for failing to collect and send funds 'for inspection and sports and games' that were the major state policymakers' emphasis. This policy emphasis contradicted with the marketisation policy intention of decision-making decentralisation at school level. Thus, schools' policy actors and teachers lacked freedom and autonomy to decide how and how much school fees to spend on MCR they required, depending on their local needs and contexts. The use of the 'compulsory' discourse also implied that MCR, which are fundamental in teachers' work, were less important than 'inspection and sports and games'. The emphasis on 'inspection and sports and games costs' instead of 'school materials' also meant high competition for financial resources.

Further, between 1992 and 2004, through the same texts, the central government influenced public schools' fee spending patterns for 'school materials' as they set only 13% of fees for "boarding schools/college and 53% for day schools/college (Appendix 12). The 13% was very little to make MCR accessible to all teachers and students for boarding schools like Urgova and Rugosa.

Moreover, this policymaker presupposed that all schools collected adequate funds without consideration of school contexts and parents' abilities to contribute. For

example, school inspection discourses indicated that up to the inspection time in 2008, Rugosa collected “Tsh. 21,245,000/= (43%) against expected Tsh 48,880,000/=” (Bwindiki, 2008, p. 2). The report encouraged the school head “to sensitize parents to pay school fees on time.” (p. 2). That means Rugosa collected less than half of the expected fee amount, probably because parents lacked awareness of the potential usefulness of school fees. As discussed later, the parental contribution to marketisation policy was constrained by their low income, family priorities, power politics, and ideology that MCR finance is the school’s role.

In addition, the policymaker also presupposed that all schools fall into the same category of ‘day or boarding’, and backgrounded that there were schools, such as Urgova, with both day and boarding students, that did not fit in the suggested financial distribution framework. Similarly, generalising ‘school materials’ presupposed that school policy actors knew and distributed funds between those ‘materials’. The fact that school materials included laboratory materials, textbooks, reference books, chalk, teaching aids, and stationery was ignored. This backgrounding meant school administrators faced the dilemma of how to distribute the little school fees collected.

Teachers’ limited access to resources and power/knowledge was also constructed through the intersection and misinterpretation of several policy texts at Local Government Authorities (LGA). Such misinterpretation may also have been associated with corruption and misuse of school MCR funds. For example, usually the central government supplied what was called *Other Charges* (OC) lump sum funds to LGA. OC contains CG to finance school expenditure, including textbooks. However, as the following extract shows, there were struggles for such funds which rendered schools with less or no CG for MCR, as in 2002.

It has been discovered that some educational leaders at the Regional, District, Ward and school, are unaware that the “OC” [Other Charges] for Education in the District, Cities and Municipal Council’s budget are part of the “Capitation Grant”. Consequently, such leaders have received a large part of the “OC” in the periods of October-December and January in the 2001/2002 financial year, and therefore left a small fraction of those funds, contrary to the understanding of many that most of those funds have not yet been received (URT, 2002b, p. 1).

Thus, although central government funded schools, such funds were problematic as they were purposely misallocated or misused at LGA. This means that schools lacked adequate financial resources to implement their policies.

However, as stated in Chapter 1, this is not the only problem with CG because such funds were from conditional and unreliable “Government budget, loans, and grants from Development Partners and contribution from communities” (URT, 2004d, p. viii). For example, the World Bank and capitalist states supplied conditional funds that were an effective and powerful strategy to influence and manipulate school policy objectives and outcomes through the following discourses. The first discourses of six ‘priority subject areas’ were constructed through SEDP policy texts from 2004 at the national level and reproduced in educational systems and schools:

Of the annual grant amount, the equivalent of Tsh 6,500 per student shall be used for the purchase of textbooks in the priority areas of mathematics, Biology, Chemistry, Physics, English, and Kiswahili. Heads of schools are directed to use the Tsh 6500 amount of the Capitation Grant to purchase textbooks in the above priority subject areas until the school’s total textbook requirement is met in those areas. By total textbook requirement is meant 1 textbook per student for each of the 6 priority subject areas. (URT, 2004f, p. 4).

School administrators and teachers could not question what ‘priority subjects’ meant and to whom were these priorities. Clearly, such subjects were priority to the capitalist economy that sold textbooks produced in large quantities and required markets. Such discourses constructed inequality in access to MCR, power/knowledge, and content selection because, as discussed in Chapter 1, Tanzania’s secondary school curriculum consists of over 13 subjects. Thus, 10 subjects, including Civics, History, Geography, French, Agricultural Science, and Commerce, were excluded in this financing priority, and teachers teaching these subjects were disempowered. Other subjects excluded were Bookkeeping, Economics, Home Economics, Arabic, Bible Knowledge, Fine Art, Textiles, BAM, and Additional Mathematics. The exclusion of these subjects that were also important for society, like Agricultural Science and technology-related subjects like Food and Nutrition and technical subjects, may be considered as a capitalist and state political strategy to disempower society to maintain their hegemony, dependence, and market for capitalist goods and services.

The second discourse was that of the ‘Tsh 6,500’ (25,000 per year) per student that contradicted the actual monetary amount received quarterly by schools and the budgeted amount, as stated by Hasani

Because even now they said that they will bring shillings 25,000/= for every student/ I don't know/ but the money brought is much less//.... So/ the government has never been able to fulfil most of its goals// Even these capitation grants/ they go on saying that they will subsidize to some extent/ but they cannot subsidize//

The third, as noted above, of the discourses of 'total textbook requirements' and 'one textbook per student for each of the six priority subject areas' contradicted with amounts availed to schools and marketised textbook prices. It is unlikely that 'Tsh 6,500 per student' could purchase six textbooks, at least one textbook for the so-called 'six priority subjects'. Consequently, using their ideologies, some school administrators constructed the discourses of 'cheap textbooks' and the 'summarisation' as MCR selection and financing criteria, which were also constructed by some students and teachers. Hasani elaborates:

After the storekeeper brings/ we look on/ as we have already identified that we are purchasing such and such books/ from the/ may be for 'Civics Book One'/ you will find that the storekeeper has to get 'price quotations'/ we look on those that are cheap/ and we request him to make an order//

However, the discourse of 'cheap textbooks' contradicted with some experienced teachers' ideologies. For example, as Hapiseni argues, the cheaper the textbooks, the less useful they are for curriculum work because 'cheap goods are harmful'. The *cheap textbook* discourse intersected with *curriculum policy* discourses to increase teachers' struggles to find textbooks that covered curricular contents stipulated in the subject syllabi. Hapiseni notes:

There are books up to 4000/ 5000/ 3000/ cheap// Now I believe/ I think/ as you know cheap goods/ they say/ "cheap goods are harmful"// I think/ because the one who writes a book also think of/ if he or she produce a detailed book// she or he will spend more time// to develop the book/ and publishing costs as well/ will be an expensive book/ and then there will be few buyers/ as it will be sold expensive//

Moreover, through the 'priority subjects' discourse, the World Bank, US, and UK also supplied physical marketised textbooks published overseas to be used for Tanzanian secondary curricula.

Marketisation policy financing intersected with *educational materials approval* discourses that positioned teachers and school administrators as lacking knowledge and market information to select and finance their own resources and, therefore, selected for them:

The textbooks to be purchased using grant funds shall be those evaluated and approved by the Ministry of Education and Vocational Training (MoEVT) and included in the official list issued by the Educational Materials Approval Committee (EMAC). (URT, 2004f, p. 4).

Together, these discourses limited schools and teachers' MCR and curricular content selection to 'evaluated and approved' materials. However, participants explained that approval usually focussed on locally produced MCR rather than other MCR types. This had two implications. One, it presupposed that local textbook producers lacked curriculum content knowledge and organisation and, second, it removed local publishers as competitors. Textbooks that were unapproved, even if they were relevant for teachers' work, were de-emphasised. The outcome was struggle as, for example, between departmental heads and subject teachers who were motivated to purchase textbooks of their choice. This is further explained by Sulata, an English head of department, who stated:

...sometimes it reaches a point you quarrel with a teacher and say/ "You know these books are not allowed to be purchased using funds/ government funds"// He or she says "Okay/ I will purchase using my own money"//

Findings further indicated that approval discourses reshaped MCR production and distribution at school and national levels through "approval certificates" (Magasi, 2008, p. Back cover page; Figure 4). Such 'certificates' constructed teachers' and students' ideologies that such MCR were only relevant for selection and use. However, such certificates served as MCR advertising and reproduction of state policymakers' power and ideologies over school administrators, teachers, and students to use them without questioning. Serving as advertising purposes, approval certificate discourses contained publication title, author(s), publisher, ISBN number, approval date, and the role of the textbook in the school curriculum. Serving the purpose of reproducing state policymakers' power and ideologies, the approval certificates contained the (1) State and ministry name and seals; (2) EMAC Chairperson's name and signature; and (3) EMAC seal.

Approval was also used by publishing businesses as a competition strategy. Approval therefore meant teachers had to assume positions as passive curriculum planners, decision makers, and MCR consumers. However, these features did not mean that such texts contained relevant knowledge that teachers and students needed for

curriculum construction. Rather, these features constructed ideologies among school administrators, teachers, and students that such textbooks were relevant and ready for consumption without questioning.

Finance and approval discourses also intersected with legal discourses to facilitate and constrain procurement of MCR of teachers' choice. For example, the Education Act (URT, 1978, p. 28; 2002a, p. 28) empowered the Minister for Education to "order in writing, prohibit the use in any school of any book or material for any reason which he/[she] may think fit". Further, *The Public Finance Act, 2001* (URT, 2001c) constrained public schools to spend funds only within the financial year and unspent funds should be reimbursed to the government. These discourses constrained MCR selection and access and reproduced state power rather than empowering schools and teachers to finance textbooks and other resources.

However, in some cases *legal*, syllabus coverage, approval, and examination discourses empowered school policy actors to purchase unapproved MCR rather than returning those funds to the government. This improved access to some MCR, although they were inadequate as shared by Sulata, the Urgova English departmental head between 2004 and 2008:

Now if you go to the bookshop/ you will find the reality is that approved books are very limited// ... "when this money stays in the account it will be returned// Why should it be returned?"// so they opt for those/ unapproved because the purpose as the teachers sees/ is "I want to cover certain things before examinations"/ So to be able to cover/ then he has to use these by other authors/ which are not emphasised by the Ministry//

In some cases, the discourse of financial supply from central government to schools accounts four times a year created bureaucracies that delayed the availability and affected the reliability of finance for schools. In addition, class sizes and market prices usually increased while funding amounts and schedules remained fixed.

Capitation grants will be transferred to school accounts four times every year, and the January allocation will be 40% of the annual grant, given the need for the schools to procure teaching and learning materials for the new school year. (URT, 2004f, p. 4).

Moreover, data shows that before EMAC operation in 1999 (see Chapter 1), textbooks were approved by individual bureaucrats and policymakers who instructed schools and teachers to purchase specific marketised textbooks. For example, in June 1998, the

Commissioner for Education instructed all educational institutions that “*Simplified English Grammar Books*” have “been formally approved ...for use as a supplementary reader in Secondary Schools and Teachers’ Training Colleges” (URT, 1998, p. 1). This letter further specified educational levels for which the text was a ‘supplementary reader’ and a ‘reference book’.

Teachers’ access to resources and power/knowledge was also reshaped by frequent curricular policy changes and reviews made between 1995 and 2010 that also coincided with government elections. These politics created bureaucratic delays in MCR and curriculum policy text production, distribution, and financial supply, leading to teachers’ mistrust and loss of confidence with the government and its policies. Matano explains:

To be frank/ things go arbitrarily/ we had Minister Mungai/ he changed and removed some subjects//later physics was combined with chemistry to become one subject/ and so on/ You see!/ he disrupted much/ then came Mrs Sitta/ then Maghembe/ each came with own changes/ everyone comes with his or her own changes//

The contradiction between curricular change and MCR availability influenced teachers’ curricular organisation as some teachers found that some parts of the science syllabi were “not well organized and they [brought] confusion in the teaching and learning process” (Chemistry Subject Panel, 2006, p. 2). As this panel reported, teachers’ knowledge, work time, and confidence to implement the new curricula were constrained because some “teachers were surprised to see the syllabus changing so many times within a short period” (p. 2). This also implied that teachers were not involved with or informed about curricular changes, and were positioned as passive and dependent actors who could not implement changes as they lacked knowledge, resources, and information.

Moreover, school inspection discourses, which were further reconstructed through school administrative and advertising discourses, influenced schools’, departmental, and teachers’ curriculum texts and content selection. Inspectors provided textbook lists for schools and teachers to select, purchase, and use. For example, at Urpisa, they “advised to procure ... wall maps of Tanzania, Africa, and world, survey equipment, and collect sample of soil, crops, rocks, as well as industrial products” (Njambi, 2005, p. 5). They also specified textbook types to be purchased by schools and teachers (see Appendix 13). As Appendix 13 shows, the suggested books were either imported or TIE-collaboratively produced. This positioned teachers as passive receivers

and people lacking relevant information about resources for their work. This is a contradiction because some teachers and students were informed and aware of those suggested textbooks as difficult to understand because they contained knowledge that was inaccessible and expensive for schools' contexts.

However, school inspectors recommended textbook-student ratios and discourses that informed relevant MCR types, such as purchasing more MCR to attain the required ratio. This contradicted with school budgets and, therefore, some suggested ratios were unattainable. Similarly, school inspection discourses were also reconstructed through advertisements in book catalogues, book covers, newspapers, and websites. For example, there were advertisements that drew on “Renowned author team including Mrs Philomena Temu, Inspectorate Department, MOEVT” (Figure 3). Inspection discourses also created struggles through ‘syllabus coverage’ and what inspectors called ‘the correct formats’ of lesson plans, schemes of work, examinations, and questions. These discourses positioned teachers as passive receivers who lacked professional knowledge and MCR selection information in the context of marketisation.

However, some curriculum policy texts empowered teachers, despite the contradictions and struggles they created. For example, the mathematics syllabus discourse empowered subject teachers to use their “academic and professional knowledge and skills” (URT, 1997a, p. vii) to select MCR, as it states:

The selection of mathematics instructional and study materials should be done by the teacher by applying his/her academic and professional knowledge and skills to judge the suitability of the books. ... Together with the pupils, he/she should improvise and make possible teaching aids by using locally available resource materials (URT, 1997a, p. vii).

Similarly, the 2005 Mathematics syllabus (URT, 2005a) empowered teachers to devise their own resources in collaboration with students; it also backgrounded schools and policy contexts constraints. This was clear when it states that where “the commercial varieties of T/L resources are not available; the teacher should work with students to collect or improvise resources available in the environment” (URT, 2005a, p. vi). Further, the same texts reconstructed textbooks that were usually published in London and New York (Appendices 28-31). It is difficult for rural schoolteachers with restricted internet connection and fewer bookshops to collect Mathematics, English, and Biology resources from the texts emphasised. However, such discourses contradicted with the

Education Acts and SEPD discourses that empowered school heads and HODs to select MCR.

School contexts also reshaped teachers' and students' access to MCR and power/knowledge. Thus, unlike the two urban schools' some Rugosa teachers had to travel long distances to collect the suggested resources. On the other hand, while the private school context facilitated selection and access, the public school contexts constrained access because of delays caused by budgets and financial centralisation. Consequently, in the two government schools, policy actors, teachers, and students struggled for MCR selection and access. As Hasani explained, students stayed *for too long without books*.

Similarly, state policymakers and business publishers reshaped curriculum content selection through teachers' guides that suggested specific marketised textbooks. For example, teacher manuals for Mathematics (TIE, 2011a, pp. 14, 51, 69, 78, 88, 104, 113, 126, 137 — Appendix 28) and *Biology Theory* (TIE, 2011c, pp. 7, 22, 47, 65, 90, 108, 119, 141, 154, 168, 191, 202 — Appendix 29) constructed imported marketised books as teachers' references. Similarly, *Biology Practical* (TIE, 2011b, pp. 14, 26, 40, 53, 68, 92, 113, 125, 133, 141, 142 — Appendix 30) and *English Language* (TIE, 2011d, pp. 18, 30, 34, 54, 60, 68, 90 — Appendix 31) did the same.

This struggle was the case throughout the education system. It was found that most textbook references recommended for teacher education in the *Diploma in Education* curriculum for *Mathematics Academic Syllabus* (TIE, 2009c, p. 32), *English Language* (TIE, 2009b, p. 25 — Appendix 34), and *Biology* (TIE, 2009a, p. 23 — Appendix 35) included overseas publications by Cambridge, Oxford, Macmillan, Longman, and Heinemann. In this way, they reconstructed ideologies and beliefs that locally produced MCR were less useful for curriculum work than those imported. Moreover, because these could not be accessed in the school context because of prices, location, and distributional problems, school administrators and teachers had further struggles with increased MCR financing and selection.

7.2.1.2 School micropolitical struggles

At school and departmental levels, the struggle for power, resources, and information constructed by marketisation policy text interpretation either constrained or facilitated decision making that passively positioned teachers in relation to access to resources,

power/knowledge, and MCR selection. In many cases, policy texts excluded teachers in schools' policy decision making. At Urgova, for example, subject teachers suggested textbooks they believed relevant for their work and forwarded these to higher levels. However, because the school management team and School Board made the final decisions on financing and procurement, this process was unreliable and bureaucratic because sometimes teachers' suggestions were not considered in the final purchase decisions due to financial limitations. Further, final decisions were delayed because Board meetings that, according to Education Acts (URT, 1978, 1995a, 2002a) were final, were less frequent. These Acts were silent on Board membership qualifications. Most members were not educational professionals and lacked school administrative knowledge, principles, and procedures. It was presumed that anybody could become a School Board member. This presupposition is evident in one of the policy texts which states "School Boards Members shall be given training on their roles and responsibilities" (URT, 2004e, p. 11). Thus, if such training was inadequate or not provided, the School Board lacked power/knowledge to perform its legal functions and, therefore, was positioned as passive receivers or implementers of school policies decisions made by school heads or other administrative organs. School heads' empowerment was constructed through SEDP policy texts that never talked about teachers who are the major curriculum implementers. This was clear in the following texts.

The Head of School is the authorizing officer for all SEDP payments based on approved claims for payment. The Head of School shall be responsible for certifying the accuracy of all claims and shall be held personally accountable for miscarriage of this function. (c) The Head of School may designate in writing and by name specific persons who shall have the authority to sign payment vouchers on behalf, prescribing the financial limits and any other condition within which this authority may be exercised. (URT, 2005e, p. 13).

School board disempowerment was also clear in all the three schools, as Hasani explained:

We tell the board that/ "this time we have received a capitation grant of certain amount/ and our request was to purchase such and such books/ and we have already discussed in the school management"// The board says "okay if you have such funds/ you can buy"//

However, such school heads' empowerment constructed room for untrusted school heads to abuse power; manipulate information; and misuse and misallocate textbook funds to favour their interests, which constructed a further political struggle for power and resources. Thus, some school heads tended to enact new policies that suited their interests, resist the policy implementation, or take no action.

In some cases, schools and departments selected specific MCR types to finance, distribute, and use through school and departmental meetings and parents' communication discourses. However, such efforts were constrained by a lack of financial resources and power relations that constrained marketisation policy enactment. This was clear in communication between the Urpisa school owner/manager and the Mathematics HOD (Urpisa Head of Mathematics Department, 2004a):

Please I am informing you that we have received 4 copies each of mathematics book I and II. We do recognize your efforts in equipping the school with books but the 8 copies are not enough to meet the demands of all teachers and students (p. 1).

A similar Urpisa managerial problem was raised in February, 2005, by the HOD: "The department is kindly requesting the school management to install a computer with its accessories in the mathematics room. The department is also reminding the school management to fulfil its promise of buying a photocopy" (Urpisa Head of Mathematics Department, 2004a, p. 2) that would facilitate curriculum, instruction, and managerial tasks.

Furthermore, school micropolitics in MCR selection at Urpisa occurred between teachers and 'elderly male or female teachers', who were or were not the HOD, but they were empowered by the school authorities to organise the MCR selection process instead of the subject teachers. However, teachers were periodically involved in selection, such as when there were advertisements by private publishers, but this took place less frequently in the school. Empowering an 'elderly male or female teacher' to select MCR discursively limited young and beginning teachers' access to decision making that disempowered them, widened social relations, and increased discrimination based on age, gender, and social position. Matano supports this by saying:

We have put in place in each/ in each department/ we assigned teachers who at least have some experience// At least we know that experienced teachers/ for example elderly male and female/ who have at least taught for a long time/ will tell a relevant book/ they will tell those books/ even if they are not in the/ at least it can serve as a reference//

The two discourses of *school library* and ‘book safety’ further constrained teachers’ and students’ access to MCR and power/knowledge. In short, while Urgova and Rugosa lacked school libraries, Urpisa had a small library with some books. The ‘book safety’ discourse also required all books to remain in the library for safety reasons. Besides, students perceived some library books as being ‘old’ and not very useful for the curriculum work because the school management’s efforts to purchase new MCR were constrained by frequent curriculum changes. In addition, there was the students’ ideology that TIE-authored books were outdated and therefore demotivated them to read and access knowledge. Mtunge supports:

But there is also another problem/ the school has got has loss/ and they hesitate to buy books because every/ every after two to three years/ there emerges a group of people/ the curriculum makers/ who emerge with a new syllabi/ so there are books that have remained useless// ... Nobody is interested to read them/ you see!//

Some students also struggled with the limited reading and discussion space in the Urpisa library. They felt that it *needs to be expanded to accommodate a large number of students*. In the next section, I discuss how parents reshaped school marketisation policy interpretation and teachers’ work.

7.2.1.3 Parents’ discourses

Findings indicate that with the exception of a few parents, the majority contributed less to schools’ marketisation policy in terms of financial resources, the purchasing physical MCR, and participation in school policy decisions. Four main discourses facilitated this: *low income, lack of reading culture, less motivation, and willingness to pay school fees*. These constrained students’ access to marketised textbooks, financial resources, and knowledge. Low income passively positioned many parents in private, government, rural, and some urban contexts. Thus, because most students in the three schools were from low-income backgrounds, their access to MCR selection and procurement was constrained. However, only a small proportion of students from able and informed parents, mostly at Urgova and Urpisa but a few at Rugosa, contributed. As noted above, in 2008, Urgosa collected only 43% of the expected schools fees, and the inspection report encouraged the school head “to sensitize parents to pay school fees on time.” (Bwindiki, 2008, p. 2).

However, at Urgova, where parents' discourses intersected with empowering school management policy discourses, parental participation in school policies was positive. Urgova school management constructed the discourse of *meeting with parents* to discuss MCR shortages faced by teachers and students in face-to-face sessions. This enabled power negotiation between parents and teachers that enhanced some parents' contribution, who also encouraged some private organisations to assist. Alota states:

There are// those who buy textbooks using their own experience of which are the best// few who visit the school and get advice from teachers on which books are best// for a particular level of secondary school//

In some cases, although school policy actors enacted discourses of *joining instructions*, *parental report forms*, and *meetings* to encourage parents'/students' participation in school policy financing, such policy discourses competed and contradicted with parents' power politics where some male parents influenced financial resources. In some families, there were struggles between male and female parents as to who had the resources and motivation to finance the children's education.

Some Rugosa parents lacked *readiness* and *market knowledge* that constrained MCR type selection, finance, and supply to their children. This situation was further reconstructed by 'poor MCR distribution' in rural areas, parents' *lack of reading culture*, and less *market knowledge and information* that positioned them as passive participants in marketisation policy financing, selection, and access decisions.

7.2.2 Framing and organising MCR discourses

In this section, I discuss how marketised textbooks, schemes of work, lesson plans, and teachers' guides were discursively framed, structured, and organised by business publishers and distributors in collaboration with the state to reshape teachers' power/knowledge, curricula content, and objectives selection. Foremost, some study participants experienced that MCR contents were aligned with past examination questions and answers through discourses of 'Reviews' and 'Questions and answers'. Therefore, for example, there were '*Biology Review*', '*Mathematics Review*', '*English Review*', '*Biology Questions with Answers*', '*English Questions with Answers*', and '*Mathematics Questions and Answers*'. Each of these reviews influenced school administrators' and teachers' MCR selection, procurement, curriculum content, pedagogy, and evaluation in particular ways. I interpret 'questions and answers' as

constructing publishers' and examination policymakers' power and ideologies through reproduction of past examination papers. I further posit that questions and answers discourses also affected teachers' and students' emotionally when purchasing and using MCR in their work. It also meant some local publishers had to compete with international publishers who had invested in the educational publishing business for a long time and had more capital and publishing knowledge. Such MCR also reflected the publishers' presupposition that teachers and students lacked knowledge to construct their own questions and solutions. Finally, it is a presupposition that the purpose of teaching and learning is to pass tests and examinations rather than construct educational knowledge. Such questions also limited teachers' and students' ability to construct, discover, and create their own questions and new knowledge as I discuss in Chapter 8. Mtunge observed:

Just have a look on English literature/ everything has been digested/ very different from the past practice// ... But now/ they have produced lots of handouts/ and "reviews" for students for every subject/ Check Kiswahili/ So when do you think can a student become creative?/

Moreover, some publishers aligned MCR discourses with 'subject syllabi' contents, teachers' guides, and schemes of work. The content and titles emphasised subject syllabi contents and organisation. For example, some publishers emphasised 'consistency with the syllabus' to position teachers as passive curriculum planners and decision makers, focusing on 'syllabus content coverage' and organisation.

Further, some publishers aligned marketised textbook contents with teachers' and students' curriculum ideologies, including such strategies as content 'summarisation', and 'copy and paste' from other books, and 'easy to read'. Some authors summarised and analysed some original English language literature texts for business purposes, like Achebe (1958, 1963, 1971), p'Bitek (1966, 1967, 1984), Rubadiri (1989), Soyinka (1989), and Thiong'o (1965, 1967, 1970, 1974, 1981, 1987, 2000). They assumed that teachers and students lacked adequate knowledge and time to read, understand, and summarise the curriculum content for themselves. However, publishers are not curriculum leaders. Rather, teachers and students need to develop their abilities to critically read, summarise, analyse, and comprehend the main themes intended and unintended by the authors. Teachers and students were positioned as passive MCR consumers with less critical reading, summarisation, analysis, and comprehension knowledge and skills. However, some teachers and students were aware

that such texts were ‘summarised’, ‘shallow books’, ‘copy and paste’, and ‘business-oriented’. Such MCR also constructed the ideology that knowledge is summarised, and limited divergent thinking among teachers and students.

7.2.3 Supplying ‘free’ and ‘cheap’ MCR

Data analysis indicates that teachers’ and students’ curricular content selection was also influenced by supplying what the publishers referred to as ‘free’ and ‘cheap’ textbooks, teachers’ guides, schemes of work, and lesson plans. However, such resources also served as publishers’ products’ advertising sites. For example, teachers were influenced to purchase a textbook to get a ‘free teachers’ guide’ (Figure 7). Similarly, the British Council supplied ‘free’ English textbooks to Urgova through ELTSP between 1986 and 1996. More recently, the US supplied ‘free’ Science and Mathematics textbooks in 2011. Further, Urgova received History textbooks from MWEDO, while EOTF supplied marketised History textbooks to Rugosa. According to the website information and available documents, MWEDO and EOTF are non-governmental organisations, mostly funded from so-called ‘donors’, who have their particular capitalist interests. School administrators and subject teachers received those MCR as aids without selecting them. These ‘free’ and ‘cheap’ MCR constructed what, how, how much, and when teachers worked. These discourses presupposed that teachers lacked professional knowledge and information to select, plan, and decide for curriculum content, organisation, and the pace of the lesson. They determined access to power/knowledge, curricula content planning, decision making, and also reproduced the dependence and power ideologies of those organisations. This presupposition and passive positioning contradicted with teacher education discourses, which prepared teachers with curriculum content knowledge and ability to select content, and pedagogy according to school and classroom contexts and learners’ background and ability.

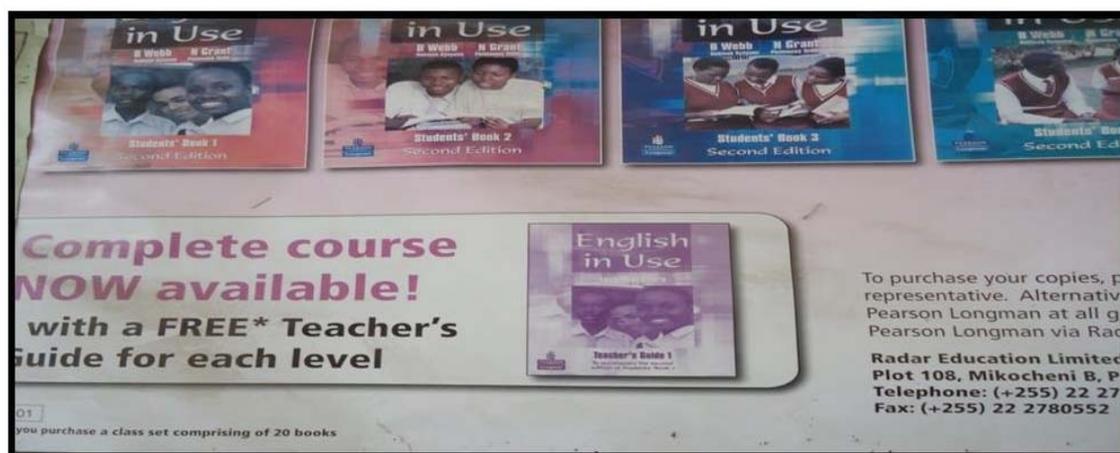


Figure 7: An advertisement for English marketised textbooks emphasizing “Free Teacher’s guides”

Source: Urpisa School Wall.

7.2.4 Producing MCR that were highly demanded and donor-financed, and for specific subjects

As discussed above, the fact that the World Bank and the government financed only ‘six priority subjects’ out of 13 secondary subjects, discursively constituted publishers’ book production and distribution because they concentrated on those that were financed through World Bank funds or school fees. The production and distribution of books for other subjects, such as French, Agricultural Science, Home Economics, Food and Nutrition, Arabic, Bible Knowledge, Fine Art, Textiles, BAM, and Additional Mathematics, were neglected because they were less profitable. Technolina explains:

There are no relevant textbooks which satisfy some syllabus// like agricultural science/ BAM// home economics, food, business subjects. There are few textbooks in the market which are related to the syllabus// and some of the available textbooks are very expensive// and there is poor support from the school// and government due to syllabus changes due to political issues influence teaching and learning//

This strategy had political implications for teachers’ and students’ access to power/knowledge and resources that also reshape their identity.

7.2.5 Advertising discourses

As discussed in Chapter 6, advertisers employed intertextual and interdiscursive strategies to influence school administrators, teachers, and students by constructing advertisements together with textbooks, schemes of work, catalogues, posters, and

subject syllabi. In the remaining part of this section, I consider how advertising discourses constructed and constituted school administrators', teachers' and students' pedagogical codes. I categorise advertising discourses based on the ideological effects and discourses drawn upon.

Foremost, there were manipulatory economic discourses that influenced schools and teachers to 'invest wisely', make 'wise choices', on 'value-for-money', and 'best books' for 'best prices' (Figure 8).

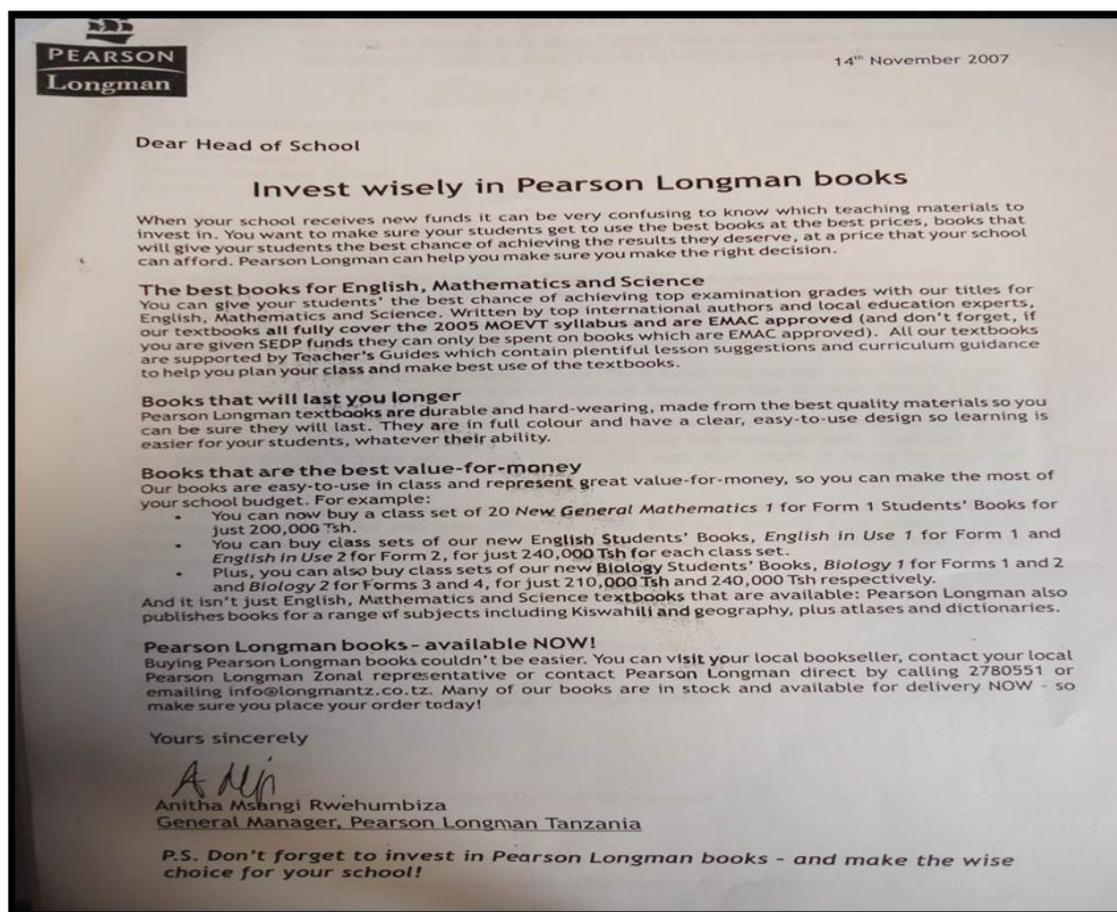


Figure 8. Influencing school administrators' textbook selection through letters.
Source: Rwehumbiza (2007, p. 1).

School administrators and teachers were positioned not as professionals, but as business investors, passive consumers, and uniformed choosers who lacked relevant market knowledge and information to make such decisions. In this way, their spending patterns for 'new SEDP funds' were set by informing them that they 'can only be spent on books which are EMAC approved' (Figure 8). They reconstructed financial aspects with *educational materials approval* discourses, implying that approval was the major or

only consideration for MCR selection and use. For example, this is “the only EMAC-approved complete course available for Tanzania” (Figure 3).

Moreover, there were advertisements on marketised textbooks’ covers, titles, and contents that constructed teachers’ and students’ beliefs that some MCR were compulsory as, for example, ‘A book must read’ and “**THE REAL English** Textbook...” (Kadeghe, 2006a); and that some books were “resourceful and consists of many illustrations and examples” (Kinunda & Bukagile, 2007, p. Cover page), even if this was not the case.

Other advertisements drew on school curriculum policy discourses, such as curriculum changes, ‘new curriculum’ contents, curriculum evaluation and, more specifically, listing the new books used in these new syllabi. For example, textbook consistency with the syllabus, “written in line with the current Tanzania English syllabus (2005) which emphasizes the use of the functional approach in teaching and learning English language” (Kadeghe, 2006a, p. iii). There is also the text, “meets the requirements of current form two English syllabus; it is full of activities aimed at making students use language functionally” (Kadeghe, 2006b, p. iii). Some publishers also advertised through catalogues (Figure 9) that were distributed to schools, containing textbook lists, descriptions, and prices. This positioned schools as business sites and teachers and students as consumers by influencing their MCR selection and financing decisions. Further, there were discourses that drew on curriculum evaluation strategies by stating that some textbooks were relevant for preparing “students to meet the challenges of biology examinations ... Advice on how to prepare and tackle biology examinations... Examination type revision questions as well as self-help exercises...” (Mwaniki & Geoffrey, 2008, cover page). Other advertisements drew on language discourse, such as “the language used is simplified so as to enhance profound understandings” (Juakali & Mahumbwe, 2008, p. cover). Others constructed were very specific, such as “English is the business language and is worldwide spoken, the material in this book will help you in pointing out and rectifying common errors in every day usage of English.” (Godlove & Ramadhan, 2008, p. Cover page).

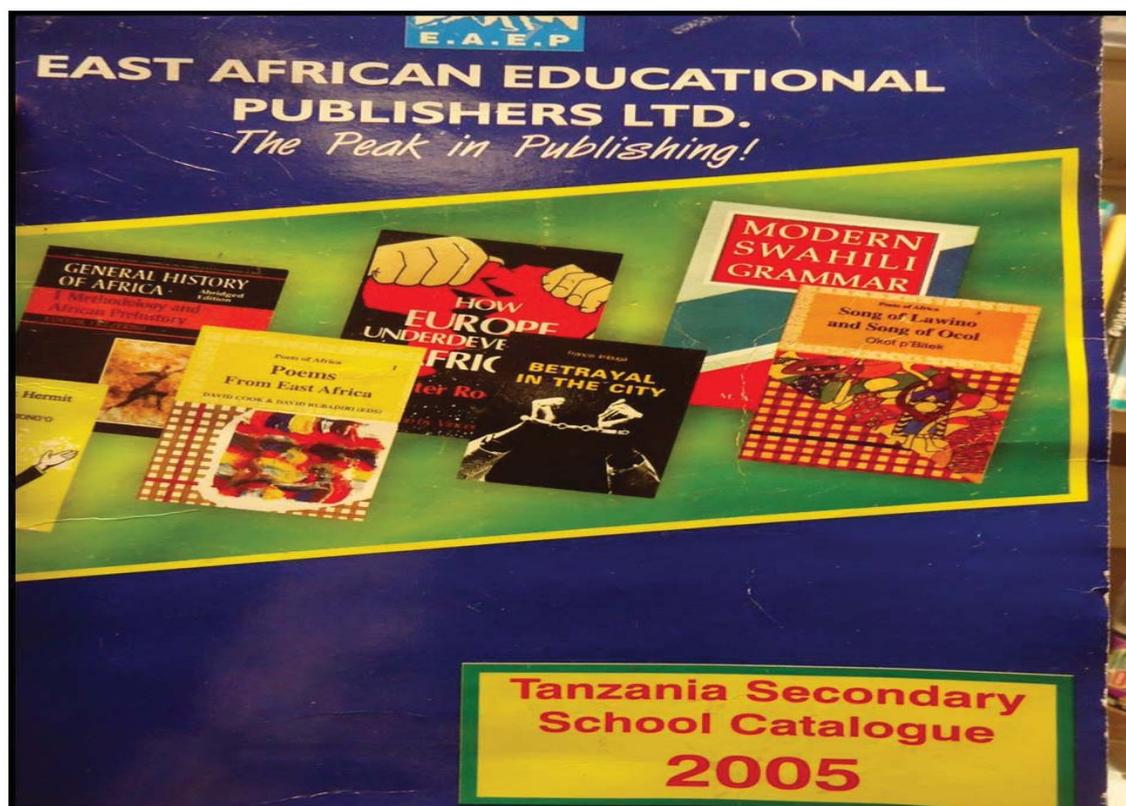


Figure 9. Influencing school textbook selection through publishers' catalogue.
Source: East African Educational Publishers Ltd (2005, p. Cover page).

Further, there were advertisements that drew on publishers' and authors' competency and activities, such as its "authors are highly qualified and experienced in the field of mathematics." (Said & Maduma, 2008, p. cover). Others constructed that "because of Pearson's commitment to high quality, our resources are extremely durable and offer excellent value for money" (Rwehumbiza, 2009, p. 1). Similarly, others drew on multiple discourses of powerful individuals or groups, like those working in the ministry or inspectorate, involved with approval, inspection, and curricular policy. For example, "in 2009 [we] continue offering classroom resources approved by the MOEVT using the 2005 syllabus, and recommended to you by the Zonal Subject Inspectors" (Figure 3), or individuals, such as textbooks are produced by "Renowned author team including Mrs Philomena Temu, Inspectorate Department, MOEVT" (Figure 3).

Finally, some advertisements constructed teachers' work as 'difficult without' MCR which were also constructed together with economic discourses, such as 'free Teachers' Guide' as discussed above (Figure 7).

It was therefore clear in the data how school administrators, teachers, and students struggled with market forces and financial constraints to select and access MCR to meet their diverse interests. This was clear in interview data, where Hasani said:

So/ there appeared many types of books// And at the same time/ we as school heads were also confused// which book should you buy?// because when a student reads a certain book that he or she finds it easy to read/ he or she considers it as beneficial or more understandable than others// And his or she will tell you “please teacher/ buy a book of this kind for us”// But at the same time/ when another student reads another book/ wants it to be purchased//

Thus, while at the same time constructing marketing ideologies, these discourses limited and facilitated teachers and students to focus only on the subject syllabi, rather than divergent and wider understanding of the basic and relevant knowledge for challenging social and political problems facing them. They both constrained teachers’ and students’ curriculum content selection and organisation relevant for their school and classroom contexts and available resources.

7.3 Reshaping classroom pedagogic planning and decision-making

In this section, I discuss how teachers’ pedagogy planning and decision making for classroom practices were reshaped by business publishers, state policymakers, and the reconstruction, negotiation, or resistance of dominant discourses in schools and classrooms. I will show that despite their professional training and knowledge, teachers were positioned as lacking knowledge and autonomy to select and apply context-relevant classroom pedagogies because these were given and inflexible. It was found that through the subject syllabi, marketised teachers’ guides, lesson plans, schemes of work, and textbooks, the above mentioned powerful groups influenced teacher pedagogy by (1) listing single and specific pedagogies and (2) the ‘number of periods’ for each topic and subtopics for each school subjects. I discuss these as follows.

7.3.1 Influencing single and specific pedagogies as given and inflexible

Teachers were constructed to passively adopt given pedagogies, assuming that such pedagogies and times were appropriate and applicable to all schools and classroom contexts, despite their differences discussed in Chapter 5. For example, while emphasising student-empowering pedagogies of ‘group work’, ‘questions and answers’, ‘investigations’, and ‘class presentations’, the BAM syllabus also constructed

contradictory discourses that those were “not exhaustive ... [but teachers were] ... strongly advised to use them” (URT, 2010a, p. viii). Another contradictory discourse which constrained the application of the above student-empowering discourses was that of *syllabus coverage* aligned to national examinations. It is stated:

The suggested teaching and learning strategies are not exhaustive. The teacher is strongly advised to use them plus any other strategies, which are applicable and relevant. In some cases the teaching and learning strategies also provide a guide for the coverage of the sub-topic... Group work has been used to promote more participation and cooperation... questions-and-answers and other methods for review are used. (URT, 2010a, p. viii).

Moreover, these specific pedagogies were further reshaped by teacher manuals discussed above, including the Mathematics *Teachers' Manual* (TIE, 2011a), Biology theory (TIE, 2011c), Biology practical (TIE, 2011b), and English Language (TIE, 2011d). For example, each topic in the subject syllabi *English Language Teachers' Manual* (TIE, 2011d) provided teachers with what the authors call ‘learning activity’, ‘procedures’, ‘instructions’, ‘reflections’ and ‘summary’. Similarly, the *Biology Practical Teachers' Manual* (TIE, 2011b) constructed these discourses; in addition, it included ‘materials’, ‘teachers notes’, ‘precautions’, and how teachers should construct ‘inferences and conclusions’ from the practical observations they made. However, these were contradictory discourses because Biology teachers in the two government schools, for example, lacked these ‘materials’ and laboratory resources. These discourses also constructed *one best way* of doing science practicals, and positioned teachers as lacking professional knowledge and autonomy to select and practice these pedagogies depending on the school and classroom contexts they faced. In this way, teachers were disempowered and de-skilled by constraining their critical thinking and creativity in their work. Further, some Science marketised textbooks and teachers’ guide discourses backgrounded practical experiments through contents that lacked experimental works, although these were as important as theory. This further intersected with large class sizes, *Alternative to Practical* policy texts, and lack of laboratory facilities that were constructed at national and education system levels.

Moreover, teacher pedagogies were also directly reshaped by some powerful, political bureaucrats working in the Ministry through “BODMAS”, “various aids and equipment”, “study tour and project”, and “adequate exercises on arithmetic tables and quizzes” (URT, 2002c, pp. 1-2). It was as if ‘BODMAS’ and arithmetics exercise

adequacy were universally applicable for all subject curricula contents and contexts. As they state, “In every lesson, students are required to perform adequate exercises on the mathematical operation of addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division. Moreover, they are required to adequately understand the use of the principle of BODMAS.” (URT, 2002c, pp. 1-2). In the same way, throughout its contents, the BAM subject syllabi (URT, 2010a) constructed the discourses of ‘small groups’, and ‘students in pairs’, as well as specific time frames for each topic from the Ministry and ordered teachers to passively apply them without questioning their relevance to time and contexts.

7.3.2 Influencing pedagogies by specifying teaching and learning time

Textual analysis indicated that teachers’ pedagogies were influenced by specifying teaching and learning time through the discourses of ‘number of periods’ for each topic and subtopics for each school subject. For example, specific teaching and learning times were reshaped in the *English Language Teachers’ Manual* (TIE, 2011d) that provided teachers with what the authors call ‘estimated time’. Similar cases were made in subject syllabi, such as TIE (2011a, 2011c, 2011d). By specifying time, teachers lacked democracy and autonomy to choose context-specific pedagogies.

7.4 Reshaping teachers’ curriculum evaluation planning decisions

In this section, I discuss how marketisation policy discourses reshaped curriculum evaluation practices and how teachers and students were positioned in the process. Findings indicate that teachers were positioned as passive and dependent professionals because publishers and state policymakers informed them what, when, how, and how much to evaluate. I discuss these aspects further.

7.4.1 Constructing what and how teachers should evaluate

Interview and documentary analysis data indicated that in the contexts of marketisation, what, when, and how teachers evaluated was reshaped by publishers and state policymakers by suggesting subject matter content and strategies. This was facilitated through subject syllabi, marketised textbooks, lesson plans, and what school inspectors called ‘banks of questions’. The ‘bank of questions’ consisted of past national, regional mock, annual, terminal, and midterm examination papers. Inspectors instructed every

academic subject department to prepare files consisting of collections of those questions and use them for revision and learning. These ‘banks’ were sources for ‘readymade’ questions and answers from which the teacher and students may pick during regular classroom curriculum assessment and various internal and external examinations. They were involved in setting and marking, respectively.

There are many examples of such assessment. The basic Mathematics (URT, 1997a, 2005a), BAM (URT, 2010a), Biology (URT, 1996b, 2005b), and English Language (URT, 1996c, 2010c) syllabi limited evaluation to ‘homework and tests’ and ‘national examinations’ as the only ways teachers could assess students’ learning progress and their pedagogic effectiveness. Similarly, all 2005 syllabi contained “ASSESSMENT” columns which stated what all teachers should assess in one question. This positioned teachers and students as passive reproducers of the subject matter contents and constrained them to create context-specific curriculum evaluation forms. Taking ‘*Nutrition*’ topic as an example, the Biology syllabus (URT, 2005b) constructed assessment as one fixed question for each subtopic:

Is the student able to explain the concepts of nutrition and food nutrients? Can the student outline the importance of nutrition and food nutrients in living things? Is the student able to identify different types of food substances and their functions in the body? (p. 38).

Similar cases were observed in the English Language syllabus (URT, 2010c). For example, on the “GIVING DIRECTIONS” topic, the English Language curriculum was evaluated through “Is the student able to: 1. Give directions? 2. Ask for directions? Is the student able to show four points of the compass?” (pp. 3-4). Policymakers and business publishers considered the reproduction of these pre-determined particular and specific questions as an effective realisation of curriculum knowledge that students should demonstrate. However, as Chapter 8 shows, such evaluation content and forms not only constructed passive learning cultures, but also produced and reproduced consumption of dominant knowledge available in textbooks produced by capitalist publishers, rather than constructing critical thinking, literacy, and creativity.

Further, the BAM syllabus (URT, 2010a, p. ix) provides an A-Level programme assessment table (Figure 10), where curriculum policymakers constructed contradictory discourses that teachers were “strongly advised to apply a wide selection of assessment measures” (p. ix). It provided a table that limited curriculum evaluation in form, frequency, and percentage distributions. This fragmented teacher professional identity

because it limited their autonomy, flexibility, and creativity in curriculum evaluation based on schools' and classroom contexts. For example, 'ICT based tasks' could not be practiced because the three schools lacked adequate computers as Urgova had 10 computers with 76 teachers, and over 60 BAM students. Similarly, Rugosa had over 20 teachers and 171 BAM students, without computers.

TYPES OF ASSESSEMENT	ASSESSMENT MEASURE	FREQUENCY				WEIGHT %	TOTAL WEIGHT %
		FORM V		FORM VI			
		Term 1	Term 2	Term 1	Term 2		
I CONTINUOUS ASSESSEMENT	1. Test	2	2	2	-	10	
	2. Individual Assignments (open ended investigation)	1	1	1	-	5	50
	3. Oral reports	1	1	1	-	5	
	4. Written projects	-	1	1	-	10	
	5. ICT based tasks	1	1	1	-	5	
	6. Terminal exam	1	1	1	-	15	
II FINAL EXAMINATION	National Examination	-	-	-	1	50	50
TOTAL MARKS							100

Figure 10. Reshaping the form and frequency of the BAM curriculum assessment. Source: URT (2010a, p. ix).

Similarly, teachers' guides (Ngodu, 2007; TIE, 2011a, 2011b, 2011c, 2011d) constructed curriculum evaluation in similar ways to subject syllabi. For example, Ngodu (2007) passively positioned teachers to follow his rigid evaluation content and forms through what he calls "Diagnostic questions" appearing in all topics and '*Chapter Six*' containing "Test Questions" (p. 26-27, Figure 11) and "Answers to Test Questions" (p. 27-28). He further constructed Chapter seven containing "Answers to Exercises in Pupil's Book" (p. 29-34, Figure 12). These discourses predetermined teachers' textbook selection decisions and Biology curriculum evaluation content and forms. These 'answers' also reproduced examination ideologies that constrained critical thinking and creativity.

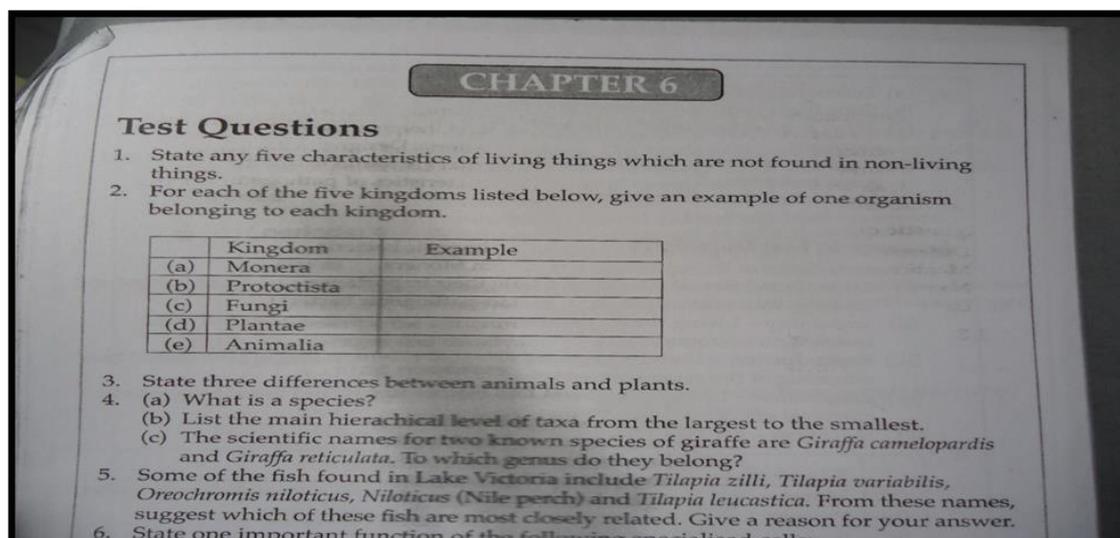


Figure 11. Reshaping the content and form of Biology curriculum evaluation with “Test Questions”.

Source: Ngodu (2007, p. 26).

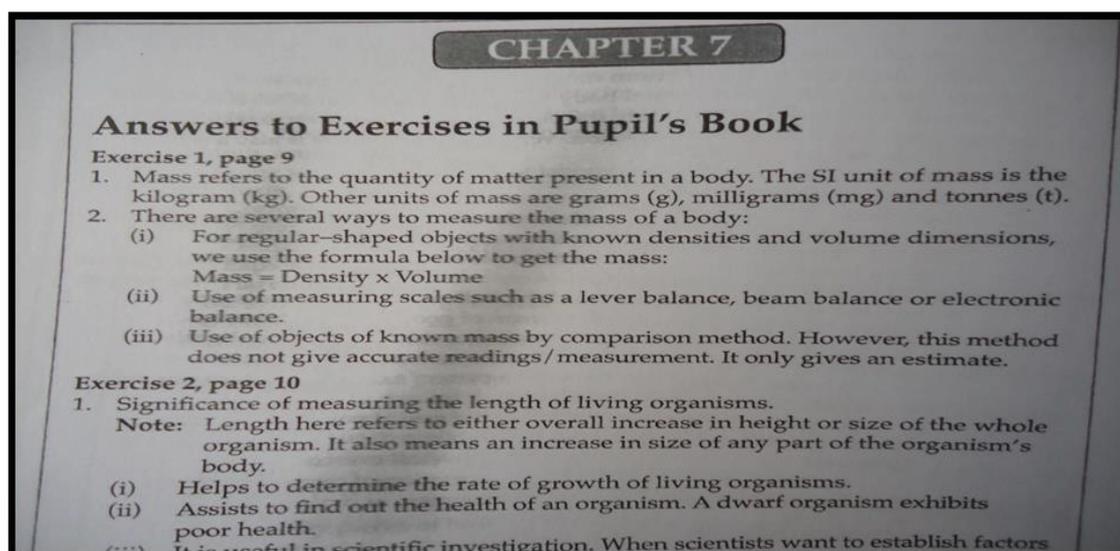


Figure 12. Reshaping the content and form of Biology curriculum evaluation with “Answers to Exercises”.

Source: Ngodu (2007, p. 29).

Similarly, as discussed above, passive teacher and student positioning in the curriculum work were facilitated by publishers who produced and distributed marketised textbooks that contained past national and regional mock examinations’ ‘questions and answers’ in the discourses of ‘test papers’ and ‘review questions’. For example, there were:

- *Test Papers in Secondary Basic Mathematics* (Msemwa, 2011) which, ‘include 250 solved questions’ that drilled young Tanzanian’s maths scholars in Form I and II;
- *Comprehensive Approach to Ordinary Level Biology: Questions and Answers Form 3 and 4. New Syllabus* (Magasi, 2010);
- *Form 2 Biology Review: Questions and answers 1999-2010* (Muna & Vendelin, 2011);
- *Form 2 Mathematics Review: Problems and Solutions 1997-2010* (Edward & Damian, 2011);
- *Form 2 English Review: 1999-2010*;
- *Form 2 Physics Review: 1998-2010*;
- *Form 2 Chemistry Review: 1999-2010*; and

All these constructed teachers’ and students’ belief that by revising past examination questions, they could pass national examinations. Consequently, the curriculum and pedagogy were dominated by memorisation of those questions that also created passive teaching and learning cultures.

Similarly, as shown in Figure 13, while advertising his book through examination discourse, Kadege (2008, p. 208) reproduced past examinations (URT, 2012b, p. 2) emphasised in red colour. Figures 14-17 show similar constructive and constitutive effects where publishers set the exact months in a school year where teachers should administer examinations, revision, and tests as if schooling is conducted in a publishing firm in Dar es Salaam.

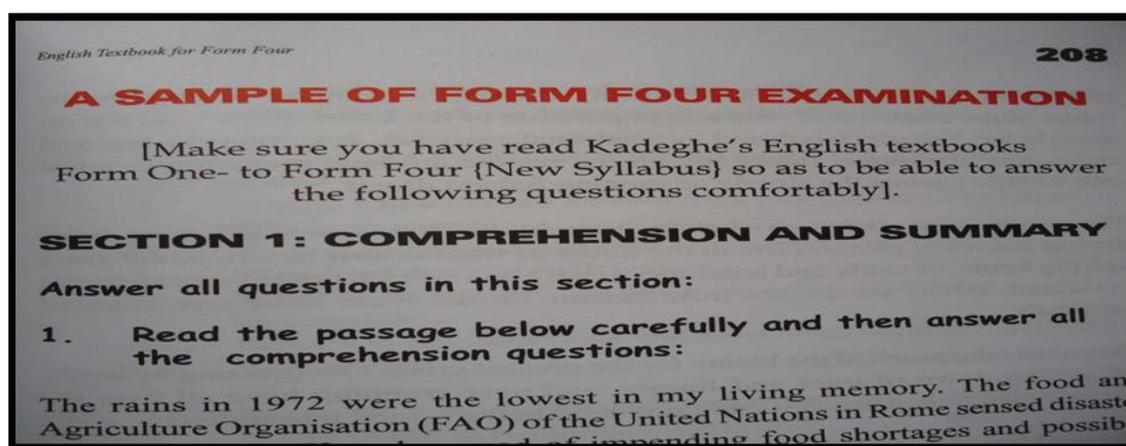


Figure 13. Reshaping teacher evaluation practices through past national examination texts I.

Source: Kadege (2008, p. 208).

January	Introduction: Get Started
February	Chapters 1 and 2
March	Chapters 3, 4,5
April	Chapters 6 and 7 (Mid-term)
May	Chapter 8, Revisions and Exams
June	HOLIDAYS
July	Chapters 9 and 10
August	Chapters 11, 12, 13
September	Chapters 14 and 15
October	Chapter 16 and Revision
November	Examinations

Figure 14. Reshaping teacher evaluation practices through past national examination texts II.

Source: Kadedghe (2006, p. v).

January	Chapter 1
February	Chapter 2 and 3
March	Chapter 4 and 5
April	Chapter 6 (Mid term)
May	Chapter 7, Revisions and Exams
June	HOLIDAYS
July	Chapter 8
August	Chapter 8
September	Chapter 9
October	Chapter 10 and 11
November	Revisions and Exams

Figure 15. Reshaping teacher evaluation practices through past national examination texts III.

Source: (Kadedghe, 2006b, p. iii).

January	Chapter 1
February	Chapter 2
March	Chapter 3
April	Chapter 4 (Mid term)
May	Chapter 4 + Terminal Exams
June	HOLIDAYS
July	Chapter 5
August	Chapter 5
September	Chapter 6
October	Grammar Revision Tests
November	Examinations

Figure 16. Reshaping teacher evaluation practices through past national examination texts IV.

Source: (Kadedghe, 2007, p. iii).

January	Chapter 1
February	Chapter 1
March	Chapter 2
April	Chapter 3 (Mid term)
May	Chapter 3 + Terminal Exams
June	HOLIDAYS
July	Chapter 4
August	Chapter 5
September	Chapter 6
October	Revision Tests
November	Examinations

Figure 17. Reshaping teacher evaluation practices through past national examination texts V.

Source: Kadedge (2008, p. iii).

Similar practices were common in the following marketised textbooks published by Bukagile et al. (2008), Juakali (2008), Juakali and Mahumbwe (2008), Kadedge (2006a, 2006b, 2007, 2008), Magasi (2008, 2010), and Oxford/TIE (1996). For example, on the cover of the main secondary school English Language textbook, *English for Secondary Schools, Student's Book 4* (Oxford/TIE, 1996), it is stated: “Tests are provided to help students looking for success in the National Form 4 Examination.” (p. Cover page). It further states in bold emphasis “**Examination One**” (p. 80) and “**Examination Two**” (p. 86) as curriculum content learned in the classroom. Student exercises were also framed as ‘tests’ to produce and reproduce examination ideologies among them. Examples of some of these are: “*Test One*” (Oxford/TIE, 1996, p. 30, Figure 18), “*Test Two*” (p. 54, Figure 19), and “*Test Three*” (p. 77, Figure 20).

Test One	
1	Underline the odd one out:
	(a) a girl, a city, a table, Mary, a town.
	(b) truth, love, happiness, attraction, sugar.
	(c) Peter, Dar es Salaam, Mt. Kilimanjaro, Odeon Cinema, policeman.
2	Give the plural of the following:
	(a) leaf, knife, baby, loaf, wife, half, fly, wolf, thief.
	(b) tomato, church, brush, witch, watch, box, ox.
3	Give the singular of the following:
	(a) sheep, feet, teeth, children, women, men, mice.
	(b) countries, shelves, nurses, heroes, photos, bodies.

Figure 18. Reshaping teacher evaluation practices through “Test One”.

Source: (Oxford/TIE, 1996, p. 30).

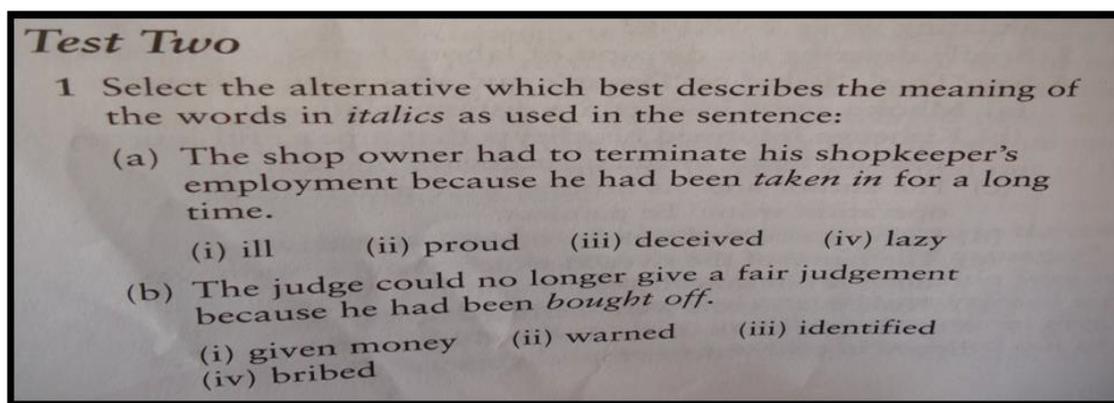


Figure 19. Reshaping teacher evaluation practices through “Test Two”.
 Source: (Oxford/TIE, 1996, p. 54).

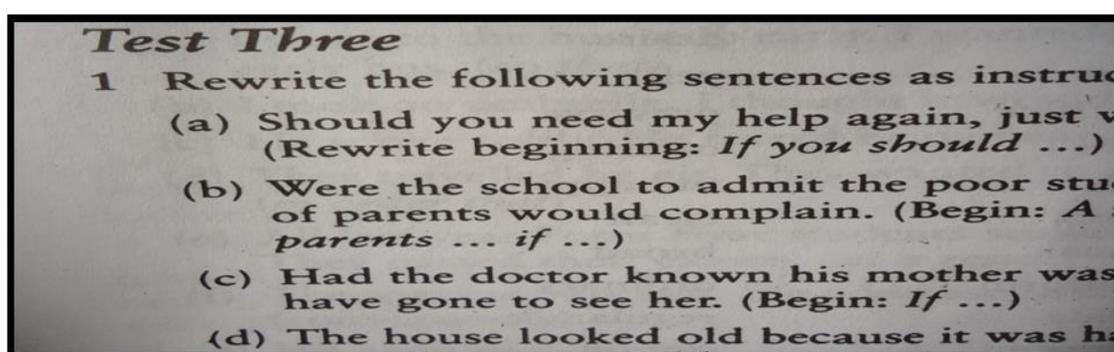


Figure 20. Reshaping teacher evaluation practices through “Test Three”.
 Source: (Oxford/TIE, 1996, p. 77).

Moreover, at national level, NECTA's discursive practices of repeating past examination questions in some current examinations constructed teachers' and students' belief that those examinations would be based on those past papers. This practice also reshaped some private publishers who collaborated with NECTA to publish those questions and answers as 'reviews', as discussed above. For example, Mtunge expressed his concern with these practices when he says:

NECTA annoys me/ it annoys me very much// NECTA has one big problem/ ... NECTA gives these examination questions to book authors/ they find out answers to those questions/ those examination questions/ and publish books containing these/ but then worse enough/ it has been repeating these questions/ ... most students have what they call/ what?/ Review/ "Biology Review"/ "Chemistry Review"// contains all national examination questions//

To be annoyed is to be demotivated, and demotivation is a pedagogic issue that affects teacher commitment to teaching and learning in both the preparation and actual classroom curriculum practices.

Examinations and marketised textbook discourses therefore reshaped schools, teachers, and student textbook selections, financing, and the use for curriculum evaluation practices. This was clear during an interview with Hasani, the Urgova school head, who argued that questions and answers and *summarisation is what is required* as it simplified teachers and students' curriculum process.

It is true/ those books are summarized// And// because of/ of our curriculum/ in my opinion/ the fact that they are summarized/ they simplify for the student/// in my opinion/ they simplify for the student because of/ of the way our curriculum is organized/ and the issue of exams/ that issue of/ Tanzania education focus much on exams ... So/ ... summarisation is what is required!//

Thus, the curricula content selected and learned were mostly from locally produced MCR because they were summarised and had questions and answers for tests and examinations. These constructed teacher and student ideologies that there is only one way to evaluate the curriculum. It also constrained teachers' creativity and thinking in designing and implementing what, how, how much, and when to evaluate what could have been effective and appropriate, depending on the available resources, time, school contexts, and students' backgrounds and motivation.

7.4.2 Constructing when teachers should evaluate

As Figures 13 to 17 show, marketised textbooks discourses constructed times when teachers should evaluate their classroom work in a school year. Curriculum evaluation was constructed in rigid ways that limited teachers to conduct continuous evaluation any time they found appropriate. For example, this could be at the beginning or throughout the year. Similarly, the lesson plan structure provided in the lesson plans (see Figure 21) positioned 'self-evaluation' at the end of the plan. For some teachers, this may mean that classroom curriculum evaluation is done only at the end of the lesson by teachers giving a comment, instead of at any appropriate time for the teacher or the class at the beginning, middle, or end of the lesson. That is, such discursive structuring limited teacher flexibility in curriculum assessment that considered classroom and learning contexts. The plan does not provide curriculum evaluation strategies either as to how and when teachers would evaluate the lesson. Instead, the plan just provides the teacher with space to comment without any process, evidence, or basic criteria for their evaluation. The plan could have indicated at every stage of the

lesson how the teacher and students could democratically work together to assess lesson progress towards the stated, expected, and flexible or alternative curriculum objectives.

TEACHER'S LESSON PLAN						
Date	Subject	Class	Period	Time	Number of students	
					Registered	Present
22 nd July 2012	BIOLOGY	III E	6 & 7	11:35 - 12:55	71	68
Main Topic: <u>MOVEMENT</u>						
Sub-Topic: <u>MUSCLES AND MOVEMENT</u>						
General Goal: <u>The student should understand the whole concept of muscles and movement</u>						
Specific Objectives:						
1. <u>Students should be able to describe the ^{three} types of muscles</u>						
2. <u>Explain the concept of muscles cramp</u>						
3. _____						
4. _____						
Teaching Aids or Resources:						
<u>charts showing contraction and relaxation of muscles (Biceps and triceps muscles). Model of Human being skeleton</u>						
Reference Books:						
<u>school certificate Biology Form 3 & 4 by Abdullah S. Ngidi & Beatrice S. Clavero</u>						
<u>New essential of Biology for secondary school Book Three</u>						
LESSON PLAN PRESENTATION						
Stage	Minutes	Teacher's Activities	Students' Activities			
Introduction:						
	15	- Asking the questions about the concept of muscles and movement.	- Answering the questions and providing some their understanding on the whole concept of muscles and movement.			

Presentation:			
	40	- Continuing on emphasizing the concept of muscles and movement in details and the adaptations of muscles.	- Listening carefully and noting down some short notes provided by teacher.
Application/Practice:			
	15.	- Demonstrating the way muscles work and their adaptations.	- Observing carefully and practicing themselves.
Closing:			
	10	- Summarizing the whole concept and asking the oral questions.	- Listening carefully and answering the questions asked by the teacher.
Self evaluation:			
The concept was understood to the students as they were able to answer some oral questions asked by the teacher. Next period I will try to insist the and explain much the concept of muscle cramp and its causes.			

Figure 21. Marketised teachers' lesson plan.

Source: Mura's Lesson Plan Book

Further, sometimes examination ideologies reshaped when teachers should develop their action planning, which includes what, when, and how they did their work such as lesson planning. For example, Urpisa teachers believed that action planning is relevant only when students had examinations coming. These ideologies were reconstructed through institutional and subject departments where Mathematics teachers emphasised an 'Action Plan for Examination Classes' (Urpisa Head of Mathematics Department, 2004b, p. 1) as the first agenda. They state: "All members supported this strategy of each teacher having an action plan especially for those who are teaching examination classes. It was agreed that [such] teachers ... should prepare action plans." (p. 1). Thus, examinations reshaped when teachers planned their work for 'examinations classes', rather than planning being part of teachers' work throughout the school programme and year. That is, teacher curriculum planning was meant to enable students' to pass examinations rather than regular teachers' work practice.

7.5 Chapter summary and conclusion

This chapter has shown that teachers as curriculum leaders were passively positioned in and through marketisation policy texts and discourses. This positioning reshaped teachers' access to finance, MCR, decision making, and their professional identity. They were marginalised and excluded in many policy decisions that fragmented their professional identity and influenced curriculum, pedagogy, and evaluation planning and decision making in favour of the capitalist publishers' and state policymakers' interests. This positioning reshaped teachers' pedagogical codes because their power and autonomy to select, organise, and implement their work plans and decisions were constrained. Consequently, the marketisation policy created conditions for the reproduction of dominant power/knowledge or curriculum codes rather than conditions for teachers' and students' critical thinking, creativity, critical literacy, independence, and democratic or collaborative knowledge construction. In Chapter 8, I discuss how the constructed teachers' subject positions and pedagogical codes intersected with MCR, students' backgrounds, ideologies, beliefs, and perceptions to produce the curriculum cultures. I also look at students' resistance to dominant pedagogies.

CHAPTER EIGHT

THE POLITICS OF THE MARKETISED SECONDARY CURRICULUM AND OFFICIAL KNOWLEDGE

8.1 Introduction and chapter overview

Chapter 7 examined how publishers and state policymakers, through marketisation policy texts and discourses, positioned teachers as being passive and dependent. Teachers' concern with or resistance to those subject positions constructed subjectivity/pedagogical codes in terms of power relations, ideologies, beliefs, and identities. These subjectivities have implications for their work practices. Recalling 'curriculum as texts' and 'discourses' conceptualisations discussed in Chapter 2, this chapter focuses on the political, historical, and sociocultural nature and organisation of *marketised curriculum* and official knowledge. By *marketised curriculum*, I mean the textual and discursive experiences in terms of knowledge, attitudes, ideas, and beliefs constructed in the social intersection between teachers, students, and MCR. This chapter was guided by the third research question: *How do the subject positions and pedagogical codes constructed by marketisation policy texts and discourses reshape teachers' pedagogic practices?* In terms of Bernstein, I focus on the struggles in the *field of reproduction* of cultures and identities through the marketised curriculum. The focus is on the political and social nature of teachers' pedagogic practice as a means for the production and reproduction of official knowledge in schools and classrooms. That is, how the power and control exercised by the powerful groups through the dominant marketisation policy discourses discussed in the previous two chapters decode into communication principles, and how these communication principles "differentially regulate forms of consciousness with respect to their reproduction and the possibilities of change" (Bernstein, 2000, p. 4). According to Bernstein (1990), pedagogic practice has two aspects: 'as a cultural relay' and what is relayed or realised in that practice.

I organise the findings in this chapter in five sections, beginning with an introduction and chapter overview. This is followed by teachers' curriculum planning and decision-making practices in the three schools in the context of the domination and controls discussed in Chapter 7. Section three highlights the dominant and non-dominant pedagogic practices selected and practiced by teachers and their discursive impacts on students' positioning, official knowledge, and identity construction. Section

four considers how the selected curriculum contents and pedagogic practices were a means and sites for the reproduction of dominant official knowledge that also reproduced social structures of capitalist hegemony and inequalities based on social class, gender, race, and ethnicity. That is, how the marketised secondary curriculum texts and discourses historically and socially produced and reproduced social structures and cultures existing in the wider society over the past two decades. This section will show that such reproduction was not smooth because there was also resistance from teachers and students. Section five summarises and concludes the chapter.

8.2 The politics of curriculum planning and decision making

In this section, I discuss the politics of teachers' curriculum planning and decision making resulting from the pedagogic discourses discussed in Chapter 7. I will consider three main aspects of curriculum planning and decision making, including: content selection, objectives' selection and setting, and pedagogy and evaluation selection. I will compare the findings between schools and academic subjects. I begin by discussing the curriculum content selection and its implications for the next major sections.

8.2.1 Curriculum content selection

As discussed in Chapter 7, marketisation policy reforms reshaped curriculum content selection through curriculum policy, school inspections, examinations, and MCR discourses. A critical analysis of Maths, Biology, and English Language topics and subtopics planned for teaching between 1992 and 2012 indicates that the state curriculum policymakers and private textbook publishers predetermined curricular contents for teachers and students (See Appendices 24, 25, and 27). Thus, in practice, subject curricular contents were stipulated through subject syllabi from the government and MCR from the publishers. That means school departments' and teachers' tasks was to, or not to, select, finance, and procure MCR from the market that met the needs of those contents and distribute them to teachers and students. Findings indicate that teachers or school administrators struggled to select curriculum content and did so mostly from the cheap, advertised, and usually locally produced MCR. For example, the Urgova Mathematics HOD selected curriculum content through the discourse of a 'Books Requisition' letter (Figure 22) sent to the headmaster in April, 2009. This letter indicates that selections were not made by individual teachers, nor were they departmental decisions. Rather, the HOD acted on his discretion by stating, *It's my*

hope that my request will be granted very soon. The discursive effect of curriculum policy change on book selection was also evidenced by the HOD's reference to *syllabus change whereby we are currently using the 2005 syllabus*. In addition, the influence of examinations, market prices, and locally produced marketised books is clear when the HOD selected many books from local producers, such as 'Wakamoga Masinde', 'Maths reviews', and 'Test papers' which all reproduced examination ideologies and discourses (See also Appendix 18).

Due to syllabus changes where by we are currently using the 2005 syllabus, we need new Mathematics books in our department (Maths Department) in order to meet the needs of the new syllabus.

In so doing Maths department needs the following copies of text books for o – level
 Maths Book 1 and 2 by Wakamoga Wassinde @ 6,000/- 30 and 25 copies respectively
 Maths Book 3 and 4 by Wakamoga Wassinde @ 7,000/- 30 copies each

We also need the following reference books for O- Level which have been seen to be good for revision.

Ordinary level Maths review	@ 8,000/-	10 copies
Test papers in sec form 1 & 2	@ 3,500/-	10 copies
Complete secondary Basic Maths	@ 4,000/-	10 copies
Basic Applied Maths (A – Level)		
Basic Applied Maths review	@ 75,000	3 copies
Advanced Maths review	@ 17,500	5 copies
Advanced level pure Maths	@ 28,000	4 copies
Advanced level pure Maths -2	@ 30,000	5 copies

It's my hope that my request will be granted very soon so as to enable students coop with the needs of the new syllabus.

Figure 22. Urgova Mathematics departmental books requisition letter.
 Source: Urgova Head of Mathematics Department (2009)

Likewise, the discursive impact of curriculum change on teachers' knowledge and curriculum content selection was evident in 2007 in Urpisa's English subject inspection discourses. In evidence: "in Form I a topic on 'Nouns' was taught. The topic was not in the syllabus in use. In Form 2, the new syllabus (2005) was not being followed. Instead, the 1997 syllabus topics were being done in class" (Bwindiki, 2007, p. 5). This contradiction in teachers' practice also seems to be constructed at national level by delays in English syllabus production and distribution to schools, as noted in one of the policy texts:

Besides, Tanzania Institute of Education in collaboration with the Department of Secondary Education and PMO-RALG ... should make sure that all schools are provided with new syllabi. This exercise should be done as soon as possible to enable teachers to teach using the new syllabi (URT, 2010e, p. 2).

Moreover, the influence of advertising discourses on Urpisa's Mathematics HOD's power in curriculum content selection can be demonstrated in Figure 23 where most of the selected Maths textbooks were those advertised in the publisher's catalogue (East African Educational Publishers Ltd., 2005, p. 22) as shown earlier in Figure 9. The HOD acknowledged that he had "gone through the catalogue and found a list of mathematics textbooks" (Mathematics Head of Department, 2005, p. 1). However, he also constructed his power and contradictory discourses by ordering such a list without the subject teachers' involvement in recommending their usefulness. His power legitimacy is represented by stating that *I do recommend that* and *I may go through them*, without reference to subject teachers in the process. Contradictory discourse was constructed because the HOD ordered the textbooks with authors' names, class levels, 'quantity', and 'price' before knowledge of their relevance through 'sample copies' from the publisher. Further, because most of the selected textbooks and teacher guides were produced in Kenya, Tanzania's secondary curriculum content was determined in Kenya by the East African Educational Publishers Ltd.

RE: MATHEMATICS TEXT BOOKS ADEVERTISED IN THE EAST AFRICAN EDUCATIONAL PUBLISHERS LTD CATALOGUE.

I have gone through the catalogue and found a list of Mathematics textbooks for 'O' Level students.

I do recommend that these text books should be ordered after the publisher or the disritibutor have sent us some sample copies so that I may go through them to verify if they are relevant to our objectives and requirements of our Mathematics syllabus. The list of the books and their prices are as follows:

TITLE	AUTHOUR	QTY	PRICE (SHS)
Certificate Mathematic F1	Charles Mbugua etal	20	@ 4550
Certificate Mathematic F2	Charles Mbugua etal	20	@ 4550
Certificate Mathematic F3	Charles Mbugua etal	20	@ 4550
Certificate Mathematic F1	Charles Mbugua etal	1	@ 1950
Teacher's guide			
Mathematics Teacher's guide Form 2	Charles Mbugua etal	1	@ 1950
Mathematics Teacher's guide Form 3	Charles Mbugua etal	1	@ 1950

It is my hope that my recommendation will be taken into consideration.

Figure 23. Influencing departmental curriculum content selection through a publisher's catalogue.

Source: Mathematics Head of Department (2005, p. 1).

Similarly, the extent to which marketisation policy discourses were powerful in shaping school administrators', teachers', and students' knowledge, ideologies, and beliefs was evident in their discourses. For example, teachers and students constructed 'Oxford books', 'Macmillan books', 'Wold Bank books', and TIE books as illustrated by an extract from an Urgova interview with Kwasu:

Those previous books/ TIE is now back to produce books/ for example in Biology books/ but they produce through/ I think Oxford/ may be Macmillan/ Macmillan/ yeah/ there are books by TIE/ like/ they are like those that we stopped using// Yeah/ like those/ but now published by Macmillan// But they have been improved of course/ those of the past/ those of the past/ their pictures/ the pictures were not/ coloured//

An Urpisa Biology teacher, Mtunge, had similar ideologies:

Another thing that make me like the imported books/ from Kenya/ from Oxford/ or Cambridge// The major problem with locally produced books/ for science subjects is that/ they have omitted experimental works//

Thus, in some cases, the MCR form and content selected, financed, and used were mostly locally produced because they were 'summarised' and contained 'questions and answers' for tests and examinations. The resulting marketised curriculum constructed by some teachers and students was characterised by 'summarisation' and 'questions and answers' because they believed that summarised marketised textbooks (see for example, Appendices 29 and 30) enabled them to sit for national examinations and were easy to read and understand. They also believed that teachers and NECTA always repeated past questions. This was noted by the Urgova headmaster, Hasani, who argued that questions and answers and *summarization is what is required* because it simplified the curriculum process.

It is true/ those books are summarized// and// because of/ of our curriculum/ in my opinion/ the fact that they are summarized/ they simplify for the student// Ehh/ in my opinion/ they simplify for the student because of/ of the way our curriculum is organized/ and the issue of exams/ that/ ehh/ Issue of/ of education in Tanzania/ focus much on exams orientation// ... And the other/ is where the syllabus is so big/ someone has to read today/ and then you will be required to respond to questions about what you have read today/ four years to come!// ... summarization is what is required!//

These administrators' subjectivity constructed a high demand and use of those local and collaboratively produced marketised books as compared to other categories discussed in

Chapter 6. However, this does not mean that there were no other MCR categories selected. Some individual urban and a few rural school teachers were motivated to spend their own and few, scarce institutional resources to select, purchase, and use imported science and English language textbooks. Kwasu had this to share:

Let me explain in the case of Biology/ in Biology we had a book for/ Biology Form I/ Form I and II/ we had a book for Form I/ Form III and IV/ but we had supplementary books/ like those by Mackean// like Pereira/ Pereira// there is Beckett//

As Kwasu argues, this was possible because, unlike state funding, teachers' personal financial resources were not constrained to EMAC-approved textbooks. *So we reached a point where we had a system which is no longer on approval.* Selection was therefore ideological as related to the ability to purchase. However, there were not always enough copies for all student to access. The major impact of this was *curriculum differentiation* within and between schools and academic subjects because teachers and students had differentiated access to curricular contents, official knowledge, and pedagogy. Kwasu further explains:

You go to a certain school/ you find a teacher likes a certain book/ which has different approach// You go to another school/ you find a teacher has another kind of book/ which has a certain approach// so you find concept/ concepts are as if they differed//

The curriculum experienced by some students was also characterised by skipping some contents stipulated by the subject syllabi. This was also facilitated by a *difficulty discourse* constructed at the societal and education system levels where some Mathematics and Science teachers and students, for example, believed that some topics in the syllabus, which were also skipped by marketised textbooks' authors, were difficult to teach and learn. Alternatively, some teachers constructed note taking and lecture pedagogies because their knowledge to teach such contents in the classroom was limited. This distressed the curriculum content sequence and organisation. As discussed later, note taking pedagogy positioned students as passive and dependent on teachers and memorised content. I will also discuss the discursive meaning of curriculum content reproduced by teachers and students over the past two decades in the three case study schools.

Further, the curriculum constructed, such as in Mathematics, was characterised by teachers' and students' reproduction of ready-made 'formulas', such as "formula for the area of any triangle" (URT, 2005c, p. 122), "Area of Rhombus" (p. 123), "Perimeter of a Regular triangle" (p. 124), and "Area of Regular Polygon" (p. 125). Students were assessed if they were 'able to state' those laws 'correctly' or 'accurately' derive and/or state those formulas, areas, and perimeters. In the next section, I discuss teachers' practice of curriculum goals and objectives selection and the setting reshaped by pedagogic discourses discussed in Chapter 7.

8.2.2 Curriculum objectives' selection and setting

Findings indicated that some teachers passively 'copied and pasted' or reproduced, curriculum objectives from the subject syllabi, marketised textbooks, and teachers' guides without questioning their adequacy, who formulated them, and why. This is clear in all subject syllabi and lesson plans for the lessons I observed. For example, the basic Maths syllabus (URT, 2005a, p. 136-7) states the objectives of the 'Trigonometry' topic as follows:

The student should be able to:

1. find sines and cosines of angle θ such that $-720^\circ \leq \theta \leq 720^\circ$;
2. draw the graphs of sine and cosine functions; and
3. interpret the graphs of sine and cosine functions. (p. 136-137).

Similarly, the Biology teacher reproduced (Appendix 22) curriculum goals and objectives from the syllabus (URT, 2005b, p. 90-91) for the subtopic 'Muscles and movement' as:

The student should be able to:

1. Explain the concept of muscles
2. Mention types of muscles
3. Demonstrate how muscles facilitate movement
4. Describe the structure of muscle (URT, 2005b, pp. 90-91).

Furthermore, it is important to analyse teachers' marketised lesson plans because these reflect classroom pedagogic practices, reshaped by curriculum planning and decision making. In the section on pedagogy, I will also present observational data to

show the actual curricula constructed. Consider the two examples of lesson plans provided (Figures 24 and 26) and see how Mura reproduced these uniform and fixed features of curriculum planning and decision making constructed by business publishers and policymakers or adopted from teacher education discourses. These texts were reproduced from Mathematics subject syllabi without questioning, regardless of the variation and needs of different academic subjects, school contexts, curriculum nature, and students' backgrounds. Such plans were consistent with marketised textbook contents' discourses (Figures 25 and 27). In addition, some teachers in the three schools followed rigid formats for schemes of work, logbooks, and 'bank of questions', which were reconstructed by school inspectors through the discourses of 'correct formats' as discussed in Chapter 7.

TEACHER'S LESSON PLAN						
Date	Subject	Class	Period	Time	Number of students	
					Registered	Present
1 st / 07 / 012	BASIC APP MATH	IV	9:20-10:40	80 min	171	169
Main Topic: TRIGONOMETRY.						
Sub-Topic: Sine and cosine functions.						
General Goal: At the end of the topic students must know how to draw graphs of sine, cosine and their application in life.						
Specific Objectives: At the end of the sub-topic students should be able to:						
1. Find sines, cosines and tangents of angles ($360^\circ \leq \theta \leq 360^\circ$)						
2. Draw the graphs of sine, cosine functions and for the tangent.						
3. Interpret the graphs of sine and cosine tangent.						
4. Read the values of angles of trig ratios from the graphs.						
Teaching Aids or Resources: Math tables, graph paper and manilla sheet (which has a graph).						
Reference Books: Book IV mathematics for secondary schools by T.I.E page (102 - 108).						
LESSON PLAN PRESENTATION						
Stage	Minutes	Teacher's Activities	Students' Activities			
Introduction:						
	15	Reviewing the previous lesson and doing correction. Introducing new subtopic	Doing revision and correction. Listening to the teacher et.			

Presentation:			
	45	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - To guide students to read a values of sine, cosine and tangent for angles between $-360^\circ < \theta < 360^\circ$. - To lead students prepare the table of values of sine cosine and tangent for $-360^\circ < \theta < 360^\circ$ - To discuss with students the features of the graphs of sine and cosine functions. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Reading values of sine, cosine and tangent of angles. - Prepare a table - Discussing with the teacher.
Application/Practice:			
	15	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Giving students questions for them to try on the blackboard. - Correcting misconception <p>EXERCISE 4.1 Pg(109)</p> <p>4 @ 5 @ 6 (a)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Doing questions on the blackboard. - Doing correction
Closing:			
	05	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Giving a brief summary of the lesson and to introduce the next subtopic 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Listening carefully to the teacher.
<p>Self evaluation:</p> <p>Generally, the lesson was understood because most of the students answered the questions well, therefore next period I will proceed with the new sub-topic.</p>			

Figure 24. Curriculum plan for 'Sine and Cosine Functions' subtopic taught by Mura at Rugosa.

Source: Field data

- (b) 317° is in the fourth quadrant
 $\sin 317^\circ = -\sin(360^\circ - 317^\circ)$
 $= -\sin 43^\circ$.
- (c) 95° is in the second quadrant
 $\tan 95^\circ = -\tan(180^\circ - 95^\circ)$
 $= -\tan 85^\circ$.
- (d) 258° is in the second quadrant
 $\tan 258^\circ = \tan(258^\circ - 180^\circ)$
 $= \tan 78^\circ$.

Approximate Values of Sine and Cosine of Angles Between 0° and 360° .

Figure 4.6 represents a unit circle shown on squared paper. Angles $0^\circ, 10^\circ, 20^\circ, \dots, 360^\circ$ marked on the circumference correspond to the angles at the centre O. Approximate values of sine and cosine, of the respective angles can be found by reading the coordinates of the points on the circle.

For example in finding the values of $\sin 20^\circ$ we read the y -coordinate at the point as 0.34 and the value of $\cos 20^\circ$ as 0.94.

Table 4.1 has been partly completed by entering approximate values of sine and cosine using Figure 4.6. The pupil can copy and fill in the missing values and compare these values with those given in the tables for trigonometrical ratios.

Table 4.1: Approximate values of sines and cosines of angles between 0° and 360°

Angle	Sine	Cosine	Angle	Sine	Cosine
20°	0.34	0.94	190°	-0.17	
30°			220°		
70°			290°		
120°		-0.50	310°		0.64
140°	0.64		330°		

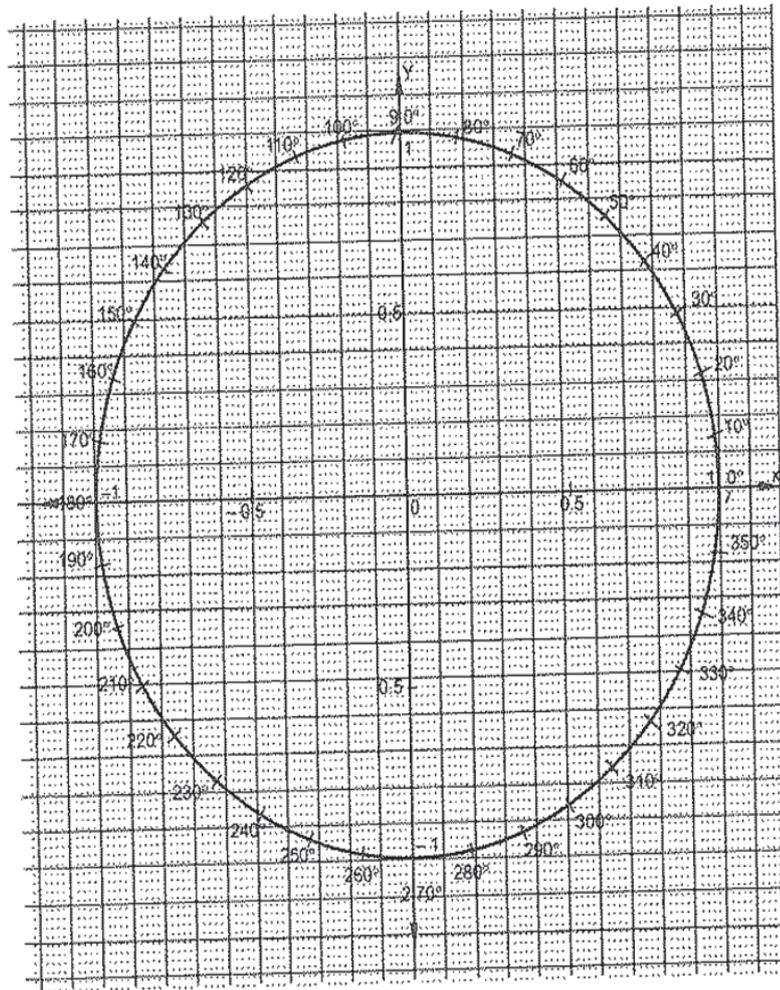


Figure 4.6

Approximate Values of Tangents of Angles Between 0° and 360°

Figure 4.7 represents a unit circle shown on a squared paper. Line segments corresponding to central angles of 0°, 10°, 20° ... 360° meet tangents to the circle at points A and A₁. The tangent of any angle can be found by using the coordinates at the point as follows:

$$\tan \theta = \frac{y\text{-coordinate}}{x\text{-coordinate}} = \frac{y}{x}$$

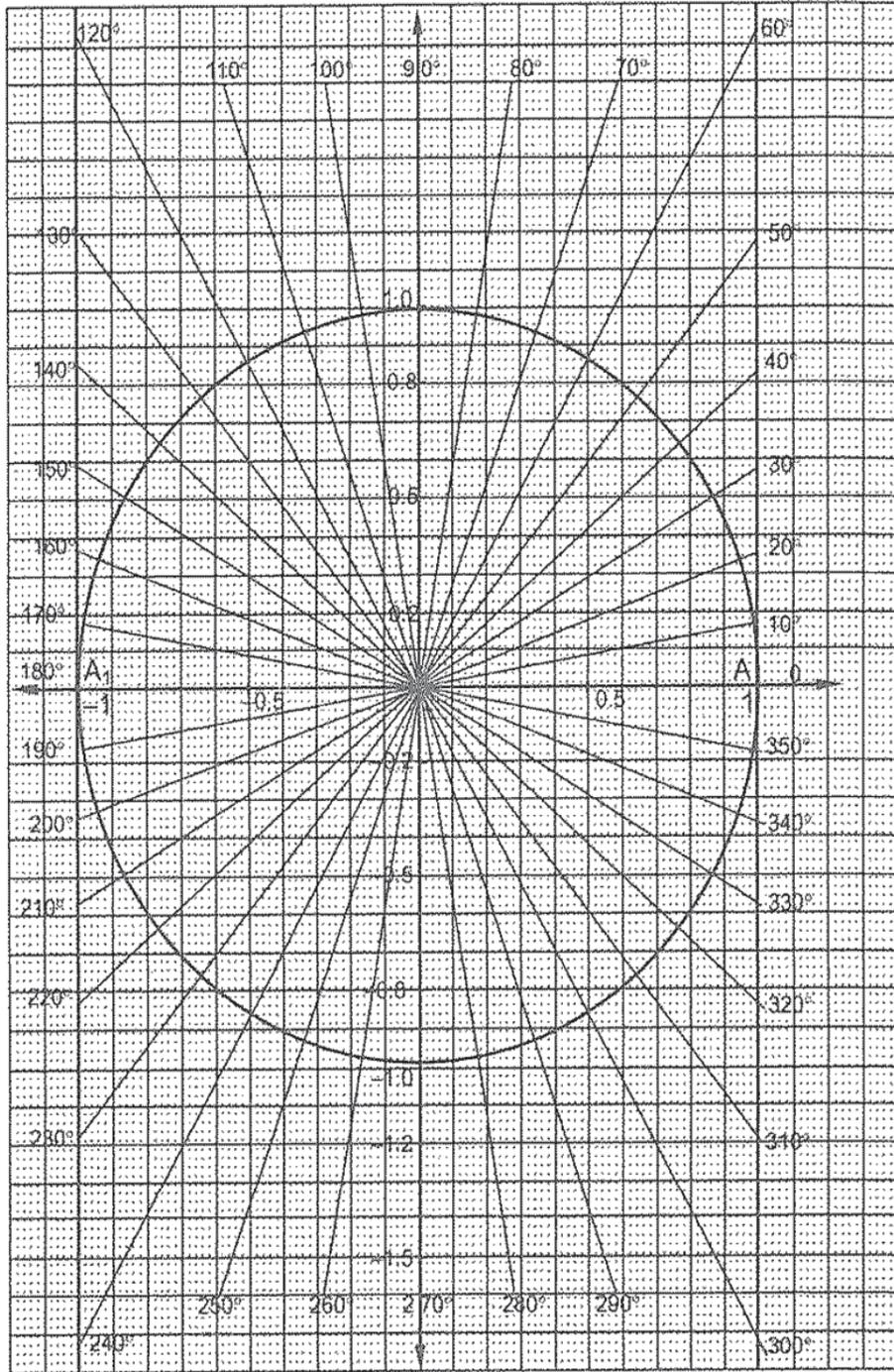


Figure 4.7

Note that the coordinate is 1 or -1 in all cases. For example:

$$\tan 40^\circ = \frac{0.84}{1} = 0.84$$

$$\tan 130^\circ = \frac{1.2}{-1} = -1.2$$

$$\tan 210^\circ = \frac{-0.58}{-1} = 0.58$$

In Table 4.2 approximate values of $\tan \theta$ have been filled partly. The pupil can copy and fill in the remaining values and compare with those given in the trigonometrical tables.

Table 4.2: Approximate values of tangents of angles between 0° and 360°

Angle	20	60	140	210	240	310	330
Tangent	0.4		-0.85			-1.19	

Use of Coordinates of a Point in Determining Trigonometrical Ratios.

Trigonometrical ratios can be determined and their signs found by using coordinates of points in each quadrant. Figure 4.8 represents a circle centre O with radius r , subdivided into four quadrants by the coordinate axes.

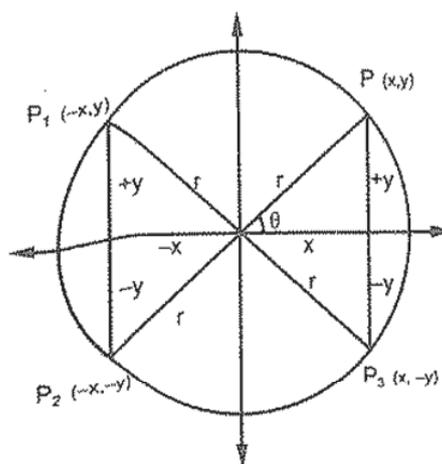


Figure 4.8

The x -coordinate is positive on the first and fourth quadrants but negative in the second and third quadrants. The y -coordinate is positive in the first and second quadrants but negative in the third and fourth quadrants.

Note that r is the radius.

$$\sin \theta = \frac{y\text{-coordinate}}{\text{radius}} = \frac{y}{r}$$

$$\cos \theta = \frac{x\text{-coordinate}}{\text{radius}} = \frac{x}{r}$$

$$\tan \theta = \frac{y\text{-coordinate}}{x\text{-coordinate}} = \frac{y}{x}$$

We are therefore able to find the trigonometrical ratios of angles using the coordinates of the terminal point of the side determining the angle.

Let, θ be any angle and P with coordinates $(-4,3)$ be a point on the terminal point of OP as shown in Figure 4.9.

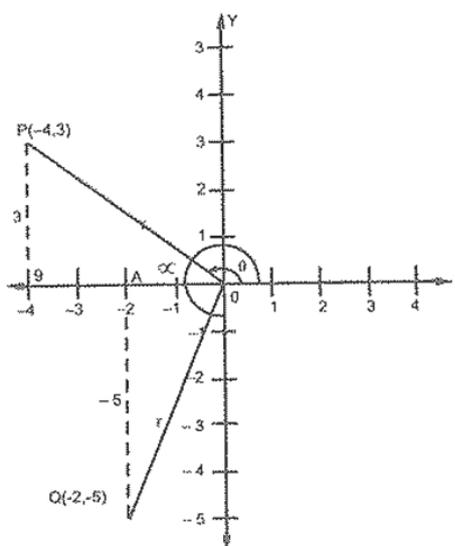


Figure 4.9

By Pythagoras theorem

$$r = OP = \sqrt{(-4)^2 + 3^2} = \sqrt{25} = 5$$

However, not all teachers followed such uniform and rigid formats. Some resisted by not planning their lessons, or planned following their own designs, which had implications for classroom pedagogic practices. Resistance to imposed lesson planning and schemes of work formats was explicit in all the inspection reports held in the three schools between 2000 and 2010. For example, at Urgova school, inspectors noted that in many subjects, “Schemes of work were not to format” (Bwindiki, 2009, p. 2). On lesson plans, they noted, “There was no culture of lesson planning” and those few whose plans were “available were not to format” (p. 2). Similarly, “Subject logbooks were available but not to format and there was lumping of periods.” (p. 2). Similar cases were reported at Urpisa (Bwindiki, 2007). Therefore, these inspectors also lacked creativity because they did not question why teachers were not planning to find out better ways of improving teachers’ work.

School inspectors also noted a finding that teachers worked without resources: “Few teaching aids were available and used during teaching” (Bwindiki, 2009, p. 3). Moreover, because teachers lacked textbooks and other teaching resources and, hence, did not use them, they failed to indicate relevant page numbers for particular topics and subtopics as the rigid lesson plan and schemes of work format required. However, this may also be evidence of resistance, as the inspection report demonstrates:

Form 2, 3 and 4 [teachers] had no lesson plans, while a few subject teachers had problems in stating teachers and students’ activities in behavioural terms. Form 5 and 6 used lesson plans used an incorrect format.... (Bwindiki, 2007, p. 7).

Similarly, as discussed in Chapter 7, school inspectors constructed teachers to prepare and use what they called ‘bank of questions’ for each subject department. In practice, they noted that, “The bank of questions file had both internal and national examinations” (Bwindiki, 2007, p. 5). Such texts and discourses reproduced policymakers’ and business publishers’ power inequalities over schools and teachers. Moreover, they constrained teachers’ opportunities to plan and apply their own curricular objectives, pedagogy, and evaluation activities that they thought relevant according to their school contexts. This is depicted in Figures 18, 19, and 20, where Mura’s lesson objectives and curriculum activities do not correlate and framed passive learning for stating that students’ activity was ‘listening to the teacher’. In addition, as shown in Figures 24 and 26, teachers failed to plan and practice ‘evaluative remarks’.

This may be because of a lack of creativity to design objectives as these were unstated in the subject syllabus.

In addition to being rigid and limiting teacher creativity and critical thinking, such lesson plan formats reproduced behaviourist dominant discourses and ideologies that reduced the curriculum to rigid behavioural objectives and outcomes based on Blooms' (1956) Taxonomy of Educational Objectives. Such tools pre-specified a rigid number of stages of a lesson, curriculum process, learning activities, and teaching aids and resources, with specific objectives to achieve and evaluate. However, in practice, such plans were inflexible and difficult to involve learners and achieve curriculum objectives, especially with large class sizes and limited textbooks.

TEACHER'S LESSON PLAN						
Date	Subject	Class	Period	Time	Number of students	
25/07/12	Maths	IV	9:20-10:40	80min	Registered	Present
					71	69
Main Topic: TRIGONOMETRY						
Sub-Topic: Application of trigonometry (real) ratios.						
General Goal: At the end of the topic students must know how to draw sine and cosine graphs and their applicability in life						
Specific Objectives: At the end of the sub-topic:						
1. Students should be able to solve practical problems						
2. Students should be able to analyse practical problems						
3. Students should be able to identify angle of elevation						
4. Students should be able to show angle of depression						
Teaching Aids or Resources:						
T.A.R. figure math tables and math book.						
Reference Books:						
Book IV mathematics for secondary schools by (T.I.E) chapter 4, page (119-123)						
LESSON PLAN PRESENTATION						
Stage	Minutes	Teacher's Activities		Students' Activities		
Introduction:						
	10	- Reviewing the previous lesson and doing correction. - Introducing new subtopic.		- Doing correction and revision. - Listening to the teacher.		

Presentation:			
	45	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - To discuss with students the angle of elevation and depression in practical problems. - To guide them on how to solve the practical problems. - To discuss with students the application of trig ratios in life. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Discussing the angle of elevation and depression. - Solving practical problems. - Discussing the application of trig ratios in life.
Application/Practice:			
	15	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Giving students few questions for them to try solve. - Correcting misconceptions. - Giving them class/home work EX 4-4 pg (121-123) 1, 2, 4, 11. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - doing question provided on the board. - Doing correction - giving home/class work.
Closing:			
	10	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Giving a summary of the lesson by asking questions and introducing the next sub-topic. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Answering questions and listening to the teacher.
Self evaluation:			
.....			
.....			
.....			
.....			

Figure 26. Mura's curriculum plan for 'Applications of Trigonometrical Ratios' sub-topic taught at Rugosa

Source: Mura's lesson plan booklet

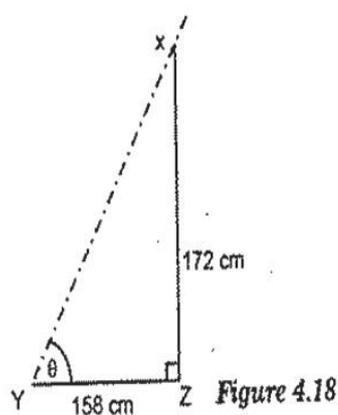
Applications of Trigonometrical Ratios

Trigonometrical ratios can be used in solving practical problems.

Example 1: A man who is 172cm tall, notes that the length of his shadow is 158cm. Find the angle of elevation of the sun.

Solution: In Fig. 4.18, XZ represents the man's height, YZ the length of his shadow and θ sun's angle of elevation.

$$\begin{aligned}\tan \theta &= \frac{172\text{cm}}{158\text{cm}} \\ &= 1.089 \\ \theta &= 47^{\circ}26'\end{aligned}$$



\therefore The angle of elevation of the sun is $47^{\circ}26'$.

Example 2: Petro starts from a point P and cycles 19.8cm to a point in a direction $N 41^{\circ}22' W$. How far has he travelled West and North respectively?

119

Figure 27. Curriculum content for 'Trigonometry' topic taught by Mura at Rugosa. Source: TIE (2002, p. 119).

The outcome of teachers' reproduction of marketised lesson plans and marketised textbooks was a construction of passive, linear, fixed, and rigid curriculum organisation from 'introduction', 'presentation', 'closing', to 'self-evaluation'. Each stage was set to a rigid 'time', 'teachers' activities', and 'students' activities'. For example, Abubaka's lesson plan structure (Appendix 22) constructed teaching in a hierarchy of discrete, sequential stages from 'Introduction' to 'Self-evaluation'. In each stage, 'Teachers' Activities' were separated from 'Students' Activities' as if these were

independent events. The social and interactive nature of curriculum construction was backgrounded in this plan. That is, one-way learning was constructed because of a lack of interaction between the teacher and students. For example, in the ‘Application/Practice’ stage when Abubaka was ‘Demonstrating the way muscles work and their adaptations’, students were “Observing carefully and practising themselves”. The resources for this demonstration and how students demonstrated muscles working were unclear.

In addition, there were no critical thinking activities, which could have activated students’ thinking to grasp the concept and the process of ‘muscle contractions’ and ‘muscle cramp’. Also, the link between the two curriculum objectives, stated as ‘(1) describe the three types of muscles’ and ‘(2) explain the concept of muscles cramp’, and the pedagogic practice was missing. Consequently, the ‘types of muscles’ and ‘muscle cramp’ were discussed but not indicated as part of the pedagogic practice, although they were stated as curriculum objectives. These reflect a deficiency in teachers’ pedagogic content knowledge.

Further, although Abubaka stated to refer to two textbooks in the lesson and there was a hand drawn diagram on a manila sheet showing ‘skeletal muscles’, these were not accessible because of clarity as it was mainly black and white in colour and small in size. Abubaka copied the diagram from a marketised textbook (Juakali, 2008, p. 19, Figures 28 and 29). This limitation constrained Abubaka’s planned pedagogic practice of the students ‘Observing carefully and practising themselves’. The source of this contradiction was observed in the curriculum content in the textbooks used by Abubaka (Figures 28 and 29).

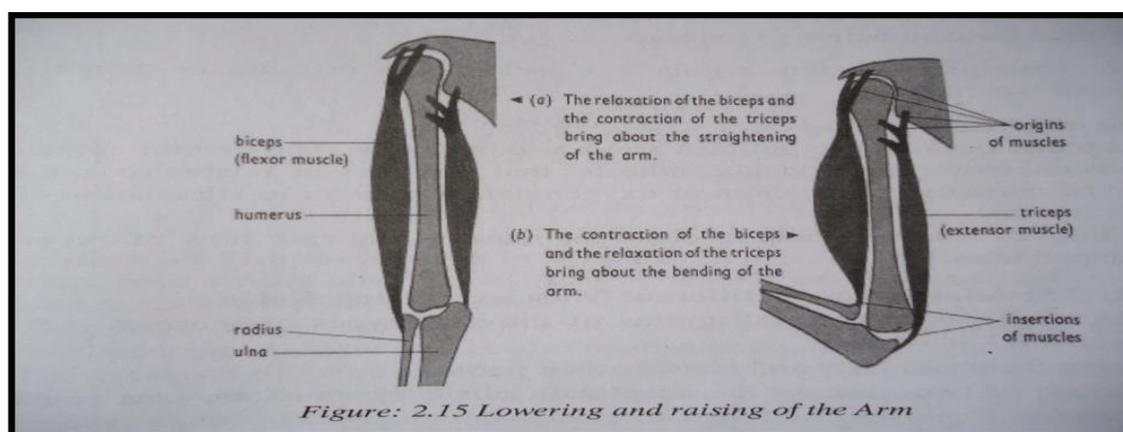


Figure 28. ‘Lowering and raising of the arm’.

Source: (Juakali, 2008, p. 20).

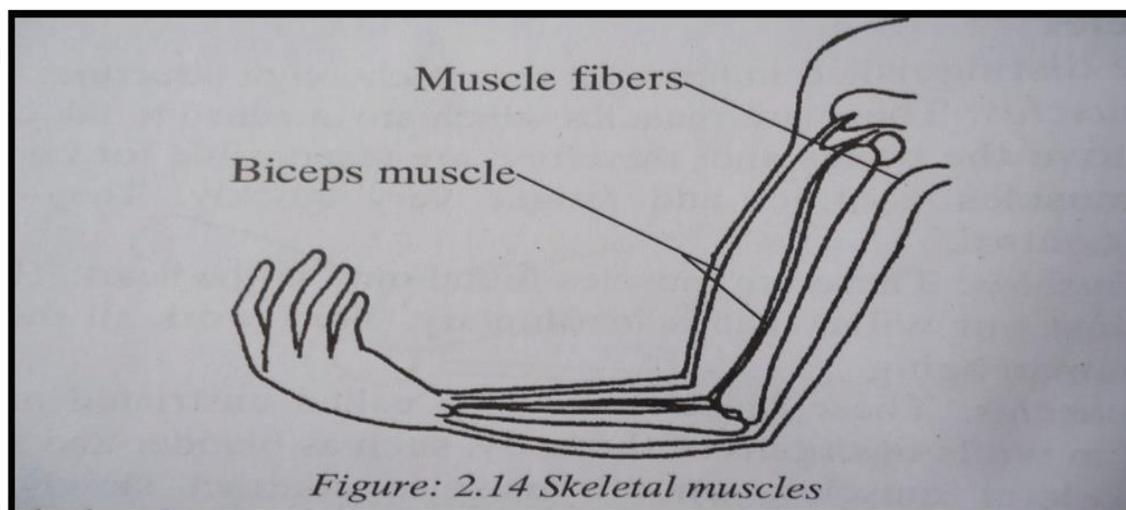


Figure 29. ‘Skeletal muscles’.
Source: (Juakali, 2008, p. 19).

Further, data shows that examination ideologies reshaped teachers’ action planning, which included the what, when, and how they planned their work. This was observed at Urpisa where Mathematics teachers believed that action planning is relevant, “especially for [teachers] teaching examination classes. It was agreed that teachers who [were] teaching the examination classes should prepare an action plan” (Urpisa Head of Mathematics Department, 2004b, p. 1). This indicates that planning was a seasonal or periodic activity for these teachers, especially for ‘examination classes’, rather than planning being part of teachers’ work throughout the school programme. That is, teacher curriculum planning was meant to enable students’ to pass examinations rather than regular teachers’ work practice. Thus, because of the importance of curriculum planning and decision making in teachers’ work, periodic planning constrained the setting of objectives, pedagogy, curriculum processes, and outcomes.

8.3 The politics of classroom pedagogy selection, practice, and resistance

In Chapter 7, I discussed how the structuring of teachers’ pedagogical codes by the state, business publishers, and capitalist financial institutions through marketisation policy texts and discourses reconstructed less access to resources, decision making, and power/knowledge. This meant that teachers had less control over the selection and implementation of pedagogies. Rather, they were positioned to take pedagogies as

given. However, with school cultures, teachers' histories, and marketisation policy contexts, some of those given pedagogies could not work in practice. Therefore, teachers constructed their own pedagogies. The next section discusses the pedagogic practices constructed by subject teachers in different schools, academic subjects, and historical contexts.

8.3.1 Reproduction of dominant pedagogic practices and passive learning cultures

Findings indicate that most subject teachers in the three schools who participated in this study reproduced the *expository* pedagogic practices of lectures, lesson notes construction by the teacher and taking by students, teacher demonstrations, and memorisation. Others were *one student reading for all others* and *PowerPoint presentations*. Below, I discuss these and the subject positions constructed for teachers and students, and their implications for curriculum, knowledge, and learner identities.

8.3.1.1 Lesson notes copying

Findings indicate that despite some variations, the common classroom pedagogic practice in all the three schools and subjects was teachers' *lesson notes construction* and taking by students. Both experienced and beginning teachers read and summarised or copied MCR varieties and constructed new lesson notes that were then copied by students from the chalkboard. Due to frequent curricular changes and reviews, some teachers constructed new notes rather than relying on old ones. However, this practice did not encourage teachers' and students' creativity because such lesson notes were copied from marketised textbooks to teacher notebook, then to the chalkboard. Alternatively, some copied the subject matter content directly from a book to the chalkboard. Thus, the teacher dominated curriculum construction from notes construction, to classroom content presentation, to developing a chalkboard summary. Sometimes, they solved 'questions and answers' from MCR. These practices positioned students as dependent and passive readers and learners because they memorised those 'readymade' notes. These pedagogic practices reproduced teachers' power over students and contradicted independent and participatory learning discourses. Kwasu adds:

Let me say/ because of these frequent changes/ that sometimes you find that you have prepared yourself/ for such things like notes/ to teach may be Form III/ or probably Form I/ or whichever/ ... as I told you that I had notes that had been using for long time/ but they became outdated/ you get me?// That is also a problem/ you have to start afresh//

However, a few teachers like Kwasu combined notes with *PowerPoint* presentations. This is because Kwasu had a large teaching load and he also had access to computer facilities that he got from training workshops in Morogoro in 2011. Before that, he practised more with note writing and lectures:

Because the books are not there/ and I am supposed to teach all those classes/ I mostly use PowerPoint// I use PowerPoint/ which enable me/ probably if I have prepared my notes/ or when I am teaching it means I have to summarize things on the/ power point/ and then I display on what/ on the board//

These findings on lesson notes taking pedagogic practice were supported by a 2007 Urpisa inspection report that showed that notes taking discourses were being reconstructed, even for high school students who could have been empowered to construct their own notes in the course of learning to encourage independent learning identity. The report stated: “Form 5 and 6 also had unchecked copy type notes.” (Bwindiki, 2007, p. 5).

8.3.1.2 Teacher lecturing

As shown above, some teachers who used lesson notes constructed lectures that positioned them as the main actors and performers of all or most of the curriculum activities from the stages of planning, to decision-making, to implementation. For teachers like Abubaka, notes preparation was followed by ‘kicking-off lectures’ because of ‘few textbook copies’ that were available. They facilitated lectures with ‘some questions for homework’, ‘essays for group discussions’, and ‘things that are found in our environment’ that students brought to school, like ‘moss plants’, for limited practical sessions.

Similarly, at Urpisa, findings showed that the selection of ‘teacher-centred’ pedagogic practice was a result of inadequate teacher knowledge of subject matter and pedagogy because a newly employed History teacher used resources that were ‘contrary to the concept intended’. This resource “showed the estimated number of Jews put into

concentration camps in different parts of Europe... instead of slaves shipped to American and other parts of the world” (Bwindiki, 2011, p. 6).

8.3.1.3 A student or a teacher reading aloud for others

Findings indicated that although the *competence based curriculum* policy emphasised pedagogic transformation from teacher-dominated and content-based curricula to student-centred pedagogic practices, this transformation was constrained by marketisation policy texts and discourses because of less MCR available. Consequently, teachers and students constructed dominant pedagogies, like ‘one student or a teacher reading aloud for others’. For example, in a planned English Language curriculum that required students to read and comprehend a passage or a text from a selected textbook, less access to texts led either the teacher or a selected student to *read aloud* a text at a time. Reading aloud was facilitated by dividing the class into a number of groups that were determined by available books for a particular lesson, followed by reading a text, or discussing a concept or a question prepared by the teacher. Consequently, this pedagogy reproduced teachers’ and a few students’ power and domination because knowledge was only accessible to them. Further, it reproduced passive learning cultures and identities.

This situation was observed in an ethnographic classroom observation with a Form I English language class who read *Hawa the Bus Driver* (Mabala, 1988a). Estomina shared the only nine copies of the book among nine groups of between seven to ten students,. While other students were scrambling for copies, some students remained standing in groups in the opposite direction from the text due to a lack of space and distance from the text. Consequently, Estomina divided Chapter one into four sections: A, B, C, and D to read for 40 minutes. While one student at a time was reading in the groups, some students failed to access the text during the whole 40 minute period because of large groups where some students sat facing in the opposite direction. Some students failed to see and hear concepts and ideas that Estomina was pointing to, explaining, and illustrating.

Thus, some students easily lost content sequence during the reading process because they could not follow the reading. This distorted the interaction, and communication of meaning and understanding of planned curricular goals and

objectives. For example, a student in *Group 1* read the first paragraph of Chapter A in the text, with other students listening. When she finished reading the chapter, she asked:

Ashura: What is the message of this section?

Few students: Working hard.

Another few students: Some women are confident and strong enough.

Third group of few students: Even women can drive buses.

Joakim: Some women are aggressive....

Although this English Language curriculum text aimed to empower students with gender power/knowledge that could help reduce gender stereotyping reproduced through the school curriculum, this was constrained by less student access to such discourses caused by marketisation policy reforms.

The other impacts of such pedagogic practices resulting from inadequate access to *class readers*, as described by Estomina, was learning time wastage, less participation, and passive reading and reflection. There was also less knowledge construction:

Instead of reading individually the book/ the class reader/ we read as group in the classroom/ and make analysis in groups/ this takes long time and concentration/ participation is very low/ and students don't get time for individual reading// they also use only few sense organs/ and less understanding//

Through passive reading and dominant pedagogic practices, the curriculum reconstructed passive learner identities because of fast reading, answering questions without adequate content, and less use of senses. This further constrained critical reflection, comprehension, understanding, summarising, and production of thematic ideas contained in such English language novels and stories. These practices further reconstructed a lack of reading cultures among students and the larger society, as explained in Chapter 1.

The above finding was also clear from a 2007 Urpisa Mathematics inspection report (Bwindiki, 2007), that states:

Form 5 had a lesson on “Inverse of a 3 x 3 Matrix”. Although the lesson was sequential, students followed with difficulty. Proper lesson environment, foundation, and appropriate strategy lacked. More preparation was needed. Participatory lessons should be planned for performance improvement. (p. 7).

As Maneno provides further evidence, some Mathematics teachers resorted to ‘cramming’ marketised textbook contents rather than understanding mathematical concepts, principles, and procedures:

So what is required sometimes is that/ the teacher needs to make adequate preparation/ so instead of the teacher making adequate preparation/ they try to go on cramming only// They are teachers to cram something to teach//

Consequently, such teachers lacked power/knowledge that could have raised their confidence to the extent that when asked by active students or were required to elaborate, their pedagogic sequence was distorted. This is also shown with Maneno’s experience at a Rugosa Mathematics class:

After getting in the classroom begins to present the lesson/ in the crammed sequence/ flow// In between the presentation/ when a student asks a question/ or needs more elaboration/ the flow is completely lost and the teacher is totally confused// She or he fails to understand whether to proceed with instruction or stop//

Cramming meant some teachers failed to sequence the subject matter in ways that motivated and enhanced students’ participation, understanding, and knowledge construction. Consequently, some teachers lacked the power to lead and facilitate the learning process. The classroom learning process was uninteresting, and the social relations between the teacher and students was poor. This led some teachers to resist teaching and remain in the staffroom, or they constructed a hidden curriculum by socialising with other teachers or students. The implication on teacher identity was significant because students developed negative beliefs and attitudes towards teachers and called some teachers ‘dotcom generation teachers’. Maneno explains:

The teacher will go on making stories with his or her colleagues in the staffroom/ or with students in the classroom during the lessons// They have even reached an extent of being nicknamed as “dotcom generation teachers”//

Thus, at Rugosa, some regular Mathematics teachers were called ‘shallow teachers’ because of inadequate power/knowledge. The outcome was that at Rugosa, some students invited *high school leavers* to teach Mathematics.

Similarly, combined with the shortage of regular qualified teachers and textbooks, this situation enabled HODs to seek *part time teachers*, or other professionals, like

accountants, statisticians, and doctors. For example, at Urgova, statisticians and accountants from regional offices were invited to teach basic Mathematics topics on ‘Statistics’ (URT, 1997a; 2005a, pp. 91-97) and ‘Accounts’ (pp. 115-118) after curricular changes in 2005. Furthermore, in Biology, at Urgova, doctors were invited to teach HIV/AIDS and related topics. However, because these were not professional teachers, they constructed pedagogic practices of ‘delivering lectures on such topics’ that reproduced their professional power and positioned students as passive and dependent learners. Such classroom pedagogies also constrained regular teacher creativity and motivation to plan and organise curriculum content in ways that encouraged an active and constructivist curriculum. These constructed pedagogic practices contradicted with the 2005 *Competence-based curriculum* policy discourses that emphasised participatory pedagogies and competencies.

8.3.2 Students’ resistance, negotiation, and compliance to dominant pedagogies

The above sections have shown that the constructed curriculum was mostly dominated by teachers and some students. It also positioned other students as passive, dependent, and less creative learners. Such dominant pedagogies also reproduced teachers’ power, ideologies, beliefs, and identity. In this section, I discuss the four main forms of resistance, contestation, negotiation, or compliance constructed by students.

8.3.2.1 Hiding teachers’ lesson notes

Some Urpisa students resisted teachers’ note taking and exposition without adequate teacher elaborations. However, this intersected with the teacher identity of young graduates. Students experienced that such teachers constructed note taking and used MCR similar to the ones they used. Such students also had the ideology that a ‘good teacher’ is one who can provide long explanations through lectures and demonstrations, instead of by copying notes. Consequently, students were demotivated to attend note taking lessons, assuming that such teachers lacked the additional and new content knowledge they required. Further, some students resisted because they preferred some of the marketised textbooks and considered attending teachers’ lessons was a waste of time. As Matano explained, teachers who constructed a note taking pedagogy were considered by some students and other teachers as lacking subject matter knowledge and professional ethics. Such students were very ‘clever’ to identify the more serious teachers and would thus take advantage of their beliefs and do their own studies instead of coming to

class.. Some of these students resisted note taking by *hiding teachers' lesson notes*. For example, Urpisa General Studies' students had hidden their teacher's lesson notes to see her work without such notes. Matano elaborates:

Now you take a civics book for example and start copying it on the chalkboard/ while that book is available in the library/ while a student already has it from the 'streets'/ ... So you will find that students joke these teachers/ and as most of today's teachers are young/ they are young/ let's be frank/ they are young/ so what we have learned is that a student can 'time' the teacher's materials as what they did just few days ago/ this August/ what they did to us is that they took some of GS teacher's lesson materials/ when they took them/ they were trying to 'test' the teacher/ that is what I learned psychologically// They were testing the teacher/ if they take those notes/ does the teacher has another source?/ how will the teacher going to teach?//

However, this kind of resistance may be interpreted as gendered, because the teacher was a female. By hiding teachers' notes, the students negotiated power and challenged note taking pedagogies that passively positioned them and constrained their knowledge construction.

8.3.2.2 Abstaining from classroom lessons, exercises, and homework

Some Rugosa and Urgova students resisted teacher domination by truancy from school, classroom lessons, and not doing exercises and homework. These students absconded themselves from schools and classrooms because of a lack of *access* and '*difficulty*' discourses. At Rugosa, the *discourses of access to MCR* facilitated students to resist doing classroom lesson exercises, as Maneno explains:

So/ as the teacher presents/ writes on the chalkboard/ students copy them/ and put aside// the student has nowhere to make reference after the lesson// has no way to do exercises// The teacher leaves two questions for exercise/ or gives such and such exercises// students raise a concern that/ "but we don't have books/ how do we do such exercises"// the teacher tells them "purchase books"// he fails to consider that some of these students are from families/ that cannot even manage to pay bus fare for the children to travel to school/ in the morning//

From Maneno's experience, less access to MCR was reconstructed by parents'/students' low income that constrained students to perform their exercises. This intersected with teachers who believed that corporal punishment helped to enforce students obey teachers' instructions and orders. As discussed in Chapter 6, before 2002, students were punished as disciplinary actions toward behaviour modifications, including truancy and

non-performance of curricular exercises. However, the Urpisa school manager did not support corporal punishment for students' decisions to attend school or not. Further, students also decided *not to do exercises as she or he knows that nobody can punish them*. Nevertheless, Matano punished students who abstained from school, classroom lessons, exercises, and homework. This reconstructed the power struggle between the school manager, Matano, and some students.

On the other hand, the difficult discourses constructed students' ideologies that some subjects and topics were harder than others or some subjects were more important than others. Consequently, students decided to attend some lesson subjects or topics that they perceived as 'difficult', or 'compulsory' in the national testing and examinations systems, or if they had no questions and answers published in the MCR. For example, high school 'subsidiary subjects', like General Studies/Civics and BAM, were less emphasised than Physics and Mathematics that were considered as 'difficult'.

8.3.2.3 Verbal resistance, passive actions, and reporting to authorities

Evidence from the three schools shows that students also used 'verbal resistance' and passive actions in resisting note taking, teachers with less subject matter knowledge, and evaluation discourses that reproduced exercises from MCR. Verbal resistance included an evaluation of the teachers' work by historically labelling them as 'shallow teachers'. This also involved reporting to school authorities that they disliked such teachers. Mura elaborates:

So you will find that a student has an expensive book worth 50,000 shillings// So we had to borrow from students/ so that we can prepare our lesson notes/ and return the book// So this practice led students to devalue the teachers and their work// So the issue of availability of resources brings problems about students' attitude against teachers/ because we were now using them to get what to teach// they learned behaviours from previous students/ they said that we are shallow//

For example, Rugosa A-level students did not respect some Mathematics teachers who borrowed books from them to access curriculum knowledge or punished them. They opted for 'part-time teachers' from other schools, Form VI leavers, or peer teaching because these practices enabled power negotiation, circulation, and sharing through expression of ideas, participation, and socialisation. Further, these resistances were reshaped by *Teach Yourself/ Where There is No Teacher* discourses (Passolt, 2008) that constructed students' knowledge and beliefs that Rugosa lacked qualified Mathematics

teachers. This meant that they had to ‘teach themselves’ through ‘questions and answers’ that were also constructed by MCR, ‘syllabus coverage’, school inspections, and examination discourses. At Rugosa, students resisted regular and experienced teachers who were against syllabus coverage for passing examinations and desired part-time and less qualified teachers who supported these.

8.3.2.4 Students’ strikes or riots

In extreme case scenarios, the Rugosa students resisted through strikes/riots. They boycotted classes and caused physical destruction of public property, like burning the school buildings and breaking windows; they also absconded into town for food and drink. Such events were also reshaped by school mismanagement, corruption, and government budget decline, leading to inadequate basic social services, like water and electricity, as well as adequate teachers. Mura says:

Generally/ this school is very popular in this zone for problems// there has been students’ strikes for several times// Recently/ even last year so 2011/ but in 2004/ and / I think 2007/ and again in 2009// For example Last year in November// (2011) students went to strike/ because of water/ ...Nobody is seriously handling the school problems/ So they went for strike and the school was close for two months// administration is a problem//

These events exemplified the strained social relations between students and teachers that affected social interaction in the curriculum construction process because they led to hate, fear, mistrust, loss of confidence and, hence, further resistance. These attitudes reshaped power relations between teachers, school administrators, and students and demotivated students to learn particular subjects because of hating teachers, which further constrained power/knowledge and identity by constructing passive learners and readers, as I have discussed in the previous sections. This may explain why Rugosa has had recurring riots from time to time over the past two decades.

Moreover, despite the above negative effects, resistance promoted students’ democracy, identified sources of corruption, and made information available that improved schools’ social service provision. For example, the District Commissioners intervened to improve water and other social services at Rugosa. Mura adds:

After the school was closed/ the district commissioner came here/ and discussed/ and after one week water was available/ there was a problem with the pipeline/ from the source//

Moreover, the District Council investigated corruption practices regarding the CG funds that were rampant at Rugosa's, leading to disciplinary and legal actions taken against corrupt individuals. One action was demotion and legal action against such individuals at the end of 2012. Consequently, hidden monetary information was made available to the school community, and corruption sources were identified as financial misuse and power abuse were exposed. For example, after the riots and investigations, Rugosa teachers knew that the school received CG based on a formula. Mura explains:

This is because the rate is fixed for each student/ and to get the total amount of grants you multiply the number of students by that fixed amount// For example/ you have 5000 students and the district receives 50 million/ the 50 million is divided by 5000/ to get the grant per student// Each school will receive according to the number of students it had// So there was money/ but did not get into the stipulated use//

In the next section, I show that despite such struggles and constraints, the marketised curriculum reproduced inequalities, dominant ideologies, and identities that met capitalist, class, state, racial, ethnic, and gender interests.

8.4 The struggle for reproduction of dominant cultures and power/knowledge

This section critically analyses the marketised curriculum based on Bernstein's (1999) definition of 'official knowledge' as "the educational knowledge which the state constructs and distributes in educational institutions" (p. 243). The findings indicate that although the state aimed to construct official knowledge in terms of linguistic, mathematical, scientific, geographical, historical, and civic knowledge, as stipulated in the school curricula, there was a hidden agenda behind the marketisation policy reforms. This relates to the construction of capitalist class power/knowledge, passive consumer ideologies, and identities. As discussed below, this reproduction was enhanced in and through MCR texts and discourses that included textbook contents, illustrations like photos, maps, diagrams, and evaluation discourses like exercises, assignments, tests, and examinations. In the following section, I begin discussing how the marketised curriculum reproduced the hidden capitalist agenda of constructing consumer knowledge and ideologies with examples from Biology, Mathematics, and English Language curriculum texts and practices.

8.4.1 Reproduction of consumer cultures

It was found that since the marketisation policy adoption in 1991 and the subsequent curricula changes in 1996 and 2005, the marketised curriculum, pedagogy, and evaluation practices were sites and means for reproducing the dominant capitalist cultures of consumption, competition, and advertising of corporate products, as discussed below.

8.4.1.1 School textbooks and stationery discourses

There were also struggles and contestations to produce and reproduce the consumer culture through *school textbooks and stationery* discourses that were also constructed through subject syllabi, marketised textbooks, examinations, and classroom discursive practices. Examples include the consumption of ‘Manila paper’, ‘marker pens’, ‘coloured chalk’ ‘graph pape’, ‘textbooks’, ‘bank forms’, “recorded materials–video–audio cassettes” (URT, 2010c, p. 2); “maps, globes” (p. 4), and “calendar, travelling schedule” (p. 12). Within the marketised textbooks, for example, the discourses of “**A Famous African Writer**” (Oxford/TIE, 1996, pp. 70 Figure 30) and “**USING DICTIONARY**” (URT, 2010c, pp. 4-5) topics required teachers and students to “use dictionaries effectively for obtaining meanings and spellings of words” (p. 4).

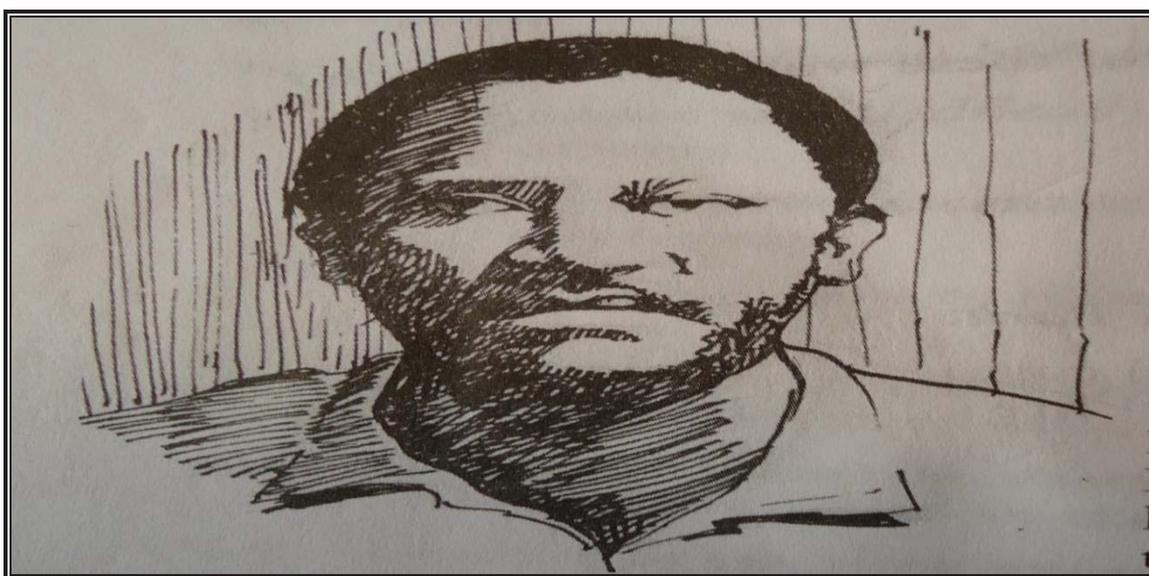


Figure 30. Reproducing gender and capitalist publishers’ power/knowledge through textbook publishing knowledge.

Source: (Oxford/TIE, 1996, p. 70).

More specifically, in addition to reproducing the consumption of textbooks and English Language knowledge, the discourses of “A Famous African Writer” (Oxford/TIE, 1996, p. 70) reproduced (1) authors’ and publishers’ power/knowledge; (2) profit making by advertising this and other publications by Okot p’Bitek and the Oxford company; and (3) male gender power/knowledge. As Appendix 21 shows, the secondary school curriculum was dominated by male-authored texts from dominant ethnic groups in Tanzania and Africa, such as Ndunguru, Kadege, Thiong’o, Achebe, and Msaki. The power of these groups was reshaped at global and national levels by selecting their textbooks for the school curriculum.

The consumption of capitalist textbooks was also constructed through schools’ enrolment instructions (Appendix 14) and teacher education curriculum policy (Appendices 28-31). These instructed students and teachers to purchase and use marketised textbooks without opportunities to select or question their relevance to social and economic needs. These discourses not only limited teachers’ and students’ thinking and creativity to design and discover their own resources, knowledge, and pedagogic techniques, but also reshaped them into passive consumers of capitalist industrial products which were part of the curriculum contents.

8.4.1.2 Shopping and eating discourses

Teachers and students read, understood, wrote, discussed, and summarised novels, plays, and poems. These carried with them such consumption power/knowledge and ideological messages, like “Eat more” (by ‘Scottish poet and dramatist’ Joe Corrie (1894-1968) found in *Selected Poems* (TIE, 1996b, p. 35); ‘shopping’; photos of ‘Africola’ with ‘new taste’ (Figure 31); and ‘supermarket’. These discourses were further reproduced through national examinations (URT, 2008). ““Eat More” reads “Eat more fruit! The slogans say, ‘More fish, more beef, more bread!’... ‘Eat more Bloody grass!’” (TIE, 1996b, p. 35). It is very surprising that these old, European poetic texts formed curriculum discourses and knowledge in Tanzanian secondary schools in the 21st century. Similar discourses were found in the English Language teachers’ guide (TIE, 2011d, p. 38): “**As greedy as Hyena**” (ICD, 1992, pp. 52-54) which construct consumption through the discourses of “Mr. Kulakula”, and discourses of “nutrients” (Figure 32).



Figure 31. Discursive construction of consumption cultures through advertising drinks.
Source: (Oxford/TIE, 1996, p. 27).

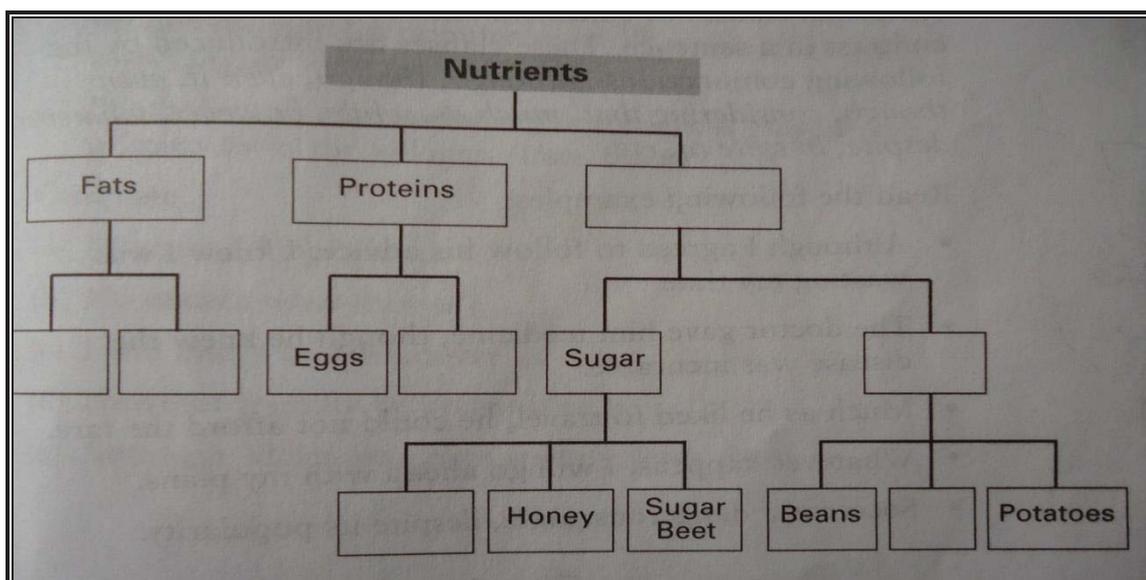


Figure 32. Discursive construction of consumption cultures through advertising food products.

Source: Oxford/TIE (1996, p. 15).

Others examples of discourses include a Form I English curriculum topic on ‘Talking about shopping’ which informed teachers and students to learn contexts like “market, shop, supermarket, food store” (URT, 2010c, p. 22). Moreover, in “Expressing preferences” (URT, 2010c, p. 7), teachers and students reproduced advertising and consumption ideas through sentences like “I prefer tea to coffee ... [and] ... We prefer travelling to farming” (p. 7), and “*Speechwork: In a Supermarket*” (Oxford/TIE, 1996,

8.4.1.3 Travelling and communication discourses

Some textbook and examination texts constructed consumption through travelling discourses found in textbooks of “cars”, “telephones”, TV, “videos”, “telephone conversations” (ICD, 1992, pp. 50-51) (Figures 35 and 36). Other included “Radio” and “newspaper”, “Scientific calculator”, “computer” (URT, 2010a, pp. 2, 5, 6, 7), and exercises that students and teachers had to “act out” and read “telephone message” (p. 51). Similarly, the discourses of “**Touring a ship**” (TIE, 1996a, pp. 62-65) combined with those of ‘radio room’ constructed the consumption of capitalist consumer products and information through travelling and listening to radio behaviours.

Similarly, students talked “about visits ... telephone calls ... reservations” (URT, 2010c, pp. p. 21-22) in hotel ‘locations’. Another example was of technology: “The flying of Aircraft” (Oxford/TIE, 1996, pp. 46-47) with pictures that informed students that “There [were] many things which have been modified over time. A telephone, for example, used to be operated by dialling but nowadays we just press buttons.” (p. 49). Students were asked to “Describe the modifications which have taken place” (p. 49) in a list of consumer items that included an ‘old telephone’ and a ‘modern telephone’, emphasised by pictures. By doing this assignment, teachers and students reconstructed consumption cultures: knowledge, ideologies, and desires to use those goods, rather than producing them.

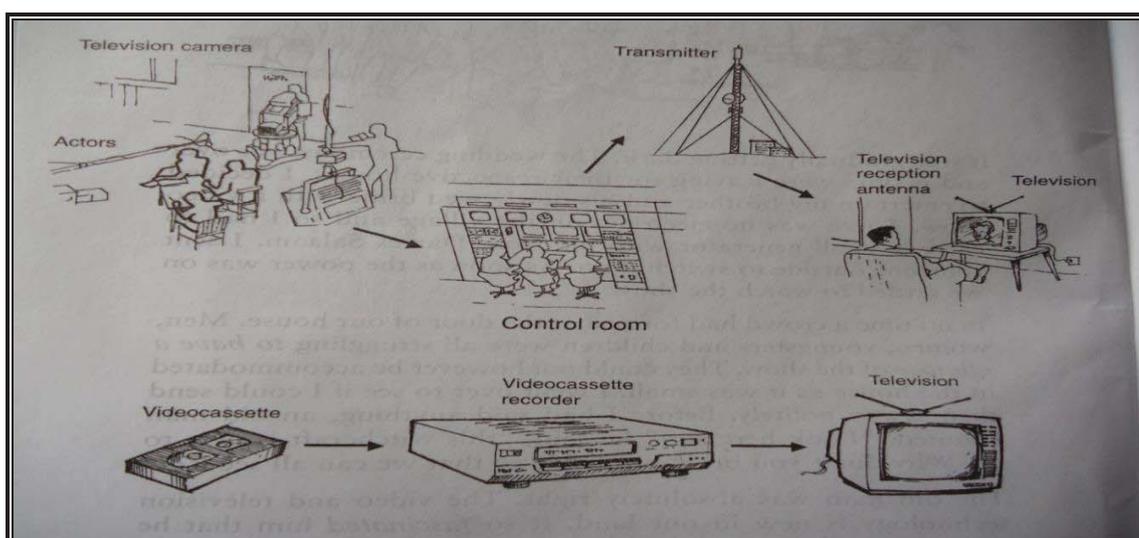


Figure 35. Discursive construction of consumption through telecommunication devices I.

Source: (Oxford/TIE, 1996, pp. 2).

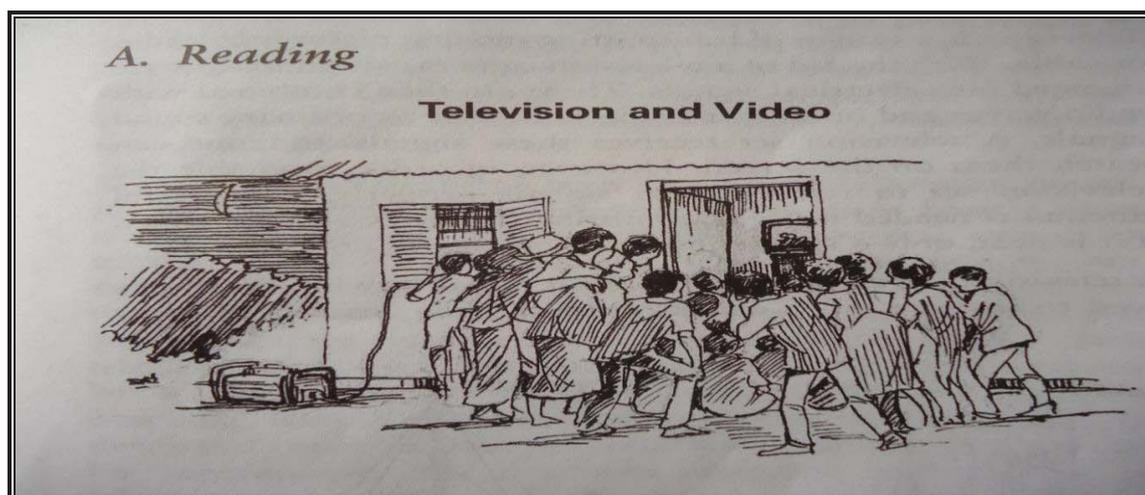


Figure 36. Discursive construction of consumption through telecommunication devices II.

Source: Oxford/TIE (1996, p. 49).

Such discourses also constructed consumption rather than production knowledge and skills that would empower society to uproot itself from the capitalist ties of dependence, exploitation, and domination. They constrained teachers' and students' knowledge and skills to produce or manufacture such items. Others, such as the discourse of 'rifle' and 'machine gun' contradicted with the secondary curriculum policy objectives of enhancing "ethic ... and, cultural and moral values, customs, traditions and civic responsibilities and obligations." (URT, 2005b, p. v). Readers may also visit subject syllabi (URT, 1996b, 1996c, 1997a, 1997c, 2005a, 2005b, 2010c).

However, while some English curriculum texts constructed letter writing, other authors (Oxford/TIE, 1996) constructed contradictory discourses of letters as "the oldest and most commonly used means of communication" (p. 57). The author frames advertising discourses that promoted consumption cultures and ideologies for "telegraph, radio, telephone, television, and telex" (p. 57) as new communication technologies in the market.

8.4.1.4 Reproductive health products

Some Biology curriculum texts were also framed to promote consumption of industrially manufactured "family planning devices (condom, Intrauterine contraceptive device... contraceptive pills, spermicide and the calendar)" (URT, 2005b, p. 131). Similarly, condom consumption was advertised through a Mathematics textbook (Passolt, 2008, p. vii). Other consumer goods described in the Biology syllabus (URT,

2005b) were “Video tapes, Cassettes and charts showing people with different sexual behaviour” (p. 130). However, the multiple interpretations of such discourses may be empowering for teachers and students with knowledge to fight HIV/AIDS through condomisation. Nevertheless, this may stimulate risky sexual behaviour among teachers and students, believing that condoms prevent HIV/AIDS.

8.4.2 Construction of competition cultures and class power/knowledge

As Chapter 6 has shown, there was also a struggle through marketised curriculum texts to construct competition cultures among students as, for example, through a ‘Mathematics Research Competition’ (Mshimba, 2004) and “**Making the country green**” (TIE, 1996a, p. 5). In the latter, competition and class subordination were facilitated through reading “**the advertisement and the letters, then answer the questions that follow**” on “**Win Ts 200, 000/=**” (p. 5). The advertisement invited students to “a letter writing competition ... [to] ...The editor of People’s Voice” (p. 5) and with samples of three letters to the ‘editor’. There were many other similar texts in other MCR that performed similar functions including, but not limited to, “Inter-Secondary School Football Competition” (ICD, 1992, pp. 110), which also reproduced “letter writing” (p. 115) as an assignment. There was also “How I won a gold medal” (TIE, 1996a, pp. 30) text reading and exercises; “Traditional marriage customs” that reproduced the ideology of winning a “BP essay writing competition” (TIE, 1996a, p. 68); and the President and Education Minister awarding “THE BEST STUDENT IN THE COUNTRY” (Kadeghe, 2007, p. cover page Figure 37). This award to the best student is a struggle to reproduce examination ideologies because the teachers and students learn that the state and society value students who pass examinations rather than discovering new knowledge for radical socioeconomic change.

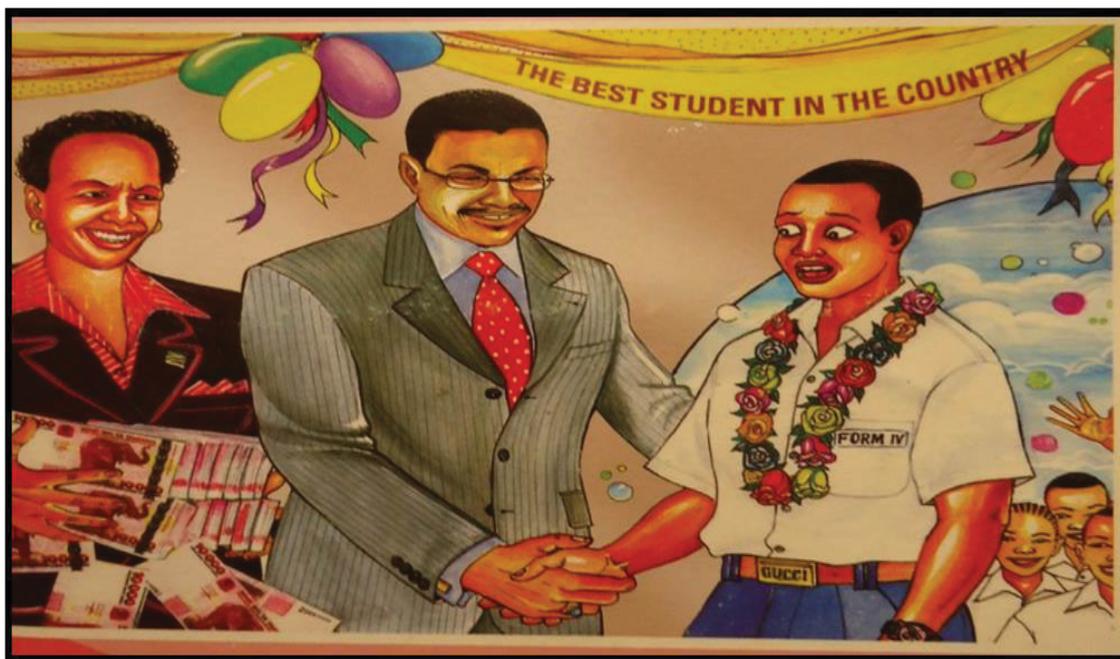


Figure 37. Discursive construction of competition cultures through Best Student Awards.

Source: Kadedghe (2007, p. cover page).

Other discourses that struggled to reconstruct state power and patriotism included “*Building the Nation*” (Barlow, 1971, pp. 14, Figure 38), that were also reconstructed through national symbols, such as schools’ daily raising of the national flag accompanied by singing the two national songs (Appendix 16).

Together, through these texts and discourses, the marketised curriculum aimed to construct environmental conservation and letter writing knowledge. However, they also reproduced editors’ power and positioned students as subordinates and competitors. In addition, they reproduced the consumption of media discourses and examination ideologies.

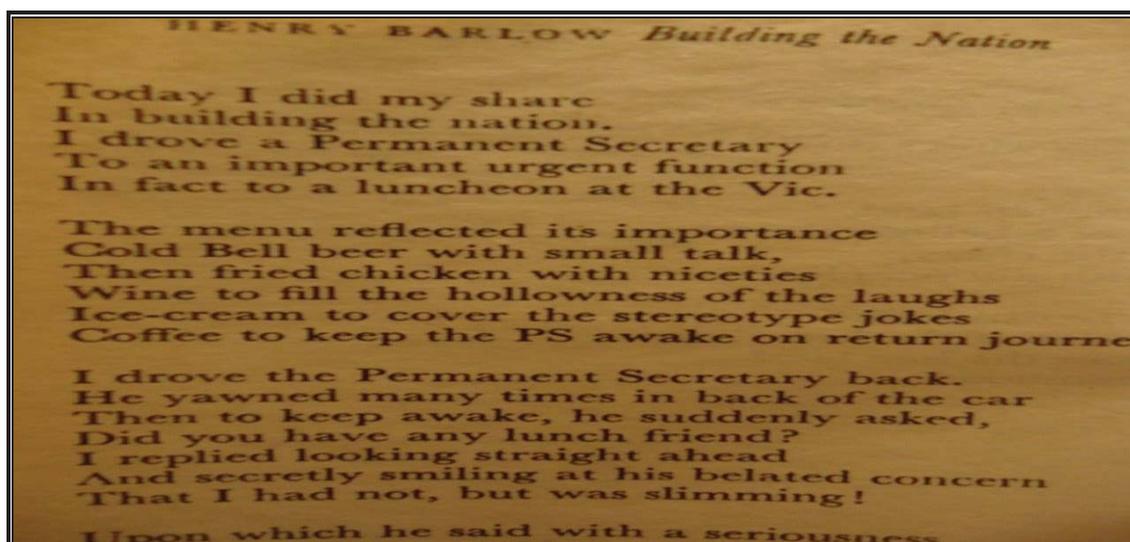


Figure 38. Reproducing state power and hegemony through ‘Building the Nation’ discourses.

Source: Barlow (1971, pp. 14).

8.4.3 Struggle for reproduction of gender, race, and ethnic and class power/knowledge

Through a marketised curriculum, the powerful groups also struggled to reproduce gender, race, and class power/knowledge, ideologies, and beliefs through the following texts and discourses.

8.4.3.1 Cultural and artistic texts and discourses: Music genres

As described in Chapter 6, some *cultural and artistic texts or music genres* competed with core curriculum texts and constrained reading, reflection, thinking, and creativity for understanding core curriculum texts. Instead, students memorised those music genres and read core texts only to pass examinations. These texts effectively reconstructed consumerism cultures, ideologies, desires, and class, gender, and race among some teachers and students. For example, *Sarafina* discourses reproduced the history of race and class struggles represented through the South African 1976 Soweto students’ uprisings (Ngema & Nicholson, 1992). On the other hand, *Tausi* reproduced some religious beliefs, male power and domination, and girls’ discrimination in schooling as compared to boys (KBC, 1999). It also reconstructed the belief that boys were more successful in schooling than girls. Similarly, most *Diamond* songs and *Kanumba’s* movies reconstructed love, sex, male domination, and femininity.

Similarly, there were discourse of “**African Art**” (Oxford/TIE, 1996, p. 75, Figure 39) that shows a man with African cultural tools, spear and shield, and two

women in feminine traditional dresses, carrying a child and shaking the child's hands, and carrying a pot on her head. It reproduced the consumption of dominant African cultural texts and products, male power, and the dominant discourses of femininity.

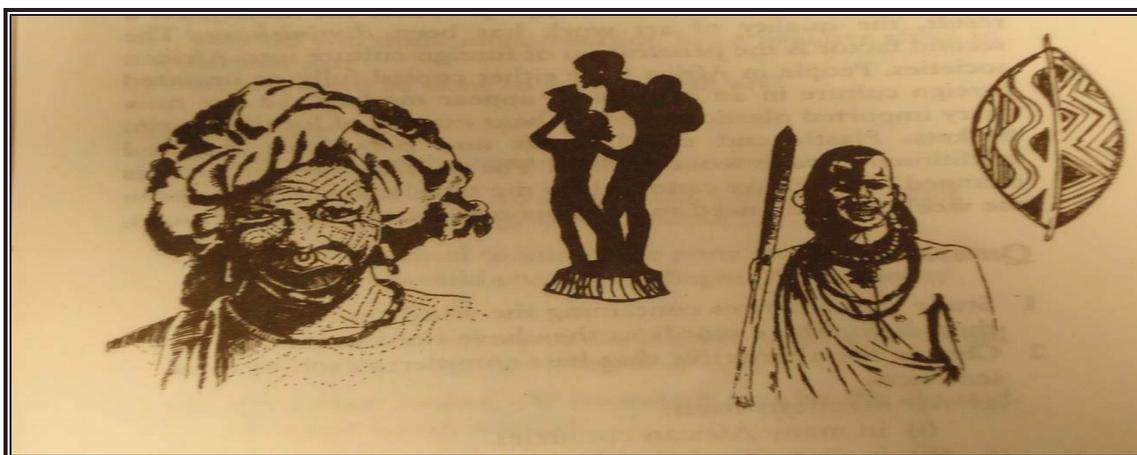


Figure 39. Feminine and masculine representation of men and women in English language textbooks.

Source: Oxford/TIE, (1996, p. 75)

Similar representations of gender power and domination and social practices is found in Rubadiri (1989) as shown on Figures 40, 41, 42, 43, and 44 where the social structures of women's femininity and men's masculinity have been reconstructed through dressing, facial representations, and social practices.

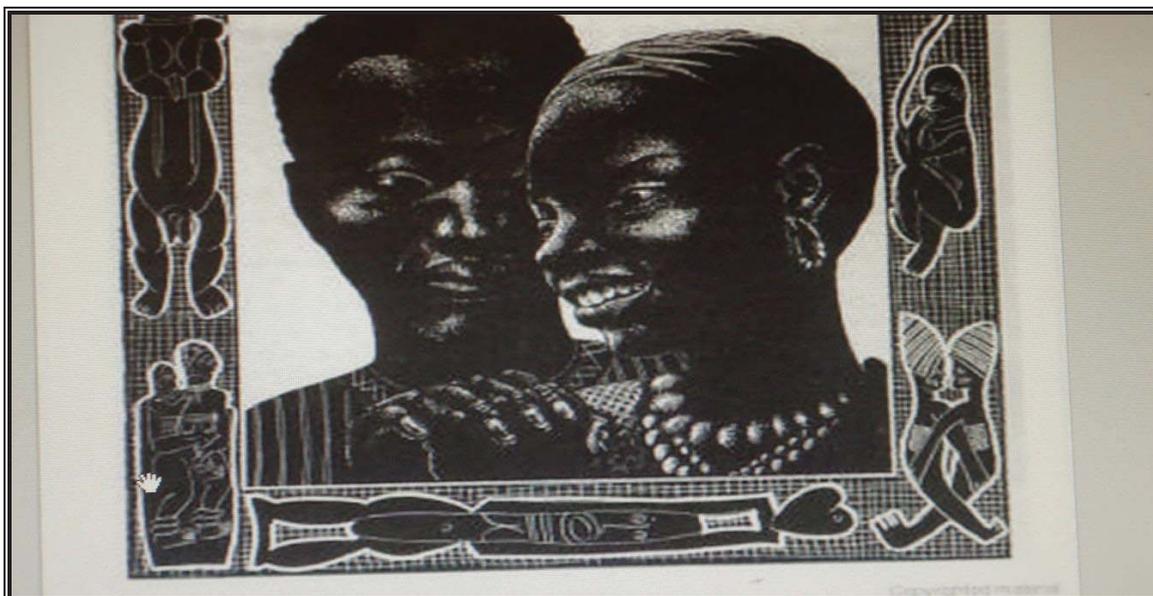


Figure 40. Feminine representation of women in English language textbooks I.

Source: Rubadiri (1989, p. 1)

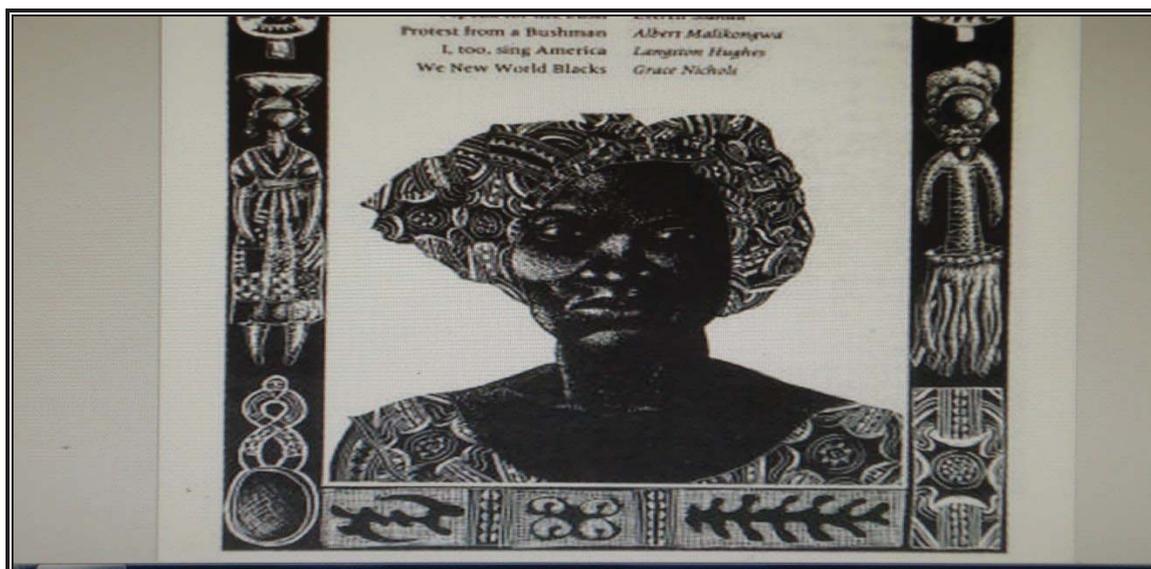


Figure 41. Feminine representation of women in English language textbooks II.
Source: Rubadiri (1989, p. 11).

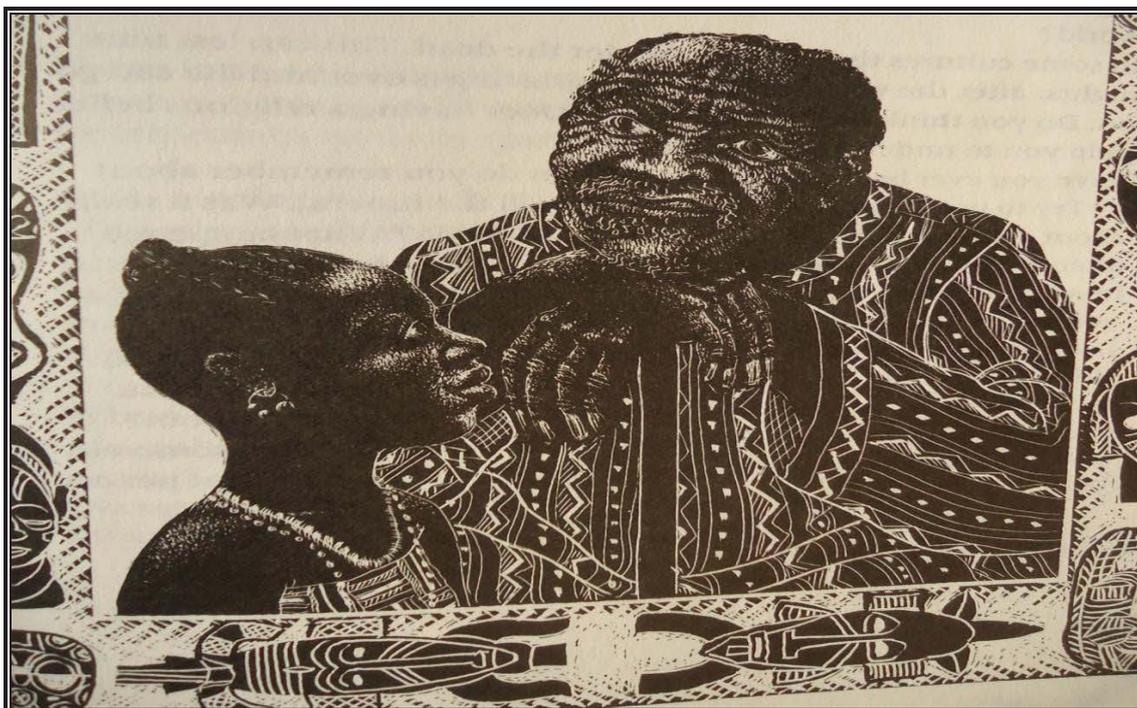


Figure 42. Cultural representation of African traditional beliefs in English language textbooks.
Source: Rubadiri (1989, p. 25).

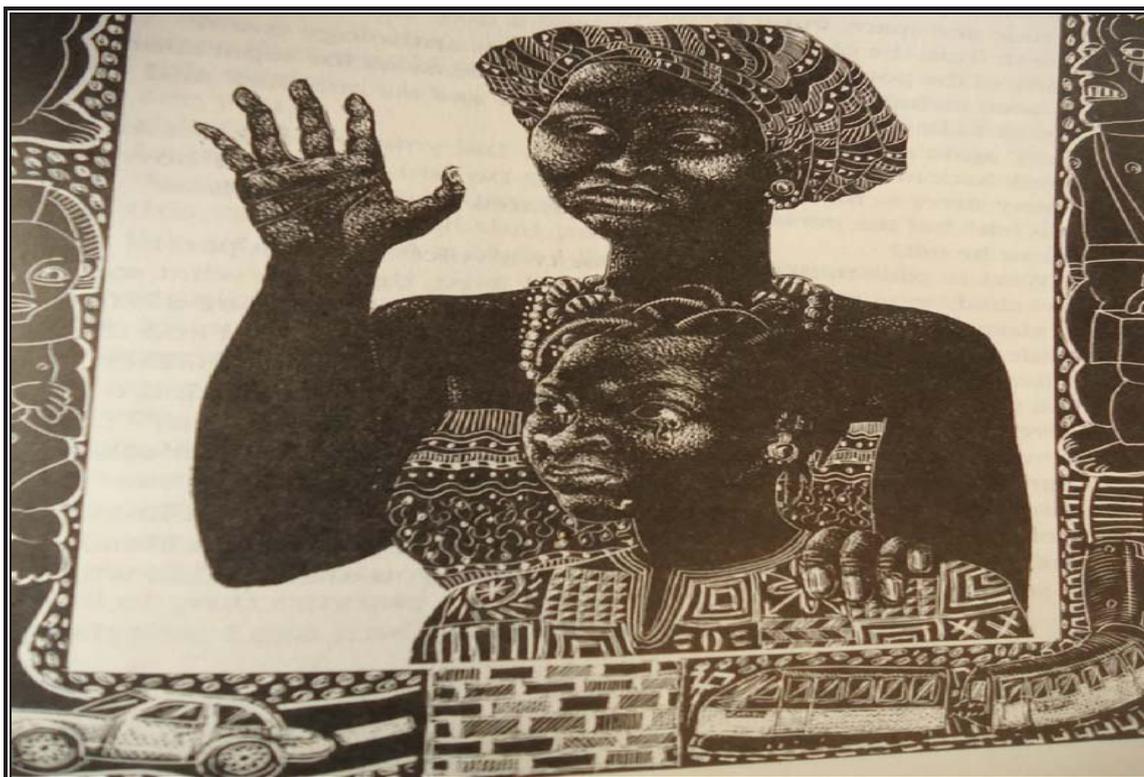


Figure 43. Feminine representation of women in English language textbooks.
Source: Rubadiri (1989, p. 45).

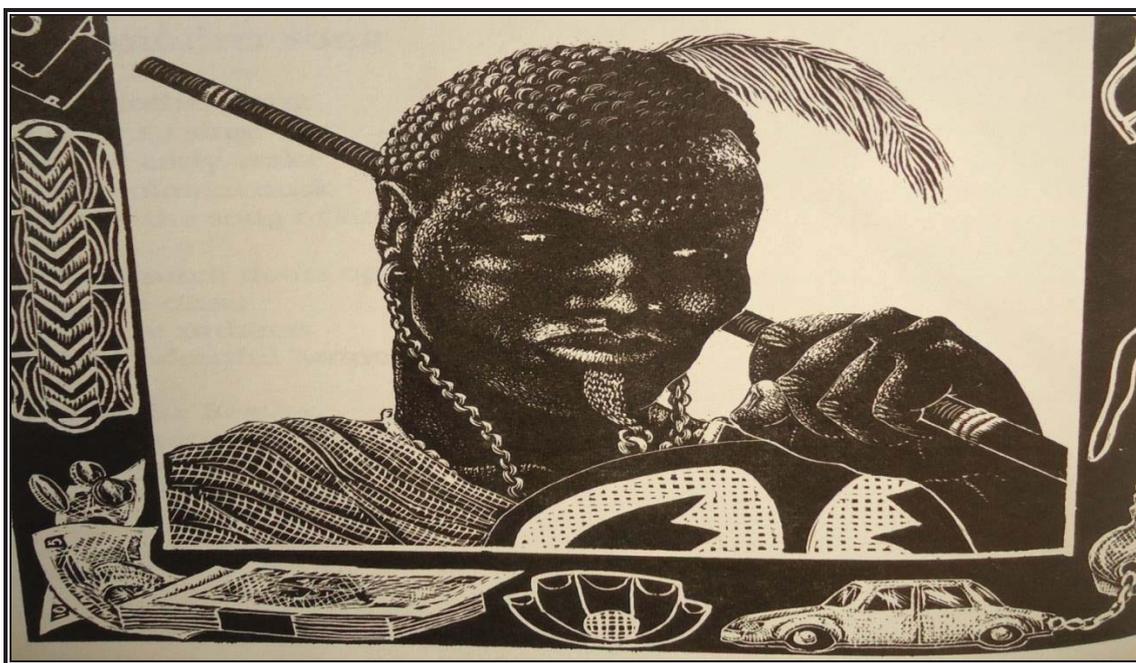


Figure 44. Men's masculine representation in English language textbooks.
Source: Rubadiri (1989, p. 56).

However, some texts, such as Mabala (1988a), constructed struggles against gender discrimination and inequalities in socioeconomic activities that reshaped women's unemployment in Tanzanian societies. Some students in one of the classrooms

I observed interpreted the title, *Hawa The Bus Driver*, as ‘some women are strong’, representing societal ideologies that women are weaker than men and cannot perform masculine tasks like driving buses. Readers may also see *Things Fall Apart* (Achebe, 1958) for practices and beliefs that reproduced discrimination against and domination of women where Okonkwo’s father, Unoka, was called *agballa*, meaning ‘a woman’ or ‘a man without achievements’. Many English texts, such as *Things Fall Apart* (Achebe, 1958, 1971), *No Longer at Ease* (Achebe, 1963), and *Is it Possible?* (Kulet, 1971), also represented male gender hegemony and masculinity because most characters were males. For example, *Things Fall Apart* had Okonkwo, Nwoye, Unoka, Obierika, Ikemefuna, and Ogbuefi.

8.4.3.2 Major historical events

In some cases, *significant historical events* in Civil Rights Movements were framed together with examination discourse to reproduce cultures and ideologies of class, race, and gender domination and struggles. For example, there were stories about Martin Luther King Jr. (1929-1968) and Rosa Parks in Rubadiri (1989) and Cook and Rubadiri (1971), which were also reproduced in “**Examination Two**” (Oxford/TIE, 1996, p. 86), that reconstructed male power over women. This was done through ‘comprehension’ pedagogy. The author integrated these texts with examinations to reproduce gender and race domination and struggles because the story started with the arrest of Rosa Parks, a black lady who “refused to give up her seat on a bus for a white passenger” (Oxford/TIE, 1996, p. 86) in December, 1955, in America. Gender power was framed by King organising the movement and other struggles by drawing other discourses of winning the Nobel Peace Prize and “Presidential Medal of Freedom” (p. 87), as well as leading movements against some of the world’s major events, such as the ‘Vietnam War’. The author ended the story with events that led to King’s assassination through the discourses of “gunned down while speaking at a meeting” (p. 87) and how he “helped Americans overcome their ignorance of one another” (p. 87) and the lessons from his life through the discourses of “His life informed us, his dreams sustained us yet” (p. 87).

The text also reproduced class and gender hegemony because it positioned King as more powerful than Parks by foregrounding him in almost all the exercise questions. This repositioning reconstructed his power through the discourses of “Dr, King”, “win

support from all racial groups”, “was awarded the Nobel Peace Prize” (p. 88-89). Similarly, the use of numbers of people who attended his ‘most famous speech’ delivered to ‘250,000 people’ in the most famous city in the world, ‘Washington’, and the event that led to his death. Further emphasis was made through reading responses to essay questions, such as “King is still a hero who inspires people who are struggling for their human rights” (p. 92). Students had to use “three books [they] have read and describe what inspires the heroes to fight for their rights” (p. 92), which also reconstructed class, race, and gender power and struggles from other, similar readings. However, the author’s emphasis was on King to be considered a ‘hero’ rather than Parks, who, although she sparked the Civil Rights Movements’ struggle, women’s power was backgrounded. Other discourses that reproduced class and race struggles were: “The marriage of black and white” (Liyong, 1971, pp. 86; “Whititude” (Bukonya, 1971, p. 28); and “Portrait of an Asian as an East African” (Singh, 1971, p. 156). Others include “The image of god” (Kassam, 1971, p. 146); “Maji maji” (Ruganda, 1971, p. 77); and “Sleepless in Angola” (Kairuki, 1971, p. 72).

8.4.4 English Language discourses

Some secondary school marketised curriculum and evaluation texts served as sites of cultural struggle and the marketing of dominant capitalist cultures through English Language texts that competed with Swahili and other ethnic languages in schools and the larger society. The discursive strategies employed were: first, English as the “*medium of instruction* in secondary schools and institutions of higher learning” (Oxford/TIE, 1996, p. 10); ‘business language’, ‘international language’, and the positioning of Swahili as weaker than English. For example, in the English Language examination paper (URT, 2001a), students were asked: “As a Kiswahili speaker, what aspects of the English sound system have hindered you from learning English smoothly? Consider each of the aspects, specifying the problems they cause to you.” (p. 5). By responding to this question, students learned to believe that their Swahili cultural identity hindered English language learning.

Similarly, some marketised textbooks devoted chapters in texts that empowered English language over Swahili and ethnic languages. For example, “**Can We Do without English?**” (Oxford/TIE, 1996, p. 10), with bolded font and supported by other visual texts and a map titled “**Countries where English is an official or important language**” (p. 11, Figure 45), advertised the English language and constructed teachers,

students, and societal knowledge and ideologies to believe that English is an international and local political and business communications medium. These discourses disempowered Swahili and empowered English language and cultures.

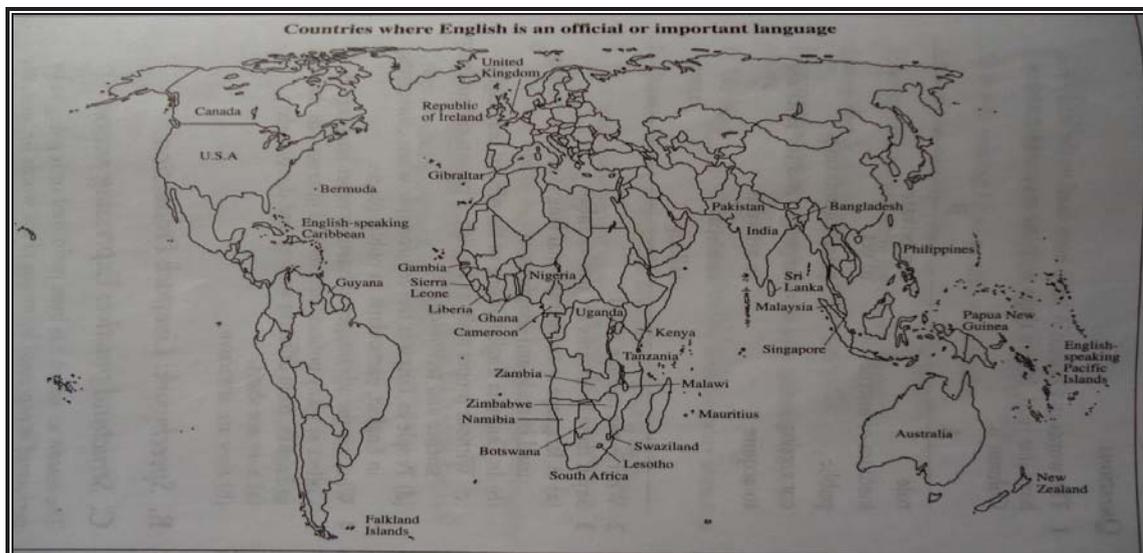


Figure 45. Discursive construction of cultural hegemony through visual texts, indicating ‘Countries where English is an official or important language’.

Source: Oxford/TIE (1996, p. 11).

However, such cultural struggles for dominance were challenged through classroom discursive practices where almost all teachers I observed code-switched from English to Swahili to communicate their intended curricular meanings (Appendix 17). Further, language fluency ‘in both English and French’ was constructed as conditions for getting paid employment (Figure 46).

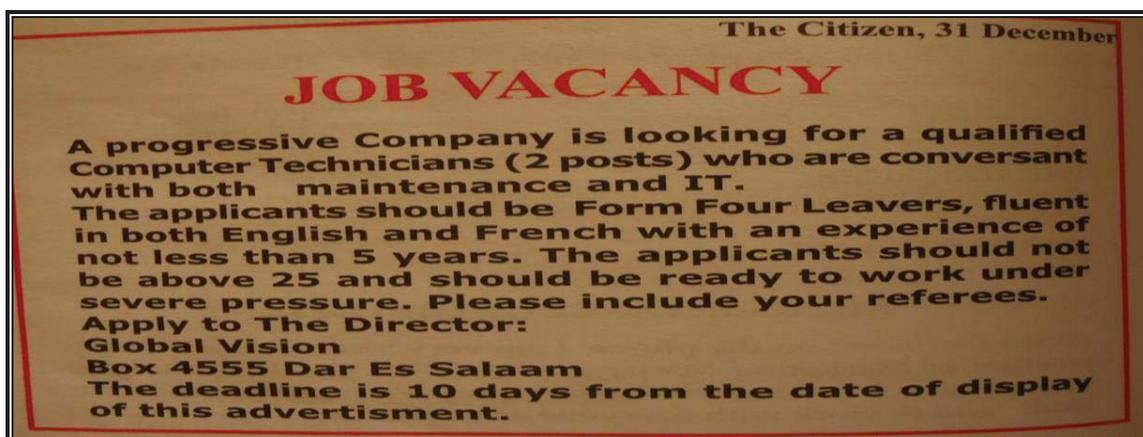


Figure 46. Discursive construction of cultural hegemony through language fluency and advertisement.

Source: Kadege (2008, p. 201).

8.4.5 Christian religious knowledge and ideologies

The marketised curriculum also reproduced cultural hegemony and consumption of knowledge through *Christian religious discourses* emphasising ‘God’, ‘Christ’, ‘crucification’, and ‘wreath of Fr. Mayor’ that were reconstructed through national examinations and textbook discourses (Figures 47 and 48). These religious discourses were contradictory because not all students were Christians in the three schools. Rather, classrooms and students were of multicultural backgrounds and identities of African traditional, Christian, and Muslim religions. For example, the discourses of *The Wreath of Father Mayer of Masasi* (Ndunguru, 1997) reproduced Christian ideologies, values, and beliefs, and backgrounded those of other religions in Tanzania. Although the text includes very little Muslim pilgrimage practices, much of the text was framed within the Tanzanian and European Christian religious contexts. Further, the text also reproduced Ngoni ethnic power because it was framed in the context of the Masasi in southern Tanzania, which is dominated by Ngoni. Within multicultural and multi-religious classrooms, schools, and society, such a text is a representation of the class and ethnic struggles existing in Tanzanian society. The selection and use of such curriculum content and texts favoured Christianity and Ngoni cultures and, therefore, segregated and marginalised teachers and students from other cultural backgrounds.

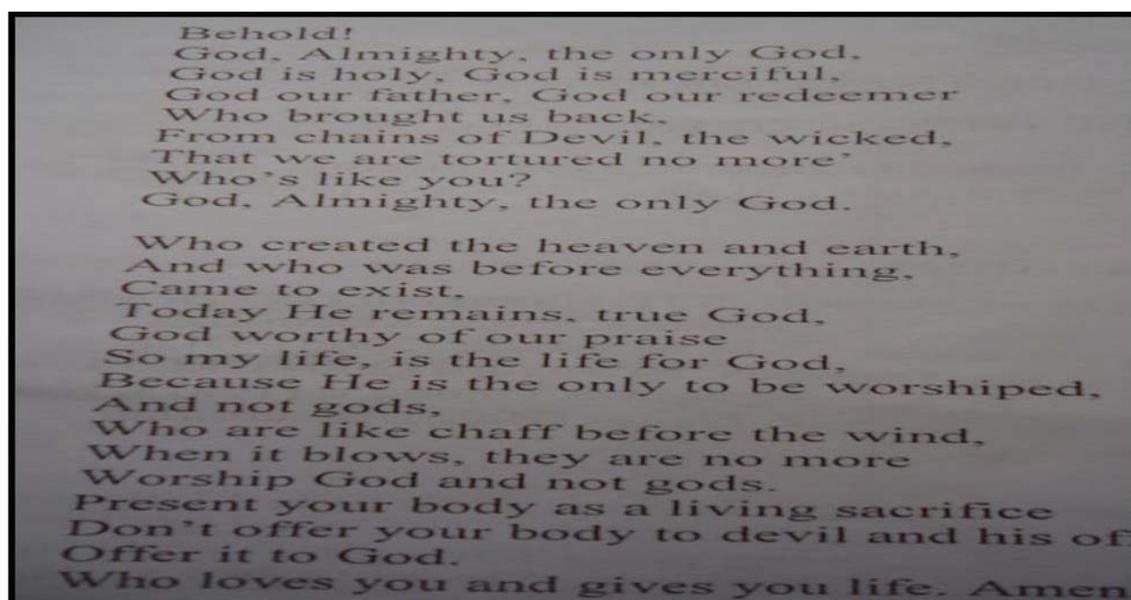


Figure 47. Reproducing Western cultural power and consumption through religious discourses.

Source: URT (2009a, p. 8).

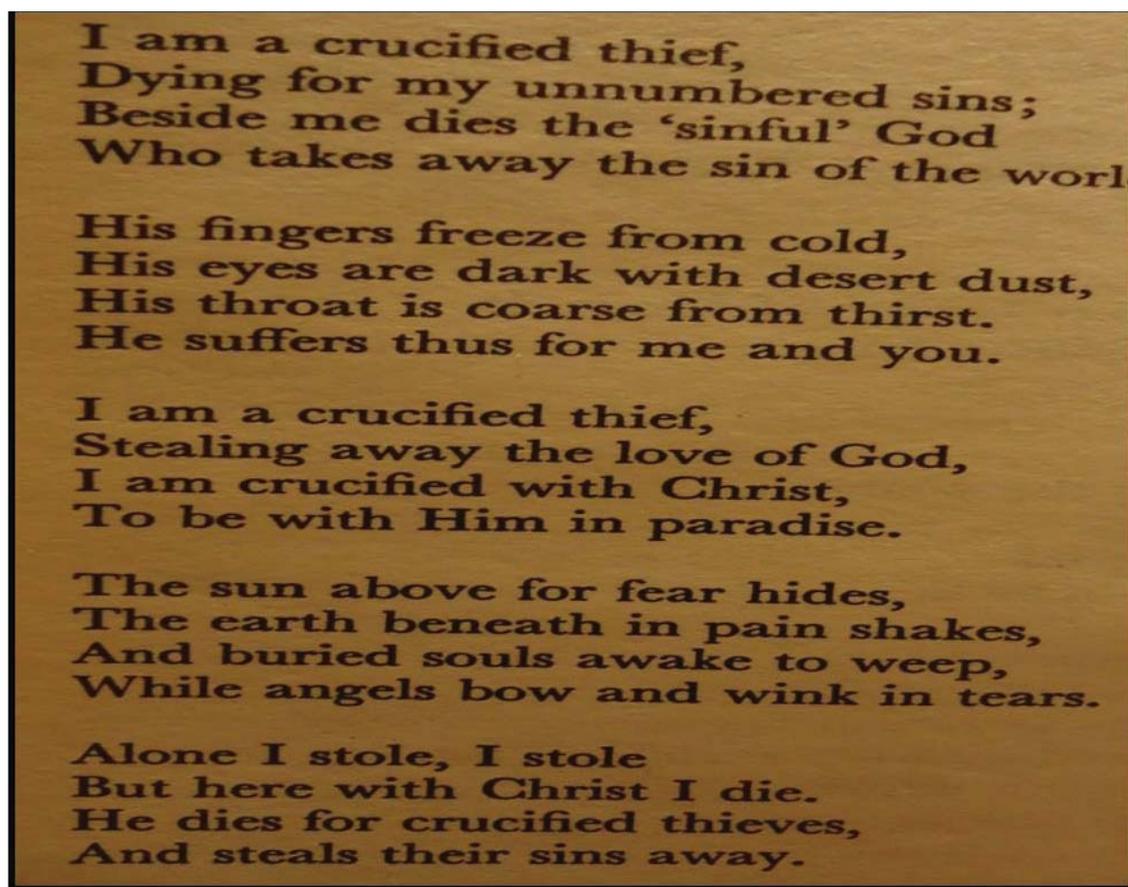


Figure 48. Reproducing Western religious knowledge and beliefs.
Source: Mbiti (1971, p. 94).

8.5 Chapter summary and conclusion

This chapter discussed the political and social nature of the marketised secondary curriculum in the three schools. It was indicated that curriculum planning, decision making, pedagogical codes, and evaluation reproduced students' passive and dependent learning cultures that resulted from the intersection of teacher identity and dominant pedagogic discourses. Together with students' beliefs, perceptions, experiences, and aspirations constructed by marketisation policy texts and discourses, these intersections constructed largely teacher-dominated pedagogies and curriculum that positioned students as passive, less participatory, and dependent identities. The resulting actual curriculum constructed in schools contradicted with the official competence-based curriculum documented in curriculum policy.

Furthermore, the intersection of subject positions and subjectivities constructed for students reshaped their agency to resist, negotiate, or comply with teachers' power/knowledge. The chapter also indicated that the marketised curriculum reproduced

social structures, cultures, and ideologies of consumerism rather than production, passing examinations rather than critical thinking and creativity, dependence rather than independence, domination rather than autonomy, passive rather than active learner identities, and social inequalities rather than equality. Further, the marketised curriculum also reconstructed ideologies of paid employment rather than self-employment, job seekers rather than job creators, and social structures of gender, class, ethnicity, and race power inequality existing in the larger Tanzania and global society. In the next chapter, I continue with the third research question by discussing how teachers constructed reflective practice that developed their agency and, therefore, reconstructed their professional identity in terms of knowledge and autonomy in their work.

CHAPTER NINE

SECONDARY TEACHERS' REFLECTIVE PRACTICE, AGENCY, AND RECONSTRUCTION OF PROFESSIONAL IDENTITY

9.1 Introduction and chapter overview

The three preceding chapters highlighted the discursive strategies and resources constructed by the powerful groups that positioned some teachers as passive and dependent professionals. However, based on the 'structure-agency' theoretical frame discussed in Chapter 3, these positionings were resisted, negotiated, or complied with by some teachers, depending on the discursive resources available to them. These resources enabled these teachers to actively negotiate power/knowledge and reconstruct their professional identity within the discursive structural constraints of power relations that they encountered over time and space. However, because of differential access to resources within historical, sociocultural, and political contexts, teacher agency also varied within academic subjects and school contexts.

Teacher agency and reflexivity facilitated them to practice their work in particular ways that met the contexts at hand. This chapter development is a continuation of the third major research question outlined above. However, discourse and data analysis were guided by the following questions: How did teachers respond to the marketisation policy's dominant discourses? How did these responses differ with teachers' academic subjects, interests, age, gender, experience, and school contexts? To what extent does this diversity in responses reflect class or group struggles for institutional resources and power/knowledge?

The chapter begins with an introduction, followed by the main discursive strategies and resources constructed by teachers to respond to the politics and power relations they encountered in their work practices and, thereby, reconstruct their professional identity. Such strategies and resources are presented in section three in terms of individual teacher experiences in the form of vignettes. These vignettes reflect variations and differences in discursive and cultural resources and struggles across history, school cultural contexts, and academic subjects. Three vignettes representative of different identities and agency developed according to school contexts, teachers' experiences, beliefs, power relations, perceptions, desires, gender, age, and subjects will be presented. The chapter ends with a summary and conclusion.

9.2 Some general teacher reflexivity that reshaped their identity and agency

Consistent with Chapter 2, I use teacher identity to refer to their knowledge and pedagogic practices that identified them as knowledgeable, creative, and independent professional workers. Access to some MCR discourses enabled some teachers to construct, maintain, and transform their identity as creative, active, and critical readers in the politics of marketisation policy reform. Such identities were constructed by teachers who historically and discursively positioned and repositioned themselves as active and critical to challenge the passive and dependent subject positions offered to them by marketisation policy discourses between 1990 and 2012. As we have seen in preceding chapters, the marketisation politics of policy interpretation challenged teachers' work by constraining access to MCR and, thus, knowledge/power construction. Therefore, while some teachers historically and discursively constructed their identities and agency as creative and critical readers by financing and selecting MCR of their own choice and construct learning activities according to the curricular and students' needs, others relied on the government, school administrators, and MCR that were not accessible and unreliable to construct specified curricula contents. However, this agency varied historically and depended on the schools' contexts and teacher motivation because teacher identity was challenged by the dominant discourses constructed at institutional and societal levels. Thus, even for some experienced teachers, highly demanding work contexts constructed ideologies that creative teaching was a 'time consuming' practice, especially in the face of large class sizes, large curriculum content specified in the subject syllabi, a lack of MCR, and the demands of examination discourses. Teachers who reconstructed their identity were always active readers so as to construct curriculum and pedagogic content knowledge as a response to dominant discourses of curricular changes, MCR, and externally set examinations. These teachers' active work were constructed, maintained, and transformed in and through the following discursive strategies and agency:

- positioning themselves as readers of multiple and detailed MCR discourses by combining various types;
- attending some on-the-job professional pedagogic knowledge training programmes;

- repeatedly constructing discourses that identified their positive emotional investment and use of some imported MCR and negative ideologies over locally produced MCR;
- purchasing their own MCR and improvisation of some from their environment rather than depending on the school and the government;
- engaging themselves in private tuition discourses that earned more money, adding to their meagre remunerations to sustain their lives and families, and reconstruct more subject matter knowledge;
- borrowing MCR and lesson notes from teachers in other schools;
- reconstructing bilingualism in English and Swahili; and
- reflecting on their theoretical and pedagogic knowledge from teacher training.

Thus, I argue that, guided by their ideological positions, perceptions, and access to discursive resources to construct subject matter knowledge, some teachers selected, purchased, and used MCR of their own choice relevant for work contexts and constructed a creative and independent teacher identity. This had implications in shaping their pedagogic practices, curriculum outcomes, and professional identity. Therefore, by responding to these dominant discursive constraints in particular ways, teachers constructed their professional agency and identities through active and creative teaching, language competence, critical and extensive reading, and pragmatic and independent teaching. These shaped and reshaped their pedagogy and constructed their agency.

In the next section, I present selected vignettes that show narratives of how teachers responded to the politics of marketisation policy reform that has been in implementation in Tanzania's secondary schools for over twenty years, since its adoption in 1992. The purpose of these vignettes is to narrate a summary of a selected few teachers to locate their agency and identity reconstruction in different aspects of teachers' work in the three case study school contexts. These narratives are, in fact, subjective experiences of the aspects of school marketisation policy interpretation, curriculum construction, pedagogy, and evaluation which are the focus of this thesis.

9.3 Sulata Jacob

In the following sections, I present Sulata Jacob's stories of his experiences and responses to marketisation policy discourses as a representation of the kinds of identities and agencies discussed above.

9.3.1 Personal profile

Sulata Jacob is a 51 years old and is Urgova's English and History teacher. He began his career after a direct posting upon his successful completion of a *Diploma in Education* programme at a Teachers' Training College in Tanzania in 1992. Since then, Sulata has worked for 20 years as a subject teacher, Head of Department, and as Academic Master between 2002 and 2008. He has taught at Urgova in different classes from Forms I to IV. In English, he has widely taught 'English structure' in Forms I and II, and literature in Forms III and IV. Sulata is currently an undergraduate student studying towards a Bachelor of Arts in Education degree in one the private universities in Arusha.

9.3.2 Reconstruction of professional identity and pedagogic knowledge

Throughout the interview, Sulata represented his multiple identities and agency as an experienced English teacher: a creative, active, and critical reader who resisted the passive and dependent positioning of marketisation policy discourses. Such identity and agency were reshaped by discourses of access to information and imported marketised English textbooks, teacher education, and on-the-job professional training. Below, I discuss how each constructed Sulata's agency and identity.

9.3.2.1 Access to relevant policy and market information discourses

One of the marketisation policy discursive constraints teachers faced was inadequate access to policy and market information, such as financially approved marketised book lists that teachers required for curriculum construction. Such information was constrained by a poor communication network due to market structures, government, and school administrators so that government circulars were less accessible to them. As Sulata states, it was rare for subject teachers to access any circular related to policy implementation at school level because such texts were hidden for the interests of school administrators, or they did not reach the schools. However, between 2002 and

2008, Sulata's position as English Language HOD, Academic Master, and English subject teacher constructed his access to power/knowledge to be able to assess marketised textbook information and resources for purchasing marketised books and identify their weaknesses. This information contributed to reshaping his knowledge in curriculum planning, decision making, and pedagogy, as I discuss later. Thus, Sulata was well informed about schools' MCR because he could tell me the list of English MCR authors, like Kadedghe, Thing'o, Achebe, and Nyangwine. As he states:

Information from the school authority/ that "now we are allowed to get books from any/ any source"/ as teachers we were not given such// but sometimes you will find those private booksellers/ when they advertise in schools/ it happened that those heads of departments were called/ they are told "we need your recommendations"/ if the books were relevant in your departments/ therefore for/ for it was like that/ teachers recommended "these are relevant for us"/ and the school reached a decision to purchase/ copies/ depending on the school's ability//

Therefore, access to policy and market information resources reshaped Sulata's agency and identity to actively plan, select, and construct the curriculum using MCR that were available to him.

9.3.2.2 Participation in on-the-job professional development training discourses

In addition to access to information discussed above, teachers' participation in on-the-job workshops, seminars, and research dominant discourses constructed some of Urgova's teachers' professional identity and agency. Since 1992, at different times, Sulata, Kwasu, and Mosino accessed training that took place either in schools or in other educational institutions. However, although such training was financed and organised by dominant groups, like the British Council, MAT, and the government, they enabled Urgova teachers to select and access some MCR and computers that helped them develop power/knowledge and skills to perform their work. Further, in these workshops, some MCR were advertised, which added to urban schools' teachers' and students' knowledge and provided them with lists of sources of power/knowledge as compared to rural teachers and students. In addition, essay writing and research competitions in urban schools discursively constructed and reconstructed teachers' and students' reading and writing knowledge and skills. Thus, Sulata's ELTSP attendance intersected with resources that empowered him with power/knowledge to enable him to

construct participatory pedagogies more than other Urpisa and Rugosa teachers who had less access to such training. He states:

If I recall past experience/ there was a time when British Council was/ it had ELTSP project ... because there was a very systematic approach// in the syllabus/ that when the student is in the level of Form I and Form II// A Form I and Form II student/ was able to// they were given work/ their syllabus guided/ there was a section on/ 'class library'/ which we call/ I think/ which required at least/ a student should read/ not less than 15 books/ or 20// that constructed their interests/ that helped students to be competent/ very much// And also there were books/ those 'class library'/ 'class library' not less than 15 to 20// a students must have read//

Therefore, ELTSP historically and discursively constructed Sulata's identity as being a creative, active, and critical reader because his pre-marketisation work context was characterised by enjoyment, less curricular changes, adequate in-service training, and access to resources. Such identity was reshaped by supplying an age-relevant 'class library' and 'class readers'. A 'class library' includes a set of English texts and storybooks, and other aids that were used and are still in use by teachers and students as a guide to English teaching and learning programmes. Such materials formed the core of teachers' work and students in reading and writing programmes in schools. MCR that formed a class library facilitated teachers' work because they were 'pre-tested' materials based on some English teaching and learning principles. On the other hand, a particular book that falls within the 'class library' in the form of "a story book, fiction and non-fiction intended to promote reading culture and skills" (URT, 2005g, p. ii) among teachers and students is called a 'class reader'. ELTSP trained English teachers for particular pedagogies and contents and for teaching and learning English through both short- and long-term training seminars. The 'class readers' and 'class library' pedagogies exist to date, although their effectiveness has deteriorated because they lacked MCR and emphasis from schools, and new teachers who joined the profession. These experiences also show that teacher identity and agency is a historical and discursive constructed by past and present work experiences.

9.3.2.3 Confidence, work motivation, and creativity in planning and decision making

The above discourses therefore empowered Sulata's to respond to discursive constraints constructed by curriculum policy changes that intersected with marketisation policy

reforms. Sulata reconstructed his identity through (1) reliance on experience; and (2) active reading of both marketised textbooks recommended by the government and those not recommended, and those used for previous syllabi. These discourses and experience helped him to design and implement a curriculum required by students. Sulata states:

As an experienced teacher sometimes/ we use our experience/ rather than books/ for us in languages/ you can say I have this topic may be/ I want to cover may be to teach/ like 'structural item'/ but through experience/ you can design material/ because there is no guided material/ therefore you have to design/ and sometimes you have to go to those old books/ which we are saying are out of the syllabus/ because of the change in syllabus/ there you try to pick those items that/ are helpful/ so disadvantage is that you are required to read several books/ when preparing the lesson/ you go here and there/ to be able to gather/ those materials/ information//

Compared to other teachers, Sulata's access to MCR and motivation constructed his active reading of English language texts that encouraged his ability to read, summarise, and identify emerging themes from the detailed and original marketised literature textbooks. This was something which beginning teachers and students were not motivated to do. Further, this subjectivity was reconstructed by his belief that linguistic and literary discourses construct 'novelistic taste' and 'varieties of linguistic writing and entertainment' for literature teachers and students. He believed that the reading programme is in the curriculum to perform two discursive functions: as 'an entertainment' to the readers and to construct their knowledge. That is, through critical reading, summarisation, and analyses of the thematic ideas found in literature textbooks, Sulata constructed his identity as a critical reader, analyst, and being knowledgeable, as opposed to other teachers who positioned themselves as readers of readily summarised and analysed locally produced marketised textbooks. For Sulata, such resources were summarised, and their contents were for business purposes that could not construct a similar teacher's or student's identity to his. He goes on to say:

And I/ as a long time experienced teacher// I can't buy that book/ because when I don't read original textbook as it is// authored for example by "Chinua Achebe"// that is the book with the novelistic taste// you will find that there are/ varieties of speeches/ varieties of linguistic writing/ and entertainments/ which gives you the 'novelistic taste'/ it is an entertainment// But now they are not looking for entertainment// "reading programme is there/ on one hand should be an entertainment"//

Sulata's identity is explicit in the 'figured world' he constructed using 'technical language' and 'jargons', describing the motivation, confidence, knowledge, critical appraisal, and analysis, as values that differentiated Sulata from other teachers in the English Language department. As he describes:

That/ sometimes it reaches a point you fail to judge some teachers/ and say/ "You know these local private textbooks are not very helpful for student// Because he or she see as/ lacking that time to/ or that ability to analyse a textbook// and identify "what are the themes"// has no such ability/ either is not confident/ or think that has no such time// So/ now teachers have resorted/ especially our current teachers/ they have rushed to textbooks which are summarised//

Sulata's confidence and motivation to teach English was also constructed by dominant discourses of ELTSP training by supporting English CR and teacher pedagogies that updated teachers' knowledge and skills to perform their work. However, although such training and teaching experiences reconstructed teachers' professional identities, at Urgova, these discourses sometimes intersected with inadequate access to MCR, school management, LOI, and large class sizes to reshape teacher ideologies that positioned them to construct dominant pedagogic discourses of exposition, including note taking and lectures. In government schools, these further intersected with inadequate teacher salaries, and large classes and teaching loads to construct psychological stress and less participatory pedagogies, like note taking. For example, at Urgova, Kwasu had to "just give them notes" to copy:

I mean in the way the classes are/ you can go to teach in two three classes/ others you just give them notes/ and they write on the chalkboard/ because you are tired/ it is a large work// Because in classes/ there are no textbooks/ so you can't give them work or activity in what/ so what you have to do is notes/ you give them in the classroom/ and this what is done/ nowadays to get relief//

At Rugosa, Abubaka had a similar experience:

I use the few copies/ to kick-off lectures/ essays for group discussions// And they use the same/ And because they are not adequate I have to prepare notes// We give them notes//

In comparison, beginning teachers, who started working over the past 10 years or so, lacked the knowledge, confidence, and motivation to creatively plan and implement their work because of the so-called *Crash Programme* as discussed in Chapter 1 and lack of on-the-job training programmes that other teachers like Sulata experienced. These discourses intersected with marketisation policy discourses to position most

beginning teachers as passive and less critical. These discourses largely disempowered teachers in terms of power/knowledge, work confidence, and pedagogies.

9.3.2.4 Ideology and beliefs over marketised books

However, the above description of Sulata's identity as a critical reader, creative, and active curriculum planner and decision maker was challenged by government policy texts that required schools to purchase EMAC-approved MCR and that the textbook funds had to be approved by the school board. As discussed in Chapter 7, the Urgova School Board constrained policy decisions because the Board meetings were less frequent and members were 'to be paid' the funds which the school lacked. However, Sulata responded to this challenge by collaborating with cooperative school and departmental heads to purchase unapproved marketised books. Such collaboration was supported by teacher professionalism discourses to empower teachers and school administrators to decide to purchase unapproved MCR using funds without School Boards' approval.

9.4 Maneno Mainata

In this section, I discuss how one Rugosa mathematics teacher, Maneno Manata, constructed his identity and agency in the context of marketisation policy reform.

9.4.1 Personal profile

Maneno Mainata is a 50-year-old head of the Rugosa Basic Mathematics department and has been teaching Basic Mathematics and Physics. Maneno began his career after a two year *Diploma in Education* teachers' training programme about 25 years ago. During his career, he has taught the two subjects in various secondary schools in Tanzania, before he successfully completed a three year Bachelor of Science Education degree programme in 2005. This added another milestone of experience and knowledge in his teaching career identity.

9.4.2 Professional knowledge construction: Activeness and motivation

Being in urban schools enabled Maneno to establish his private tuition centres and conduct teaching practices that empowered him to purchase his own MCR, thus reconstructing his knowledge, ideologies, and identities. This further enhanced his

creativity, skills, and tactics to utilise those work and MCR contexts. In this way, Maneno overcome the limitations constructed by the nature of and less access to MCR, with a significant effect on his practices and curriculum knowledge construction. As I discussed in Chapter 6, private tuition discourses shaped and reshaped other urban secondary school teachers who participated in this study to select, purchase, and use desired and work context-relevant marketised books that constructed their power/knowledge and pedagogic competence in their subjects of specialisation. Thus, Maneno taught curriculum content on “profit and loss” (URT, 1997a, p. 22) and “Accounts” (URT, 2005a, pp. 114-118) that was lacking in the government’s ‘recommended books’. Maneno adds:

It really depends on the teacher/ For example/ I have my own books which I purchased personally// I have a book for Form I/ Form II/ III and IV// my own copies/ I purchased myself// You see!// even those marketised books/ like those by Nyambari Nyangwine/ I have purchased// For the topic on ‘accounts’ which is not covered in these other recommended books by then was not there/ So that I can teach that topic// But also/ they helped me to teach the topic on ‘accounts’ during my private tuition classes//

However, although it empowered teachers with knowledge, private tuition acted as a contradictory discourse at Urpisa and Urgova. This is because it constrained teachers to construct participatory pedagogies. Tuition teachers rushed to their tuition centres and considered such school pedagogies as a ‘waste of time’. The waste of time discourse and ideology was further supported by teaching load, difficult textbook language, and less students’ access to MCR that contradicted with participatory pedagogies. Thus, Maneno and other teachers in the two government schools conducted mostly exposition and note taking with less student activities, exercises, practices, and experiments. These reproduced teachers’ power/knowledge and repositioned them to dominate the curriculum discourses at the expense of their students, who were passively positioned. Maneno explains:

I buy my own books for my tuition classes// If I discover that there are some Form II and IV students in my tuition class who need to be taught such a topic/ I have to teach them until they understand/ as in their schools there are no teachers who know and cover the topic/ It helps them very much and I get a lot of students// And I sustained such classes//

The metaphoric discourses used by Maneno implies that he, and not his students, had resources. By foregrounding his position in these metaphors, Maneno constructed teacher-dominated pedagogies.

Moreover, private tuition constructed Maneno's economic position because it added to his low government remuneration. This improved his motivation to work and purchase more MCR to further his work. This further improved curriculum construction for his students:

I do// because this has been our practice for most of us/ for many years/ we cannot rely on the government salary/ it is very little/ how can you survive with such a small amount of money/ it is gone in only one week/ what do you eat in the other three weeks// We must find alternatives/ But also tuitions have been in demand for many years//

Therefore, Maneno taught topics that other teachers could not teach because they lacked such resources and knowledge. Like other teachers discussed in this study, Maneno represented himself as an active and motivated teacher, an identity which, in addition to his teacher training, was historically and discursively constructed by private tuition practices. Maneno tutored to add to his meagre government salary to sustain his life and family. These private tuition practices and classes also helped Maneno to develop his set of MCR that constructed his mathematical knowledge, pedagogic practices, and identity in the marketisation policy context. Some of the pedagogic identities constructed by such practices were those of being 'hard working', 'motivated', and 'committed', and one who could spend his own resources to develop a reliable set of MCR, which enabled him to survive the challenges of marketisation and construct another identity as a 'knowledgeable teacher'.

Further, Maneno's desire to purchase and read multiple MCR constructed his identity as an active and reader teacher. This can be seen from Maneno's metaphors that shaped and reshaped the significance of MCR in the construction of his identity. To Maneno, teaching is like a 'war' in which teachers had to fight and, in order to win, they needed the "right weapons and tactics". I interpret 'right weapons' to mean 'relevant MCR' with content that meets curricular demands and responsibilities. On the other hand, 'right tactics' may mean 'pedagogic strategies' employed in the teachers' work. So, in order to win a war, both 'weapons and tactics' depend on each other, neither of which is independent or can be utilised alone to win 'the war'. Therefore, despite the structural challenges that Maneno faced from the dominating school head, Maneno

constructed another subject position, a 'motivated teacher'. Compared to other teachers, this was a position which constructed his knowledge and beliefs to work and purchase MCR relevant for performing his work. He adds:

I have my own books which I purchased personally// I have a book for Form I/ Form II/ III and IV// V/ and VI// my own copies/ I purchased myself// You see!// even those marketised books/ like those by Nyambari Nyangwine/ I have purchased// For the topic on 'accounts' which is not covered in these other recommended books/ by then was not there/ So that I can teach that topic// But also/ they helped me to teach the topic on 'accounts' during my private tuition classes// I do tuition// because this has been our practice for most of us/ for many years/ we cannot rely on the government salary/ it is very little/ how can you survive with such a small amount of money?/ it is gone in only one week/ what do you eat in the other three weeks// We must find alternatives// But also tuitions have been in demand for many years// I buy my own books for my tuition classes// If I discover that there are some Form II and IV students in my tuition class who need to be taught such a topic/ I have to teach them until they understand/ as in their schools there are no teachers who know and cover the topic/ It helps them very much and I get a lot of students// And I sustained such classes// As you know/ "winning a war depends on weapons and tactics// and if you don't have the right weapons/ right tactics/ surely you cannot win/ that war"// So you will find that some teachers have no books/ I had to buy all the necessary resources// Therefore/ it depends/ on what?/ on the teacher and his or her interests// other teachers complain that "why should I buy books for teaching children/ none of which is mine? I don't have that motivation"//

Moreover, by purchasing his own set of MCR, Maneno constructed another subject position as an *independent teacher*, which formed an example to other teachers at Rugosa and other schools. This positioning constructed an ideology that a successful work in the challenges of marketisation and similar work contexts required teachers to be independent so as to equip themselves with MCR and design work according to them, rather than depending on the school administrators who do not value the role of MCR in teachers' work. Alternatively, such an identity informs teachers to use the available resources to meet their work needs rather than depending on the unhelpful administrators who supplied MCR that were *not distributed to students* due to the large class sizes facing Rugosa and other government schools in Tanzania. Independent positioning reduced dependence on the government, school administration, and students who had their own MCR, as seen with other teachers at Rugosa.

In addition to professional training, Maneno's professional knowledge and pedagogy seems to be an outcome of the discourses of (1) teaching experience with teaching schools of boys, girls, mixed, and community secondary schools, each with their own challenges; and (2) the application of knowledge of teaching and learning theories and principles that learning occurs in social interaction and is 'a two-way process' or *is a two-way traffic*. Maneno explains:

You know/ I have a long experience and advantage/ as I have taught a girls community secondary school/ I have taught a mixed community secondary school/ with boys and girls/ I have taught a school with boys only// so this has helped me a lot of experience// ... so an experienced teacher with knowledge and ability would like to ask questions or give room for them to ask questions/ as teaching and learning need to be a two-way process//... as you know/ teaching and learning is a two-way traffic// As you teach/ you also learn from the students//

9.4.3 Knowledge of students' background and needs

In addition to constructing his knowledge, Maneno's work experience with different kinds of schools constructed his pedagogy by learning students' background and their different needs to enable Mathematics learning. This experience enabled him to learn that students had negative interests, attitudes, and motivation towards Mathematics. By doing this, Maneno had *to find ways to make students eager to inquire more knowledge through questioning and test their conceptualization and understanding*. This enabled him to manage and encourage his students to develop interests in the subject, despite the many challenges constructed by marketisation policy reforms. Maneno says that:

...together with their pre-conception that mathematics is difficult/ if you begin teaching/ they develop a fear// so when you are delivering your mathematics subject matter/ students wish you could leave the classroom as early as possible/ because the student is not interested to listen to you// You see!// So in such kind of schools you will have to find ways to make students eager to inquire more knowledge through questioning the teacher// You have to test their conceptualization and understanding/ by just asking a very simple question/ related to what you have delivered// you will wonder/ that some students just watch on your face// So you have to find something to make the teaching and learning be a two-way process//

However, private tuition did not empower all teachers because of the constraints imposed by school location discourses, teacher ideologies, motivation, and work experience. Mostly, experienced, urban Mathematics, English, and Science teachers had

access to private tuition as compared to other arts subjects and beginning teachers.

Kwasu explains:

So you will find that some teachers have no books/ I had to buy all the necessary resources// Therefore/ it depends/ on what/ on the teacher and his or her interests// other teachers complain that “why should I buy books for teaching children/ none of which is mine? I don’t have that motivation”//

Moreover, private tuition discourses also reshaped rural school teachers’ work agency because some of their students, whose families’ economic positions and home locations enabled them to be tutored in town, were able to obtain some knowledge and marketised books that teachers borrowed and used to perform their work. Furthermore, this intersected with students’ interests in and motivation for liking Mathematics and enabled Rugosa teachers to enjoy their work in the face of a lack of resources imposed by marketisation policy and school context discourses. Mura further adds:

It was so difficult/ but I liked it because advanced level students had high motivation/ and commitment to learn the two subjects// They liked mathematics/ and so they were dedicated to learn themselves/ even during their own time/ and some of them have been attending private tuitions// So we used minimum energy just to give directives to them//

Maneno also constructed his knowledge by employing his social relations and experiences to collaborate with other teachers and powerful officials in the district or NECTA to participate in National and Regional Mock Examination settings and marking. Examination setting and marking discursive practices constructed the power/knowledge required to perform teachers’ work because they were exposed to different sources of knowledge, like texts and reference books, and examinations questions they marked. They also learnt that ‘examination questions have certain selected TIE textbooks’, which further enabled them to set and mark exams, try different strategies to attempt questions and find solutions, and use other strategies to improve curriculum planning and decision making. For example, they were able to set questions that enhanced students’ critical thinking and creativity and motivation to read, think, and create. Such practices also reconstructed their social relations with other subject teachers. These practices further empowered teachers to earn some money, which they used to purchase textbooks that they lacked, add to family income, and improve welfare, rather than depending on a salary. In this way, such teachers reshaped and maintained their professional identity. Maneno says:

You know what/ the national examination council uses competent and experienced teachers to set final examinations// Teachers who are competent/ conversant in their carrier// If it is for math/ they really want a competent and with expertise// For example/ let me tell you one thing Mr/ I have been involved in setting final math examination questions for seven years now// Although not all of my questions are taken every year/ but some of them// So final examinations follows syllabus provided by the government// So they normally base on the syllabus// But also on the textbooks that they have recommended for use in schools// They are the ones they use/ and an informed-teacher will use TIE books because/ sometimes national examination questions are extracted directly from these books as they are//

However, the above story was the opposite for a five years of experience beginning Urgova female Mathematics teacher identity, Maira Alotaina. Alotaina's students' experiences of private tuition and marketised book discourses intersected to challenge her identity because, at times, students lost trust and concentration in the lesson because of contradictory discourses constructed by the books she used, the same as those used by private tuition teachers. Unlike other subjects, Mathematical problems provide exact solutions for teachers and students to reproduce. That is, marketisation policy supplied multiple text and reference books and, if two authors approach the same problem and arrive at contradictory solutions, this affects students' and teachers' agreement in the classroom learning. Alotaina adds:

Alotaina: You will find that when I am presenting a concept/ students have read the same concept from other books and sometimes do not concentrate in my lesson// they also complain that the way my teaching approach is different from the text/ reference so sometimes we end up in misunderstandings or I have to end up forcing them to accept what I am saying// Others still did not trust me if what I am delivering is true// The loss of trust is also increased by the practices of private tuitions// that some students attend out of the normal schooling hours// You will find that the textbook used by the teacher in the tuitions is different from the one I use// These have led to mistrust between the students and regular teachers// Also/ if you cover concepts that are not in the textbooks they have read/ they will see them as irrelevant and teaching them as wasting their time// It takes time and energy/ to convince such students to change their minds/ remove the misconceptions developed by the differences in curricular resource content//

Thus, although it involved more time and energy to convince her students, Alotaina used her previous teacher education and school Mathematics knowledge and experience to explain the misconceptions and contradictions constructed by those texts and regain her professional identity. It is fair to argue that such challenges constructed by marketised books and tuition discourses were not only experienced by beginning

Mathematics teachers, but also by Sulata, an experienced English Language teacher, who observed similar resistance from his students for lacking motivation to read, analyse, and summarise detailed marketised textbooks.

9.5 Mwanne Karoli

In this section, I discuss how one Urgova Biology teacher, Mwanne Karoli, constructed her identity and agency in the context of marketisation policy reform.

9.5.1 Personal profile

Mwanne is a 42-year-old Biology and Geography teacher at Urgova, where she has been teaching for 14 years, in addition to other schools, after she qualified for a *Diploma in Education*. Mwanne returned in the past three years from a three-year *Bachelor of Education* degree programme. At the time of this study, Mwanne taught Biology in a Form IV class that had eight streams, each with *about 50 students* studying Commerce and Science subject groups, which they selected while in Form III, depending on their abilities, interests, and motivation. This number of streams gives Mwanne a teaching load of 32 periods per week, which she believes is too large for effective teaching. However, she had to teach because she believes that it is her “responsibility” and Urgova is a “large school, over two thousands students, double shifts”. Because of that motivation, she has managed it for the past 14 years, although that load varied from time to time.

9.5.2 Power/knowledge construction

Mwanne’s struggled to construct her identity by utilising her knowledge of theories, principles, and objectives of effective curriculum process and the role of MCR in that process. However, her identity was challenged by marketisation policy reform discourses. More specifically, this was a result of her restricted access to MCR discourses and what she perceived as “poor or unclear illustrations of diagrams” found in some MCR. She experienced that such illustrations affected her teaching and students’ understanding of Biology concepts and principles. Such challenges included first, difficulties for her and her students to plan and construct the curriculum by conceptualising the black and white diagrams or photographs with the actual objects represented and students’ experiences. Second, there were difficulties involved in

developing ‘long term memory’ of the objects when they are in black and white rather than coloured diagrams and photographs. Third, less effective teaching and learning principles from ‘known to unknown’ and use of senses, because of the lack of access to MCR and the nature of the illustrations. Fourth, there were difficulties involved in using black and white diagrams and photos to differentiate parts of an object and describe its functions. Mwanne believes that the use of ‘black and white illustrations’ affected her work, as well as of other teachers and students.

Further, like other experienced teachers above, Mwanne’s identity was challenged by her experience that some marketised books were ‘summarised’ as a business discursive strategy ‘to attract customers’, including teachers and students. Her definition of summarisation was that the:

author only explained in short lines which make it difficult to understand, there was no any diagram for illustration.

This challenge constructed her agency to find ‘additional books’, such as ‘*Tropical Biology*’ or an Advanced level textbook while the concept is in the Ordinary Level syllabus’. Thus, she had ‘to travel to other schools’ for additional MCR which explained the concepts to her and her students’ satisfaction. For example, when she was planning to teach ‘DNA (deoxyribonucleic acid) replication’, a concept that was prescribed by the ‘new Biology syllabus’ introduced in 2005. This challenge was constructed by curriculum policy discourses through the syllabus, which described curricula content in an outline form, and teachers had to develop the details of those outlines from textbooks. This discourse intersected with discourses of MCR with less concept coverage, so Mwanne had to use ‘multiple textbooks’. Further, Mwanne’s work was challenged by contradictory discourses of examinations that contained concepts lacking in the books she accessed. That is, examination discourses contradicted with curriculum policy discourses because some contents of the final examinations were lacking in those textbooks.

Therefore, before receiving USA-aided MCR at Urgova in 2011, Mwanne and other teachers constructed curricular by (1) finding their own MCR from the market because those textbooks available at the school through CG were not concurrent with the syllabus, other schools and colleagues, or the regional library. That is, as her agency,

she had to travel to other neighbouring schools to borrow MCR, some of which were beyond the curriculum level she was teaching; and (2) preparing lesson notes for students that became the main source of curriculum experiences for both teachers and students. These notes were prepared from the MCR available in the school and those borrowed from other sources. Mwanne believes that the main pedagogic practice in such contexts with less access to relevant MCR for teachers and students was to prepare and give notes to students by writing them on the chalkboard. Thus, students had to copy again while she was copying them from her notebook to the chalkboard.

9.5.3 Change in pedagogic practices

However, Mwanne experienced significant changes in her work culture and pedagogic practices after she received textbooks from the US in form of aid. However, students' resistance challenged such pedagogic change because they had constructed a dependence learning culture and identity. She instead had to construct an independent learning culture by giving them some topics to construct their own notes. Students perceived this pedagogy as a new learning practice and therefore resisted its adoption. However, over time, they continued to practice and they became used to the pedagogy.

With such experiences, Mwanne described her work in the context of marketisation policy as "difficult and too much demanding"; because she used only notes without students' textbooks, this constrained students' 'understanding of concepts'. She explains that such a pedagogic approach consumed lots of her work and leisure time because she had to "construct notes, explain, and draw a diagram". However, she believed that if she and her students had access to MCR, their work could have been simplified because she would "direct students to observe and draw the biology diagrams, directly from the book" and could have done this during their self-study time.

Despite her beliefs in the weaknesses and strengths of MCR, Mwanne used locally produced MCR and those collaboratively produced between TIE and multinational private publishers in her daily lessons. These were mainly those written by TIE and L. K. Msaki. Using his positional power as a Commissioner for Education during the 1990s, as a policy maker, and well informed with marketisation policy, Msaki took the opportunity and wrote his Biology textbooks during the 1990s and thereafter. Because of their popularity, teachers, like Mwanne, had access to them and

they were highly recommended by the curriculum policy documents from the Ministry of Education and Culture. Thus, due to the exposure to the discourses of the domestically produced MCR, Mwanne rarely used imported MCR from other countries, such as *Tropical Biology For Secondary Schools*. Mwanne constructed different ideologies on the effect of the multiple MCR in her curriculum work. She states that, despite having different contents, characteristics, and varied details in the description of concepts, these books “have developed a bit of independent reading” as compared to the situation when they were not available to students. However, she also experienced that textbook multiplicity created some confusion for her, and other teachers and students, as they have different and sometimes conflicting ideas and contents. Constructing her identity and agency as a ‘critical reader’, Mwanne read “several books to understand” concepts in order to clear any doubt or misconceptions, and to have more knowledge of less or unclearly explained concepts in some books to which she did have access.

9.6 Chapter summary and conclusion

The purpose of this chapter was to critically analyse how secondary school teachers responded to the passive and dependent subject positioning constructed by marketisation policy discourses to construct, maintain, or negotiate their professional identity. The chapter has shown that to be a competent teacher in the contexts of marketisation policy reform, teachers needed to reduce dependence on the powerful groups for resources. Rather, it was independence in purchasing their own resources, experience, critical evaluation, and creativity that empowered teachers to construct relevant professional and subject matter knowledge, identity, and agency. For example, MCR improvisation was important to create teachers’ agency. Teachers who depended on school administrators, school managers/owners, and the government were challenged to create knowledge, and competence, and remained passive receivers of domain knowledge and resources that served to reproduce and sustain existing power relations and ideologies of the dominant groups. I have shown that teachers who resisted passive positioning constructed competent, active, critical reader identities and agencies, depending on their professional backgrounds and school and academic subject contexts. Thus, while some teachers purchased their own MCR as a resistance to those recommended and purchased by the dominant groups, others had to borrow from students whose parents managed to purchase relevant MCR for curriculum work. Still others had to select and use both those they believed were detailed and those that they

believed were summarised and shallow for constructing relevant knowledge for their academic subjects and school and classroom contexts. The next chapter focuses on the implications of the findings for theory and practice for secondary school teachers' work in Tanzania and other developing countries.

CHAPTER TEN

TEACHERS' WORK IN THE CONTEXT OF MARKETISATION POLICY REFORMS

10.1 Introduction and chapter overview

In this chapter, I discuss the study findings' theoretical and practical implications for secondary school teachers' work by comparing them with the available literature presented earlier. I delineate what knowledge is similar to, or different from, what is already known about teachers' work politics within neoliberal education policy reforms. In this way, I relate the findings as a whole to the theoretical toolbox and empirical studies I have articulated in Chapters 2 and 3.

In developing this chapter, I return to the three major research questions whose findings form my original contribution to knowledge in education policy reforms and teachers' work: (1) What policy texts and discourses were constructed in the process of marketisation policy interpretation in secondary schools?; (2) How do marketisation policy texts and discourses reshape secondary school teachers' subject positions and pedagogical codes?; and (3) How do the subject positions and pedagogical codes constructed by marketisation policy texts and discourses reshape teachers' pedagogic practices and official knowledge construction?

I divide this chapter into five sections. The first is an introduction and overview, followed by a summary in the second section of the study's major findings. Section three discusses how the politics of globalisation, capitalism, and education marketisation policy are related and their influence on secondary schooling and teachers' work. Section four discusses the relationships between domination, access to discourse, power/knowledge, and teacher identity. That is, the need for schools, classrooms, and curricula to be democratic for knowledge and identity construction for both teachers and students. Section five deals with pedagogy and culture, and identity reproduction through the marketised secondary curriculum. Section six summarises and concludes the chapter.

10.2 Summary of the findings

Below is a summary of the study's major findings presented from Chapters 6 to 9. It starts with the politics of marketisation policy interpretation in practice, as discussed in Chapter 6.

10.2.1 The politics of marketisation policy interpretation in practice

Findings in Chapter 6 have shown that the marketisation policy was interpreted through processes and practices that reconstructed the struggle for domination in and through the discourses of finance, MCR, advertising, and educational materials' approval. These discourses circulated, competed, intersected, and contradicted with other education policy discourses, such as curriculum policy, examinations, and LOI, to reshape schools' policy processes and teachers' work for the benefit of the private, capitalist publishers, state, capitalist financial and political institutions, school owners, administrators, and teachers. It was found that some of those discourses were those introduced through colonial education policy. This implies that, since independence, there was little creativity among government policymakers, practitioners, and the society to design, introduce, and implement an education policy to transform curricula contents, pedagogy, and evaluation practices.

Further, marketisation policy interpretation was political because policy implementation in schools intersected with other educational policies amidst social, political, and economic challenges facing schools, teachers, and students/parents. In some cases, like Rugosa and Urpisa, the interpretation process was further complicated by school contexts: the personal and group interests of school administrators, state policy actors, school owners, teachers, parents, and students. These interests constrained resource allocations, acquisition, and use. Each of these powers constructed competing and contradictory discourses to influence schools' marketisation policy. These discourses include curriculum policy, syllabus coverage, examination policy, class size, private tuition, school inspection, school management and administration, and government laws. These policy discourses further reshaped MCR financing, selection, access, and use by reconstructing ideologies and beliefs that encouraged confusion, non-decisions, conflicts, competition for resources, manoeuvring, and hiding relevant information.

10.2.2 Reshaping secondary teachers' pedagogical codes

The findings in Chapter 7 indicated how marketisation policy discourses shaped and reshaped secondary school teachers' subject positions and pedagogical codes. It delineated the discursive strategies employed by the dominant groups (discussed in Chapter 6) to reshape secondary teachers' curriculum, pedagogy, and evaluation in their own interests. These strategies positioned teachers as passive, less knowledgeable, and dependent professionals because curriculum objectives, contents, pedagogy, and evaluation selection and practices were subjected in and through discourses of finance, MCR, advertising, and approval. Thus, teachers' professional identity was largely marginalised because their autonomy and involvement in curricula, pedagogy, and evaluation planning and decision making were constrained to favour the powerful groups.

Consequently, teachers' freedom, critical literacy, critical thinking, and reflexivity was limited to enhance the reproduction of dominant power/knowledge and ideologies. Thus, in the two government schools, large class sizes, less accessible MCR and their form, content, and organisation constructed teachers' and students' restricted access to power/knowledge. Students' access to marketised textbooks was further constrained by their parents' limited contribution to the schools' marketisation policy. This is because they had low incomes to pay for school fees and school textbooks, they lacked market information, and they struggled for power in the family. In most cases, state policymakers directed inflexible pedagogies and evaluation practices for teachers to apply. However, in practice, teachers' power/knowledge, history, beliefs, and ideologies and access to MCR determined selection of teacher-dominated pedagogies from time to time. In contrast, where MCR access was improved and teachers had positive beliefs over their students' ability, student-centred pedagogy was selected, as in Uripisa's Biology class. Some teachers and students selected readymade marketised textbooks with questions and answers in the discourse of 'simplifying their work'.

10.2.3 The politics of the marketised curriculum and official knowledge reproduction

Chapter 8 examined how secondary school teachers' subject positions and pedagogical codes constructed by marketisation policy texts and discourses reshaped pedagogic

practices, official knowledge, and identity construction. Findings indicated that various dominant cultures competed and conflicted for reconstruction through the intersection of marketisation policy texts and discourses with teachers and students' history, beliefs, perceptions, and school contexts. Through marketised textbooks, tests, assignments, and examinations discourses, teachers and students struggled to resist, negotiate, and reproduce three dominant cultures: Western capitalist consumerism, traditional African, and passive learning cultures. More specifically, the capitalist cultures of consumption and competition that further reproduced capitalist and class economic and political hegemony were constructed.

Further, the curriculum texts and discourses emphasised class, race, and gender struggles and resistance for political hegemony. They also emphasised knowledge and pedagogies that reshaped class, race, gender, and ethnic power, ideologies, beliefs, and identities. On the other hand, passive learning cultures were emphasised by texts and pedagogic discourses of examinations, syllabus coverage, lack of practice, large class sizes, and lack of reading. These discourses further constrained student creativity, critical thinking, critical literacy, and knowledge construction.

10.2.4 Secondary teachers' agency and reconstruction of professional identity

Using vignettes from three different secondary subject teachers, Chapter 9 summarised how teachers responded to the domination and control reshaped through marketisation policy discourses discussed in the previous chapters. Such forms of responses reconstructed teachers' professional identities and differed with teachers' academic subjects, interests, age, gender, and experience. Such responses further reflected subject teachers' individual or group struggles for institutional resources and power/knowledge. They took one or a combination of the following discursive strategies. The first was through the teachers positioning themselves as creative and critical readers of multiple and detailed MCR by combining various types. This positioning was facilitated by positive emotional and ideologic investment in the selection and use of some imported MCR and negative ideologies over locally produced MCR. Creativity and critical reading was further facilitated by some teachers purchasing their own MCR and improvising some from their environment rather than depending on the school and the government. Those who could not purchase their own MCR constructed a social

network with colleagues and students working in other schools for borrowing MCR and lesson notes.

The second strategy was that some teachers attended on-the-job pedagogic training that updated their knowledge of subject matter and teaching methods to respond to curricular changes constructed by the government between 1996 and 2009, as indicated in Chapter 1. Further, other teachers engaged themselves in private tuition that improved their economic positions by adding to their meagre remunerations to sustain their lives and families. The monies also enabled them to purchase a set of marketised textbooks and, therefore, they were able to actively read widely and reflect on their theoretical, pedagogic, knowledge, and practices from teacher training. Thus, teachers who reconstructed their identities were always active readers to construct curriculum and pedagogic content knowledge as a response to dominant discourses of curricular changes, MCR, and externally set examinations. In what follows, I discuss these findings in relation to Tanzania's national education policy and secondary teachers' work contexts. I locate these findings within these contexts to reveal the study's contribution to existing knowledge and literature on the topic.

10.3 Globalisation, capitalism, and education marketisation policy and politics

This section relates the secondary school marketisation policy and politics in Tanzania with globalisation and the capitalism economic policy. It shows why and how marketisation policy reform that was re-introduced through SAP was a global, capitalist, neoliberal agenda to dominate and control education policy in developing countries.

Viewed in a global, historical, and political perspective, it is clear that, like colonial education policy, marketisation was a political and social strategy to reshape developing countries' secondary educational policy for capitalist political, economic, and social interests. Capitalists continued to reproduce all forms of hegemony and ideological control through schooling and teachers' work. However, unlike the colonial education, modern capitalist organisations constructed marketisation policy discourses that emphasised deregulation of schools and by producing and financing MCR. These resources were produced together with advertisements of capitalist goods and services that reconstructed capitalist cultures, as I discuss later in this chapter. With the demise of the socialist bloc in the early 1990s, to which Tanzania's education policy was oriented, capitalist organisations planned and managed to penetrate education policy for

the same reasons advanced during colonialism. This penetration was effected through textbook production, approval, financing, distribution, selection, and consumption.

Unlike colonial education policy, in the contexts of marketisation, capitalist powers reproduced hegemonic and ideological domination of Third World countries through the World Bank and IMF operating in Washington and New York. They did this through school textbook production and financing. In this way, they managed to control curricula contents, pedagogy, and evaluation. Thus, such policy discourses maintained economic and political domination and control after colonialism. This kind of domination is very effective because it targets teachers' work and the school curriculum. Despite developing countries' political independence since the 1960s, they have continued to be economically dominated and controlled by capitalist powers to maintain markets and sources of raw materials for the capitalist industries in Europe and America. As I discussed in Chapter 1, such domination and control were exercised in the 1970s and 1980s through SAP that emphasised the adoption of neoliberal policies of privatisation, marketisation, and decentralisation. Like in the context of colonialism, education policy in the context of globalisation is a way of penetrating the global capital to public and private school teachers and students. These policies prepare passive consumers of capitalist products. In this way, they also produce, reproduce, and sustain global economic, social, and political orders and social structures of inequalities.

The aims and objectives of capitalism domination and control of developing countries through the school curriculum are never explicit. One way of achieving these capitalist objectives is frequent school curricula changes and reviews linked to capitalist economic objectives. As Gramsci (1971) argues, political and ideological domination is enhanced through a "combination of force and consent" (p. 80) by state and teachers accepting capitalists to finance marketisation policy. Gramsci elaborates further:

The 'normal' exercise of hegemony ... is characterised by the combination of force and consent, which balance each other reciprocally, without force predominating excessively over consent. Indeed, the attempt is always made to ensure that force will appear to be based on the consent of the majority, expressed by the so called organs of public opinion newspapers and associations which, therefore, in certain situations, are artificially multiplied (p. 80).

By introducing privatisation and marketisation policies, the global capitalist economic and political institutions have opened room for capital investment through large, capitalist, publishing companies, like Oxford, Macmillan, and Longman. These

companies constructed five strategies in Tanzania. First, they purchased some previous TIE-authored textbook manuscripts. They also developed and reproduced others, and printed their publishing rights on these textbook covers, and expressed some 'blind' co-authorships with TIE. This was followed by selling to schools, teachers, and students. Second, they collaborated with state policymakers to introduce EMAC-approval certificates, which became dominant discourses to constrain domestic competitors. Third, they introduced conditions on WB-supplied textbook grants that were to be spent only on approved MCR, some of which were mainly those produced by foreign publishing companies. Fourth, they directly supplied physical MCR published from capitalist countries, whose contents were determined by publishers instead of schoolteachers and students. Fifth, they used money to corrupt public officials to enable them to penetrate schools and classrooms to ideologically control teachers and students.

From a poststructural discourse theory perspective, the domination and control of secondary teachers' work in Tanzania and other developing countries is a historical phenomenon. These discourses cannot be separated from the history of colonialism because such practices are a continuation of Africa's colonial domination and control. This continuity can be perceived in terms of Foucault's (1970, 1972) concept of *discursive discontinuity*, which explains that in any human activity there exists a break or a 'discontinuity' in which such activity will stop and re-emerge once again. Thus, marketisation policy is a form of discursive discontinuity for capitalist domination and control that shifted to socialist states in the 1970s. Further, despite emphasis on public-private participation, marketisation has constructed a weak partnership in education provision because the state's and parents' role in education provision was undermined by the marketisation policy. As discussed in Chapter 1, ETP empowered the private sector while, at the same time, disempowering the parents and the state.

Marketised textbook production and distribution became political as new power relations developed in the process. At a macro level, politics emerged between the international and national publishers, the government, and schools. Schools were arenas for competition and profit making as each publisher tried to win the public funds allocated to schools. School administrators were faced with the challenge of choosing a publisher or distributor to supply textbooks. However, teachers and students had individual freedom to select and acquire such resources directly from the market. On the other hand, the market produced resource varieties with varied contents, forms, and organisation to win the consumers. This is what Bernstein (1990, 1996, 2000) referred

to as a struggle for control of the pedagogic device. For Bernstein, each of the three fields of pedagogic device usually involves different groups of people with competing and contradictory interests, each wanting to control and dominate the field. Thus, in the *field of production*, tens of local and international publishers and distributors constructed multiple dominant discourses, including financing, advertising, and corruption, to control schools' marketisation policy. In the *recontextualisation field*, state agencies, including EMAC, BAKITA, BMU, TIE, NECTA, Ministry officials, school inspectors, and regional and district officials controlled MCR approval, selection, financing, and distribution.

For the state, the marketisation policy and politics in Tanzania formed a state domination and control of schools, teachers, and students to reproduce the desired state values and cultures. Like in most other countries, including the US, school textbook finance, approval, and selection were effective for domination and control of teachers, schools, and students (Apple, 1988). In such countries, as it was in Tanzania, textbook approval was central as the textbook selection criteria to control textbook contents and uniformity to 'assure' school curriculum quality. These findings confirm arguments made by Apple (1986) that schools, teachers, students, and the curriculum have been realigned for capitalist and class interests rather than for social change and knowledge production.

However, in Tanzania's education system, textbook selection and approval processes and practices were new policies that did not exist before as, previously, the government was the only school MCR producer and distributor. Although MCR approval by EMAC and other agencies aimed to monitor MCR contents and standards, the operation of these bodies was politically motivated and hindered their work effectiveness. For example, BAKITA is a cultural organisation that promotes Swahili as a national language. Its involvement in approving school Kiswahili books might have added a task for which its workers lacked skills and experience.

Similarly, in the *field of reproduction*, that is the schools and classrooms, Bernstein argues there is also a struggle for domination and control between School Boards, school administrators, teachers, and students because of competing and contradictory interests. While global and state politics necessarily contribute to these school micropolitics, school administrative structures, cultures, and bureaucracy resulting from policy text interpretation and intersection further reshape these micropolitics (Ball, 1987, 1990b, 1993a, 1994). This supports the discussion in

Chapters 2 and 3 that education policy implementation at the micro school level is always a political struggle involving particular groups with particular interests and motivation, where discourse is a tool for struggle. Such struggles involve and are reshaped by subject departments with individuals within them, each struggling for power and control of resources and knowledge (Siskin, 1991, 1994, 1995). These findings also support the fact that policy decision making necessarily reproduces and legitimises power relations between school administrators and teachers and, thus, reproduces hegemonic and ideological domination.

These macro and micropolitics constructed in the three fields determine MCR contents, and its nature, organisation, selection, and distribution in schools. This will have implications in the transmission and evaluation of curriculum knowledge received by students. In turn, this will have further social and economic implications on the nature of the society recreated by schooling. This is supported by Bernstein (1971), who argues that society's strategies for selection, classification, distribution, transmission, and evaluation of public educational knowledge, "reflects both the distribution of power and the principles of social control within that society" (p. 202). That is, school knowledge production and distribution determines the social identity of individuals and their positions in the society. In the next section, I discuss how this occurs in the contexts of marketisation policy reforms in Tanzania.

10.4 The politics of domination and access to discourse and teacher professional identity

The findings in Chapter 7 indicated that marketisation policy texts and discourses constructed and reconstructed at societal, institutional, and classroom practices reshaped teachers' and students' access to MCR and power/knowledge that are central for the social identity. This reshaping influenced curriculum, pedagogy, and evaluation processes. In this section, I will contend that schooling needs to empower teachers and students with knowledge and skills to transform their current social and economic positions. This empowerment needs to be done by both national and school level curriculum policymaking and interpretation, including MCR, and school management decision making. The constructed power/knowledge would enable teachers' thinking, designing, planning, and implementing the curriculum. This is an argument of the discourse theory perspective (Fairclough, 1989, 2001, 2015; Foucault, 1978, 1980; van Dijk, 2008) that dominant discourses constrain and facilitate access to power/knowledge

and teacher professional identity. Similarly, as Apple (1986) argued nearly 30 years ago, schooling needs to avoid reshaping teachers' work and the curriculum along business and corporate values. Apple suggested democratic teachers' work as I discuss below.

10.4.1 Democratic teachers' work: Empowering teachers and students

The most important strategy to change what and how teachers and students think, act, and behave is to change their cultural practices that produce the thinking, actions, and behaviours. Democratic teaching and learning cultures and values are powerful in shaping teachers' and students' behaviours. However, these cultures and values are constructed through democratic policymaking and teachers' work that is possible with committed state, official policymakers, school administrators, teachers, parents, and students. They should understand what it means to be independent and democratic. Democracy needs to be part of schools, classrooms, and curriculum, and socially constructed through participation by parents, teachers, school administrators, students, and the community. Democracy that aims to construct independent and creative minds cannot be externally enforced by the World Bank, colonial powers, and/or capitalist publishers. Further, state politicians, publishers, and less knowledgeable book authors and policymakers should not dictate the content, pedagogy, and evaluation practices. Rather, these may be constructed in collaboration with and with the participation of teachers, students, parents, school administrators, and education policymakers. Although democracy has been emphasised in secondary Political Science, Civics, General Studies, and History curriculum texts, it has never been a discursive practice for shaping and reshaping democratic knowledge, beliefs, and identities. This is supported by Apple and Beanne (1999, 2007), who argue for empowerment of school administrators, teachers, parents, and students. They are those who have the knowledge, resources, and information to make the relevant curricular and pedagogic decisions, plans, implement them, and evaluate them by involving the *community of learners* and *community of practice* (Alison, Hodkinson, Hodkinson, & Unwin, 2005; Lave & Wenger, 1991; McLaughlin & Talbert, 2006; Wenger, 1998).

Further, empowered teachers and students are not those who reproduce dominant knowledge, cultures, and ideologies for the benefit of the dominant groups.

Neither are they those who are shaped to have less questioning minds over the dominant discourses and dominant practices that do not work for the benefit of the society. Nor are they the ones who reproduce examination, examiners', or policymakers' ideologies. This is because such ideologies constrain teachers' and students' curriculum, pedagogic, and evaluation planning and decision making for they constrain relevant official knowledge. In my visit to one of the schools, as I presented in Chapter 1, society needs to support teachers who 'are the world changers'. This is possible if the state, capitalist publishers, school administrators, and society recognise teachers' professional identity, as in the strategies discussed below.

10.4.2 Teacher professional identity reclamation

The findings in Chapter 7 indicated that teachers' professional identity and agency construction was constrained by marketisation policy discourses that positioned them as passive and dependent professionals. These findings add to the current knowledge of teacher identity (Forde et al., 2006) that the capitalist political, economic, and social institutions have critically challenged secondary school teachers' professional identity. Curriculum and teachers were reshaped to build a society with knowledge, beliefs, and identity that is easy to rule and consume capitalist products and knowledge. The capitalist and state-motivated education policy reforms engineered through the dominant discourses of class sizes, MCR, financing, examinations, and advertising in classroom texts achieved these objectives. These political discourses fragmented teacher identity. However, as Forde et al. (2006) argue, this identity can be reclaimed through professional development, reflection, and enquiry:

...teachers need to forge new professional identities in order to reclaim ownership of their profession. We suggest that the way to achieve this is through professional development, reflection and enquiry. The forging of new identities is a critical process within approaches to professional development where it is important to enable teachers to reflect on, and to create, new practices which best serve the learning needs of the children and young people with whom they work. These new practices should centre on an increased sense of teacher agency and ownership of the profession. (p. 3).

As some participating teachers in this study have argued (Chapter 9), teachers who drew on professional development discourses were able to negotiate and resist passive positioning constructed through marketisation policy process. They resisted through historical and sociocultural discourses (Bourdieu, 1977; Holland et al., 1998; Wenger,

1998). Bourdieu refers to these discourses as ‘social and cultural capital’ and habituses constructed by some experienced teachers to build their power/knowledge and beliefs to perform their work. They organised various resources to plan, implement, and reflect their practices to further develop competence. For Giroux (1988), teachers and, by implication, students should think and act as *transformative intellectuals* by being knowledgeable and pragmatic (Moore, 2004). Similarly, for Smyth (1989, 1992) and Smyth and Shacklock (1998), teachers should be *reflective practitioners* and *collaborative learners* (Smyth, 1991). In addition, for Apple (1993, 2000), Apple and Beane (1999, 2007), and Beane (2005), teachers need to be autonomous and democratic professionals. These discourses empower them with the freedom to select knowledge and pedagogies relevant for their work contexts. Similarly, for Carr and Kemmis (1986), “professionals have the right to determine the sort of policies, organization and procedures that should govern their profession as a whole” (p. 8). They further argue that, like other professionals, teachers need professional knowledge and autonomy to decide the course of action relevant for their work.

By limiting professional knowledge and autonomy in school and curriculum policy decision making, marketisation policy constrained teachers “to make autonomous judgments free from external non-professional controls and constraints” (Kemmis, 1986, p. 8) that would have served students’ interests. This was further constrained by other policy actors’ whose interests contradicted with those of teachers. Consequently, marketisation reproduced social structures of class inequalities in decision making, resources, and power/knowledge.

Thus, marketisation policy constrained culture-specific teachers’ work practices because of inadequate access to power/knowledge, critical thinking, critical literacy, and creativity. For example, dominant discourses of approval, advertising, and financing constructed the business publishers’ interests and corruption rather than those of secondary school teachers and students. However, as Freire (2006) argues, teachers should be critical and creative, and teaching should be culture-specific so that *critical consciousness* develops among teachers and their students. Freire’s position concurs with Angus (2007) and Benadé (2012) who argue that teachers are not ‘technicians’ to be told what, how, when, and how much to teach and evaluate in the classroom. This is because, by doing so, we limit their independence, critical thinking, critical literacy, and creativity that would enhance the effectiveness and outcomes of their work.

These findings are similar to those found elsewhere where marketisation and privatisation were adopted (see Goodman & Saltman, 2002; Saltman, 2000, 2005; Whitty, 1997; Whitty & Power, 2000). Such studies demonstrated that privatisation and marketisation policy reforms produce and reproduce capitalist power, domination, values, and market ideologies that maintain dominance of global capital through the education systems, curricula, and teachers' work. Such policy reforms in Tanzania contradicted with public education and curriculum policy aims and objectives that emphasised values of equality, quality, and access (URT, 1996b, 1996c, 1996d).

From Bernstein's sociological perspective, such discursive constraints on teachers' professional identity and curriculum work may be explained by *strong framing* constructed by marketisation policy discourses. Strong framing of MCR contents and organisation through their production and distribution and framing of MCR availability through financing, reduced teachers' curriculum control. This limited teachers' power/knowledge that strongly framed the curriculum in manners that constrained students' official knowledge and identity construction by facilitating passive learning curriculum cultures. Similarly, as Foucault (1978) states, the powerful always greatly control discourses and decide what, how, and how much teachers and students will know and practice. This control of discourse legitimates, reproduces, and maintains domination of the less powerful.

From this discussion, if we need our schools and the curriculum to construct a democratic society and critical persons able to resist the historical, socio-political, and cultural domination and control exercised for decades, teachers need to be critical and resistant to domination and control of their work. This would also enable our students to learn, practice, and reproduce democratic values and principles that transform the society from domination and societal inequalities and construct equal power relations and access to various forms of resources. Moore (2012) shares this argument that it is only teachers themselves, not politicians, nor bureaucrats, who are responsible for the social construction of democratic and critical values and ideals. However, this would require teachers and students who are socially and ideologically free from domination, discrimination, and marginalisation. The state's role is paramount in this process because the state, rather than the private sector, produces teacher education curriculum discourses. We should do away with short term and inadequate teacher training and orientation programmes, popularly called *crash programmes* in Tanzania (Anangisye, 2011). It was because of such inadequate training programmes, some teachers in the

case study schools were called *dotcom generation teachers* or *voda faster teachers*. These programmes not only demoralise and disempower teachers to work, but also construct and reconstruct ideologies and beliefs that constrain their work practices.

Teaching as a profession requires both long- and short-term, on-the-job training programmes with empowering teacher training curricula that constructs teachers who can think critically and develop new knowledge. These programmes require adequate resources and independence from the so-called ‘donors’ who reproduce their power/knowledge and ideologies through such curricula. Reliance on capitalist countries and financial institutions for funding and physical MCR is an obstacle in the construction of democratic, independent, and creative teachers and learners. Before the introduction of education marketisation, Giroux (1988) discussed the role that teachers must assume in successful educational reforms so that their positions in democratic education provisions are critical. Giroux states that teachers must challenge policy reforms and protect schools as ‘democratic institutions’ and curriculum as a means of preparing students to become ‘responsible citizens’ in the global economy. Teachers should not receive policies made from above without questioning their purpose, objectives, and means of their successful implementation. They must critically analyse their effects on their professional work and the society. Giroux contends that “teachers as intellectuals must take active responsibility for raising serious questions about what they teach, how they are to teach, and what the larger goals are for which they are striving” (p. 126).

Failure to take active responsibility in policy reform discourses affects teachers’ power/knowledge, social identities, and social relations. For example, in the case study schools, some teachers had inadequate access to MCR discourses, thus constraining them in constructing their social and cultural capital. This constrained access to discourse, according to Fairclough (2001, pp. 61-62), has “long-term structural effects ... [because] ... discourse is part of social practice and contributes to the reproduction of social structures.” Similarly, students’ passive positioning constructed by marketisation policy may have long-term effects on their role as active members of the society:

If therefore there are systematic constraints on the contents of discourse and on the social relationships enacted in it and the social identities and selves enacting them, these can be expected to have long-term effects on the knowledge and beliefs, social relationships, and social identities and selves of an institution or society. (Fairclough, 2001, p. 61-62).

Similarly, from *cultural production and reproduction* theory (Bourdieu & Passeron, 1990), if these students take up their role in the social and economic structures, they will function to produce and reproduce the same knowledge and beliefs, identities, and relationships existing in the social structures.

Thus, what is required for teachers and students in the curriculum is an autonomy that reshapes their identities. The UK Department for Education (2010) shares this argument:

Teachers, not bureaucrats or Ministers, [or business publishers], know best how to teach-how to convey knowledge effectively and how to unlock understanding. In order to bring the curriculum to life, teachers need the space to create lessons which engage their pupils, and children need the time to develop their ability to retain and apply knowledge (p. 41- 42).

According to the Department, such autonomy cannot be achieved through curriculum prescription that specifies what pedagogies and learning outcomes teachers and students should achieve. Instead, curriculum needs to specify the expected *core knowledge* elected in the interests of the majority of the society, rather than the dominant few. This selection “must embody their cultural and scientific inheritance, the best that our past and present generations have to pass on to the next.” (p. 41). This selection requires balance between human knowledge and other learning areas. Therefore, state curriculum policymakers need “to reduce unnecessary prescription, bureaucracy, and central control throughout our education system... [which limits] room for innovation, creativity, deep learning, and intellectual exploration.” (p. 40). Teachers need freedom to make decisions on what, how, and when to teach that core knowledge selected for reproduction of relevant cultures. This freedom may lead to the discovery of new teaching techniques rather than prescribing readymade contents and strategies that constrain creativity and innovation. This autonomy must necessarily fully involve learners and their parents on what and how students learn in schools.

Thus, as a critical policy analyst, I argue for a *Teacher Identity Reclamation Movement* in Tanzania. That is, teachers need to organise a movement to regain their lost power and identity. This movement should begin from within teachers themselves and not from outside the teaching profession. Teachers themselves have the motivation and power to change their own destiny, rather than political bureaucrats. Neither the business publishers, nor the government policymakers should ‘guide’ or plan pedagogies for teachers to passively accept them. This is because from postmodern

perspectives, there is no one universal knowledge and pedagogy that would apply for all school and classroom contexts, all kinds of learners, and all historical times. *Pedagogy is an art* and, being an art, it largely depends on the artist—the teacher—and the purpose of the art—the curriculum objectives. Effective teaching and learning outcomes do not depend on single and centrally-planned and controlled, and economically-motivated pedagogic practices that are practiced in Tanzania's marketisation contexts, as shown in Chapter 7. For Hall and Murphy (2008), certain pedagogies are relevant for certain schools and classroom cultures, curriculum contexts, and students' characteristics. This is where Wenger's (1998) linkage of identity and practice comes in, so that teachers participate in thinking, planning, and implementing their pedagogic practices according to the contexts at hand, rather than central planning. In the next section, I will further discuss how this linkage between pedagogy, practice, and cultures in the context of marketisation were fundamental in the reproduction of dominant power/knowledge, ideologies, and identities among students.

10.5 Pedagogic practice and the reproduction of dominant class, gender, and race power/knowledge and inequality

In this section, I discuss the findings in Chapter 8 related to the politics of marketised curriculum taking place in the *field of reproduction* in schools and classrooms. This discussion aims to explain how teachers' pedagogic practices reconstructed in and through marketised curriculum texts and discourses struggled to reproduce the dominant class, gender, ethnic, and race power/knowledge and inequalities.

10.5.1 Pedagogic practices and the discursive reproduction of social class power and inequality

This study has consistently argued that marketisation policy has been a tool for the reproduction of what Apple (1995) calls the *holy trinity*, that is, the inequality in gender, class, and ethnicity which exists in the wider Tanzanian society. Such inequalities are reproduced through access to power in decision making, classroom curriculum discourses, and MCR discourses. As summarised above, it was found that marketised curriculum texts and discourses were tools and sites for intense struggles among marketisation policy contenders to reproduce class, race, ethnicity, and gender power/knowledge and inequalities. These findings are consistent with Foucault's (1978) intricate relationship between power, knowledge, and discourse theoretical relationships

discussed in Chapter 3. That is, in order to maintain their power/knowledge, those in power will always influence and control curriculum discourses by framing, organising, and selecting content and practice. In the contexts of marketisation, this was enhanced through MCR, financing, approval, and advertising. By controlling marketisation policy and marketised curriculum discourses, they were able to control what teachers and students knew in Biology, English Language, and Mathematics. This practice further maintained capitalist publishers, ruling classes, gender, race, and ethnic power/knowledge that further controlled teachers' and students' identities and maintained social and political hegemony between them.

Thus, I argue that the marketisation policy and marketised secondary curriculum in Tanzania performed similar functions to colonial education and curriculum policies that also produced and reproduced cultural hegemony and ideological domination and control of the society. Further, secondary curricula changes introduced over the past two decades aimed to perform this function and regain sociocultural and political domination that the capitalist states lost during the 1960s and 1970s to the socialist political and economic system. Moreover, like colonial and post-colonial curricular policy, the secondary marketised curriculum continued to reproduce a fixed body of knowledge designed from elsewhere and adopted and reproduced by Tanzania's teachers and students for the interests of the capitalists and the state. Secondary schools and curricula were reset as sites for business profit and consumption, rather than centres for social change. For example, a curriculum that emphasises consumption by advertising texts prepares a society to suffer from dependence and poverty. Advertising constructs teachers and students as subjects with knowledge and ideologies to consume rather than produce. If this is what capitalists aim for these young scholars, teachers, and society, we should ask who should produce for them. From an economics of education perspective, advertising and consumption form the last activities in the production cycle, preceded by production and distribution, although these are cyclic.

Moreover, the marketised curriculum constructed a fixed knowledge through the traditional, visible pedagogies, instead of enabling teachers and students to learn to think critically and create knowledge for changing social, economic, and political needs. Thus, rather than empowering students with production knowledge to create goods and services, students learned to consume those produced from capitalist countries. Rather than learning to fight the status quo, such as gender power and eliminating class and

inequality, they learned to reproduce them. Therefore, the secondary curriculum constructed capitalist ideologies imparting market values and ideals.

However, critical pedagogy scholars, such as Freire (1972, 1973) and Giroux and McLaren (1989a), oppose these practices by arguing that schools are places for reshaping students' current and future aspirations through pedagogic practices, knowledge, and beliefs that enhance creativity, critical thinking, and critical consciousness. For them, this cannot be achieved through curriculum texts that emphasise advertising capitalist products and, at the same time, reproducing beliefs that encourage domination and inequality based on gender, race, and class. Rather, this could be achieved through curriculum texts and pedagogic practices that construct and conserve democratic knowledge and learning that embraces students' cultural backgrounds and experiences, differences, languages, and dynamic needs.

Similarly, from a sociology of education perspective, secondary schools are places that socialise students to learn ethical and moral problem solving behaviours that can be enhanced if teachers occupy a subject position of what Giroux (1988), call *transformative intellectuals* or what Moore (2004) calls *reflective practitioners* identity. This positioning facilitates schools and classrooms as democratic places conducive for thinking, problem solving, and independence, rather than passive learning and reproduction of dominant knowledge and ideologies. For Doll (1989), this is a postmodern curriculum and progressive pedagogies that respond to complex and changing societal contexts rather than focusing on the reproduction of fixed knowledge.

Further, as Freire (1973), Apple (1996a), and Hirsch et al. (1988) argue, through curricular and *radical pedagogy*, teachers and students should be culturally literate so that they understand *core knowledge* and cultures that empower them to challenge and eliminate social power inequalities based on class, gender, race, and ethnicity. More specifically, this pedagogy would also inform teachers to consider their work contexts to construct multiple meanings embedded in schools' and students' cultures. In this way, students would be empowered with knowledge that exposes challenging and conflicting situations and relevant actions to better change their lives.

Marketised curricula content, texts, and practices backgrounded the impact of *multiculturalism*, existing in the wider Tanzania society in the construction of power/knowledge and identities. This is because students reproduced the cultures of groups who controlled economic and political resources, such as textbook authors, publishers, and teachers. This finding is consistent with the theory of cultural and

economic reproduction (Apple, 1979b, 1982a, 1982b, 1990, 1996a, 2004; Bourdieu & Passeron, 1977, 1990; Bowles & Gintis, 1976) and a mechanism of social control (Davies, 1976). This theory states that educational institutions and the curriculum are tools for the reproduction of cultural, economic, and political hegemony based on class, gender, ethnicity, age, and race power. Capitalist publishers, the state policymakers, male authors, and some teachers controlled marketised curriculum texts and discourses to meet their interests. Thus, while some English curriculum texts reproduced class and race struggles that began with colonialism at the expense of African cultures, the same curriculum employed English as a secondary medium of instruction. However, there were politics as some texts and discourses constructed and reconstructed African cultural knowledge and beliefs that may account for the increased social problems, such as albino killings, child labour, gender discrimination and violence, poverty, and corruption.

According to framing theory (Apple, 1995, 2003; Bernstein, 1996, 2000) discussed in Chapter 3, the reproduction of such knowledge and beliefs was possible because teachers and students had weak control of the “selection, organization, pacing, and timing” (Bernstein, 2000, p. 180). Instead, these processes were planned and controlled by business publishers, distributors, and state policymakers because they framed curricula through MCR selection, and period allocation on each specific topic and subtopics. Various competing and contradictory discourses that positioned teachers and students as passive and dependent subjects, and consumers of capitalist goods, knowledge, and cultures were constructed. Local private publishers, for example, summarised their marketised textbooks consistent with the syllabus contents, simple language, questions and answers, and advertising. On the other hand, foreign capitalist political and economic institutions and publishers constructed financial discourses, advertising in textbooks, ‘free textbooks’, ‘free teacher guides’, and ‘free schemes of work’ for each title they produced and distributed to schools and teachers.

The circulation and intersection of these marketised curriculum texts and discourses in schools and classrooms for the past two decades is adequate to argue that class, cultures, knowledge, and ideologies of consumerism, competition, and passive learning have been reproduced. In addition, since some of the capitalist products and texts advertised, such as phones, television, videos, and language, perform a further discursive reproduction of information and knowledge, these further reshaped other aspects of students’ social life, as supported by Fairclough (1989, 2001, 2015). For

Fairclough, through consumerism, “the economy and the commodity market have: a massive and unremitting influence upon various aspects of life, most obviously through the medium of television and in advertising.” (2001, p. 163). This is further supported by “unprecedented state and institutional control (specifically by ‘public’ institutions) [that] is exercised over individuals through various forms of bureaucracy.” (p. 163).

Over the past five decades, there has been a serious debate on the relationship between societal cultures and the school curriculum. Lawton (1975, 2012), Bourdieu (1974) supported by Bernstein (1977) and Sharp (1980) argued that curriculum is a selection from common cultures of a society because most societies in the world, as in Tanzania, are multicultural. Further, they argued that despite this cultural selection, “each family transmits indirectly rather than directly both its cultural capital and a certain ethos” (Ntshoe, 1991, p. 595). When teachers and students meet in schools and classrooms, there is an intersection of conflicting and competing cultures. Apple (1995, 2004) argued that despite the agreement that curriculum should be a selection from ‘common’ cultures, this selection is also an arena of struggles and contestations between various groups, the powerful and less powerful, where those entrusted to select make the representative or biased selection under the influence of the dominant group. In the end, it will be clear that the dominant groups’ cultural selections will dominate what is taught in schools.

This study therefore adds to the theoretical and empirical knowledge that relates the school curriculum and social structures and practices. The nature of the marketised curriculum constructed in the three schools is a typical representation of the functionalist view of schools’ and teachers’ work (Collins, 2011). However, as critical scholars argue, curriculum should go beyond this to empower teachers, students, and the society to play not only the functional roles, but critical and creative roles as well. Those roles would enable teachers to lead students to construct knowledge, skills, and ideologies for social, economic, and political changes, rather than just reproduction of social structures of unequal power relations. If we need our teachers to lead such changes, then the time has come for them to construct a democratic curriculum in democratic schools and classrooms (Apple & Beane, 2007; Beane, 2005). As Beane argues, this is mainly possible when teachers and students choose, work, and live in sustainable democratic schools and classrooms. This entails teachers and students having a voice in decisions that affect their work.

Through marketisation and a marketised curriculum, the World Bank, former colonial powers, other capitalist states, and the government also struggled to reproduce schools' and teachers' financial dependence through the discourse of 'donors'. As I discussed in Chapter 1, such dependence is historical, going back to the colonial education policy. In addition to being politically, socially, and economically less harmonious, such dependence was against ESR goals and objectives and the so-called 'competence-based curriculum' which the state policymakers claimed to implement. There is a need to restore teachers' professional and state identities. It is the Tanzanian society, with men and women, private and public, young and old, poor and rich, who should restore national and teachers' identity and construct independent and creative minds among our teachers, students, and the society, rather than the 'donors'.

There are many ways to restore state and teacher identity. One is employing our own human, financial, and physical resources through state budgets that would reduce dependence on the capitalist states and institutions. As scholars (Brock-Utne, 1993a, 1993b, 2000, 2001; Roy-Campbell, 1992, 2001; Roy-Campbell & Qorro, 1997; Thing'o, 1981) have argued, Africans need to 'decolonise' their minds. As this study indicated, LOI has contributed to the historical and discursive reconstruction of passive learning among teachers and students. Working together, LOI and marketisation policy reform disempowered teachers' and students' access to knowledge/power and resources.

Decolonisation starts with changing the LOI, minds, and dependence cultures and ideologies constructed since colonialism, and dependence on 'white collar jobs', which Lema (1973) argued is a 'curse'. This would enable the creation of independent minds and people. Thirty years after Lema's argument, and fifty years after independence, the education system continues to depend on capitalists. This is because, as Lema argues, 'old attitudes' of dependence 'die hard'.

Further, as Chapter 8 has shown, the marketisation policy and the marketised curriculum have reconstructed social class inequalities existing in the larger Tanzanian society. As Bernstein (1990) argues, this may be explained by visible pedagogies with strong pacing and sequencing rules that constrained communication of knowledge to students from the disadvantaged social classes. Bernstein states the disadvantaged class's orientation to language and narrative:

is not privileged by the pedagogic communication of the school, either in form or in content, for only some narratives are permissible in school. Thus the pacing

rule of the transmission acts selectively on those who can acquire the school's dominant pedagogic code, and this is a social class principle of selection. (p. 76).

For Bernstein, knowledge construction for these groups could be improved if the pacing rule was weakened through the provision of more curricular and economic resources and teacher training on empowering pedagogies.

10.5.2 Market failure in textbook production and reproduction of social class inequalities

Supporters of education privatisation and marketisation argued that it would be efficient as opposed to public provision (for example, Ervin & Smith, 2008). However, this study's findings were contrary to this argument because school textbook marketisation policy reproduced teachers' and students' inadequate access to power/knowledge and resources that existed even before the policy. It also produced corruption practices. Therefore, marketisation policy constrained the production of teachers' and students' *cultural capital* (Bourdieu, 1986) and perpetuated global economic capital through publishing school MCR. These findings are similar to research conducted in other countries (See Ball, 1994; Kohn & Shannon, 2002; Macarov, 2003; Molnar, 1996, 2005; Saltman, 2000, 2005). For example, based on US public schooling, Molnar (2005) and Saltman (2000) have shown how the privatisation and marketisation of schools and curriculum materials were 'collateral damage because they reshaped curriculum, pedagogy, and testing to the corporate class interests by imparting the cultures and ideology of consumerism. Thus, like in the US, marketisation policy effects in Tanzania extend the global capitalist ideology of 'commodification' and school commercialism. For Saltman and Molnar, school commercialism and marketisation aimed to change teachers' and students' consumption patterns and develop negative psychosocial behaviours that were against the aims of public schooling. Similarly, the consumption of MCR in Tanzania aimed to construct curricula and pedagogies that promoted corporate products, such as 'soft drinks' and textbooks. For Saltman (2005), such practices "undermine the integrity of the curriculum" (p. 10), and thus distort and constrain the achievement of educational objectives.

Thus, it is fair to argue that marketisation policy has increased what Apple (1986) calls *capitalist pressures* for economic motives over schools' and teachers' work through the market ideologies of consumerism, dependence, and individualism.

Schools, teachers, and students have served the global capitalist economy through marketisation principles that are opposed to those of democratic principles of participation, inclusion, and freedom—the basic political and social values which public education ought to cherish through schooling and the curriculum. That is, for Tanzania's context, marketisation policy reforms necessitated the abolition of ESR principles constructed during the 1960s within the socialist principles by inviting capitalist ideologies and exploitation of the working class. Consequently, the marketisation policy constructed schools to move away from ESR discourses and education for social development. In addition, this perpetuated mass domination, control, and exploitation through market ideologies and principles. Therefore, marketisation policy discourses historically and discursively reconstructed differential power relations created and recreated between the developed and developing world through colonial education policy, world trade exploitation, and SAP.

Teachers and students' thinking, practices, and behaviours were shaped in the interests of global capitalism to provide markets for capitalist publishing products, the MCR. This contradicted with ESR's philosophical objectives of preparing students to become productive societal members who fought against all forms of social inequalities. The above finding is consistent with scholars' (O'Neill, 2005; Smyth et al., 2000) views that globalisation reshapes secondary schooling and teachers' work to meet the global capitalist political, economic, and social demands. This is opposed by critical education and poststructural perspectives, which argue that through the curriculum, teachers and students need to construct a pedagogy that allows them to work to create their own knowledge that is relevant for their own contexts, rather than reproducing dominant cultures, knowledge, and ideologies. This is the core of democratic public education.

I want to argue that in the context of globalisation, it may be challenging to escape from the global sociopolitical and economic transformations. However, the important argument is that in addition to learning the available dominant knowledge already constructed by other scholars, Tanzanian teachers and students should learn to think, create, and produce their own knowledge relevant for their current and future social, economic, and political developments. The available dominant knowledge should be a foundation and motivation to do so, rather than being a means and agent of its reproduction.

As Chapter 1 has shown, corruption not only affects production, distribution, and access to marketised textbooks, but also the misuse of school funds and resources.

This further affects the school curriculum, pedagogy, and evaluation because such resources were not available for schooling. Corruption therefore enhances the maintenance of social class power/knowledge and domination. To construct a just society, corruption in schooling must be eliminated to eradicate power/knowledge and resource inequalities. As Prunty (1984) succinctly puts, “educational policy analysis must attend simultaneously to the workings of the school and the workings of society” (p. 41), and that analysis must be based on a “moral and ethical stance, for the very role of transmitting values, and selecting people for, or excluding them from, social and occupational positions” (p. 41). Thus, based on the moral and ethical values of society, I argue against corruption and curriculum policy that reproduces class, race, and gender inequalities. This will enable redistribution of the power/knowledge and resources perpetuated through privatisation and marketisation policies (Grauwe, 2013). Grauwe proposed several strategies to eliminate corruption, including improving information and transparency among policy actors in schools, teachers, and students. He also suggested strengthening accountability among school policy actors and participatory decision making that involves teachers and students as the main participants.

10.5.3 Reproduction of examination ideologies and the reconstruction of class inequalities

Like colonial education and curriculum policy, the marketisation policy and marketised curriculum historically and discursively reproduced national examination ideologies that reshaped official knowledge, students’ identity, and social class inequalities. Instead of constructing knowledge for social change and eliminating power/knowledge inequalities, in most cases, national and local examinations influenced MCR production, distribution, and consumption for the interests of publishers and the state. These facilitated teachers’ and students’ restricted access to MCR discourses, which constructed curriculum, pedagogic, and evaluation practices that constrained their creativity and critical thinking, and reproduced passive learning cultures and inequalities. This means that, like in the colonial education and curriculum policy, examinations classified, disciplined, and punished teachers and students (Foucault, 1977). Further, this finding supports other studies (Brown, 2001; Mansor, Leng, Rasul, Raof, & Yusoff, 1996; Wiliam, 2011) that criticised examinations-based assessment for failure to capture some curriculum outcomes, such as attitudes, values, behaviours, and

skills as stated in the subject syllabi (URT, 1996b, 1996c, 1996d, 1997a, 2005a, 2005b, 2010c).

Instead of national examinations, schools and teachers could use school-based *embedded formative assessment* (William, 2011) that considers assessment as a continuous and daily process, rather than a one-time event planned at the national level or somewhere else and implemented by teachers and students (Mansor et al., 1996). According to William (2011), this approach may enable teachers to:

- clarify, share, and understand learning objectives and success standards (p. 51);
- plan tasks and pedagogies that provoke learning (p. 71);
- provide feedback that facilitates learning moving forward (p. 107);
- activate “learners as instructional resources for one another” (p. 133); and
- create environments that empower “learners as owners of their own learning” (p. 145).

Similarly, Mansor et al., (1996) argue that school-based formative assessment “provides stable and continuous pressure-free assessment, reducing the reliance on standardized examination, improving test item reliability, reflecting students’ ability, promoting leisure reading, fostering teaching, enforcing independent learning, facilitating learning autonomy and empowering teachers in the evaluation process.”(p. 102). It empowers them to decide what, how, and when to assess, thereby reducing ideological impacts and inequalities reproduced through a national examinations and marketisation policy. This enables schools to achieve curricular goals and objectives, instead of national examinations that create anxiety and pressure over students and teachers.

Through centrally-set examinations and associated ideologies, marketisation policy reform reproduced discourses of ‘failed school graduates’ because such a class of students had less access to knowledge and resources. Over the past fifteen years, millions of young people aged between 18 and 22 years graduated in both private and government secondary schools without further education because the school curriculum disempowered them. This is because schools, teachers, and students operate in under-resourced and undemocratic schools and classrooms, with less participatory pedagogies that constrained official knowledge construction. The increased number of private candidates struggling to resit National Form Four examinations after studying in under-resourced urban tuition centres further evidence this. Consequently, these young people were at high risk of HIV/AIDS, increased unemployment, and unwanted pregnancies. These risks further increase poverty and dependance and *the vicious cycle of poverty*, as

well as mass consumers. According to Kincheloe (2005), this is one of the capitalist aims— reproduction of the exploitation, domination, and uncritical consumers of capitalist industrial products, like mobile phones, televisions, textbooks, video, and cars.

10.6 Chapter summary and conclusion

In this chapter, I summarised the study's findings and discussed how these findings differed or confirmed existing theoretical and empirical studies. I examined the politics, culture, and practice, and what *ought to be* good teachers' work practices focusing on curriculum, pedagogy, and evaluation that may reduce domination and inequality existing in the social structures based on class, gender, race, and ethnicity. In the next chapter, I conclude the study and give relevant recommendations for policy and practice for improving secondary teachers' work and schooling in the context of education policy and reforms politics.

CHAPTER ELEVEN

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

11.1 Introduction and chapter overview

Throughout this study, I examined the political nature of teachers' work and the cultural practices reshaped by marketisation policy from critical and poststructural theoretical viewpoints that differ from the traditional policy analysis approaches. In this chapter, I conclude the study by evaluating the research project as a whole and give some relevant recommendations for policy, practice, and research for Tanzanian secondary schooling and teachers' work. I answer the major research question: *How do secondary school teachers' subjectivities and practices constructed by marketisation policy texts and discourses inform education policy and practices?* The conclusion examines whether or not the study has filled the research gap identified and rationalised, and how well the critical and poststructural theoretical approaches successfully addressed the study's purpose and research questions as compared to traditional approaches which I rejected.

I divide this chapter into four sections beginning with an introduction. Section two restates the study's purpose, research questions, and process, and section three presents a conclusion on the study's strengths and limitations. Section four is the study's implications for education policy and practices and the theoretical and practical implications for secondary school teachers' work and educational marketisation in Tanzania and other developing countries. In section five, I recommend further studies in the area.

11.2 Restatement of study's purpose and research questions

In this study, I aimed to critically analyse how marketisation policy and political discourses reshaped teachers' work culture in three secondary schools between 1992 and 2012. The study deconstructed marketisation policy texts and discourses to discern their constructive and constitutive effects on teachers' work based on the following questions: What policy texts and discourses were constructed in the process of marketisation policy interpretation in secondary schools? How do marketisation policy texts and discourses reshape secondary school teachers' subject positions and pedagogical codes? How do the subject positions and pedagogical codes constructed by

marketisation policy texts and discourses reshape teachers' pedagogic practices and official knowledge construction? However, before I conclude the study, I comment on the relevance of the theoretical and epistemological position I employed to conduct the investigation.

11.3 Strengths and limitations of the study

In what follows, I discuss study's strengths and limitations, beginning with the theoretical frame I applied to guide the study.

11.3.1 Strengths and limitations of the theoretical and methodological frame

The blend of CDA and Bernstein's (1990, 1996, 1999, 2000) theory of pedagogic discourse used in this study to critically analyse marketisation policy texts and discourses has successfully demonstrated how the various powerful groups operating at the global, institutional, and local levels of the education system reshaped official knowledge transmission in the case study schools. Further, through Bernstein's concepts of classification and framing, the study findings have shown how marketisation policy interpretation in schools served to reproduce the differential distribution of state and capitalist power and control. In addition, the critical and poststructural approaches I applied have shown how teachers' work through marketisation policy discourses reproduced the wider social structures and politics of colonial education policy. Thus, teachers' work continued to reproduce wider social power relations and hegemonic practices based on class, gender, race, and ethnicity. That is the case with the historical and social construction of forms of the political, social, and cultural hegemony between developed over developing countries that were established since the colonial era. Others are teachers' hegemony over students in the curriculum, state over schools and teachers, and male domination over females.

Being able to show these findings, critical and poststructural approaches have challenged the traditional policy analysis approaches and functionalist social theory that viewed societies and the educational institutions where teachers functioned as integrated and coherent systems. The theories have shown the discursive role of politics, history, and cultures that produce or reproduce domination and inequalities, which were usually downplayed by traditional and functionalist approaches. Thus, teachers' work cultural practices in the marketisation policy contexts represented political and social struggles and negotiations constructed by teachers as individuals and groups who occupied

different, multiple, and contradictory subject positions in the policy process. This positioning constructed multiple subjectivities that differentiated teachers according to identities, knowledge, ideologies, beliefs, perceptions, and dispositions. Further, the critical and poststructural perspectives I applied have established the role of teachers' agency and power in this positioning to regain their identities as teachers. This study's findings have therefore challenged the social functionalist view that backgrounded the diversity and dynamicity of schools, and the society and social subjects within them.

With these observations, therefore, I support education policy analysts who formulated and used critical and poststructural theories because the traditional and functionalist researchers underestimated the impact of dominant discourses reproduced through history and cultural practices and ideologies. My argument is that the analysis of dominant discourses, as theory suggests, helps policy analysts to focus on social practices as representations of past social, political, and cultural events and activities. These approaches enable a move away from the focus on the universalisation and generalisations of policy processes and impacts to the unique role of policy contexts and consequences shaped by social, historical, and cultural diversities. Therefore, in this chapter, I emphasise the strengths of critical and poststructural approaches in understanding teachers' work politics, culture, and history in the contexts of education policy reforms. In the next section, I present the conclusions in relation to the study's research questions.

11.3.2 Study's limitations

I argue for two main limitations in this study. First, with the large dataset and complexity of coding and discourse analysis, I only produced an incomplete discourse analysis of marketisation policy texts collected. Second, the case study was limited to three schools and three academic subjects and, because of the epistemology I employed, these findings cannot be generalised to other school contexts in Tanzania. The study's findings are limited to three selected schools and subjects. A sample of other schools, teachers, and subjects may be relevant to conduct a comparative analysis and confirm the current propositions. However, as I argued above, the findings may reflect the policy challenges faced in other schools, subject to further research as I suggest below.

11.4 Study's conclusions

11.4.1 Politics of marketisation policy interpretation

From the first research question that aimed to identify policy texts and discourses constructed and reconstructed in the context of marketisation, I would conclude that, like other educational policies, marketisation policy was a tool for political, economic, and social hegemony between various global, institutional, and local capitalist and state institutions, as discussed in the study. Despite emphasising participation from the private sector, schools, and parents, marketisation policy was implemented with less policy awareness among many parents and teachers who could have improved access to MCR discourses and power/knowledge. Many parents were uninformed of policy transformation, were constrained by socioeconomic positions, and continued to believe in the previous textbook policy where the state produced and funded school CR production and distribution. Despite other social and political constraints, the lack of policy knowledge and information significantly constrained parents' participation. Thus, while marketisation meant decentralisation to school and parents, this process was incomplete and unclear to them as major policy actors.

Further, in the case study schools and subject departments, marketisation policy interpretation was typically characterised by an extended and multifaceted history of struggles and negotiation as school administrators, teachers, and students sought to reproduce political, social, and economic domination through the curriculum. In this struggle, the producers of English, locally produced MCR won the power and became the 'dominant discourse' in the school curriculum over the historical period since the policy was adopted. Similarly, the case study has shown how marketisation policy discourses produced and reproduced dominant curriculum discourses because some school administrators, teachers, and students believed that they are cheap, have questions and answers, are summarised, and easy to read and understand; hence, they are accessible to most teachers and students. Teachers and students also believed in passing examinations. The struggles to dominate the market and the curriculum led to the construction and reconstruction of dominant discourses and alternative ideologies that worked in dynamic and complex sociocultural, political, and economic contexts.

11.4.2 Marketisation policy and teachers' pedagogical codes and identity

Based on the findings of the second research question, I conclude that social positioning constructed for teachers constrained their access to resources, power/knowledge, and social relationships that further impacted curriculum, pedagogy, and evaluation processes. This means that the curriculum process and content, pedagogy, and evaluation were structured towards the economic and political interests of the state and capitalist publishers. These practices were consistent with the capitalist ideological and sociopolitical interests of preparing consumers and dependents, rather than as producers, and independent and critical thinking societal members. However, poststructuralists argue that people are both constrained and facilitated by the social structures of which they are a part. Despite this, while responding to these constraints, they develop agency to develop their practices. This results to the very process of reproducing those structures and practices. Based on their work contexts and available resources, teachers maintained and created elaborate work cultures that empowered them to meet the purpose of their work. Despite some variations, the planning, borrowing, selection, and use of MCR challenged the curricular changes introduced between 1995 and 2005 and 'competence-based' reforms between 2005 and 2013.

The findings led me to argue that teachers were demotivated and disempowered to change their work cultural practices from a 'content-based' to a 'competence-based' curriculum. This curriculum model, which also failed in South Africa and Australia, was planned and adopted in 2005. Its supporters claimed that it was based on the pillars of 'multiple textbooks' and would empower learners' free and democratic participation in knowledge and identity construction. However, such claims were the very umbrella terms for hidden capitalist economic, sociocultural, and political hegemonic objectives. Thus, the competence-based curricular transformations as stipulated in the curricular reforms of 2005 were not only a conspiracy, but also a deception played by capitalist powers that began with 19th century colonial education policy.

These capitalist hegemonic objectives hide under the idea that 'competence-based curricular' transformations constrained teachers to play a facilitator's role in curriculum process and learners to be the key players in the process. It is unlikely that such teacher and student role transformation could take place in the context of marketisation policy reforms because while the government emphasised curricula and

pedagogic transformation from content-based to competence-based, the market forces constrained the achievement of such transformations by emphasising the former.

The second conclusion is that study's findings support theories of social, cultural, and economic reproduction discussed in Chapter 2. That is, curriculum texts and discourses reproduced the dominant cultures and power/knowledge created from other countries, particularly the developed capitalist states. They constrained teachers', students', and society's efforts to produce their own relevant power/knowledge and ideologies to eliminate dependence and exploitative relationships constructed through colonial education policy.

The third conclusion is that this study has shown how marketisation policy silenced teachers' voices in the schools' marketisation policy financing. The policy prepared passive and dependent consumers and reproduced various forms of social class, gender, ethnic, and race inequalities. MCR and examinations discourses played a particular role in the three schools. The ideologies and beliefs constructed by the colonial education policy were still reflected in MCR selection and use as well as teachers' and students' pedagogic practices of lecturing, memorisation, note copying, and examinations. However, teachers' and students' agency and power were manifested in the classrooms as they continued to proclaim their identity and negotiate their social relationships with the dominant groups as they did in the past.

11.4.3 Marketisation policy and teachers' pedagogic practices

The third research question investigated how the subject positions and pedagogical codes constructed by marketisation policy discourses reshape secondary school teachers' work cultural practices. Despite its small sample, this case study has reflected the politics and cultures of secondary school curriculum, pedagogy, and evaluation. As Geertz (1973, p. 23) argues, "small facts speak to large issues". The study has shown that marketisation, contrary to its supporters' expectations, reproduced marginalisation of the disadvantaged groups in provision of education in Tanzania. The state struggle to transform and improve education provision and teachers' work through marketisation policy over the past two decades has resulted to inadequate access to MCR. This situation, together with the nature, organisation, and content of those accessible, reproduced the dominant pedagogic codes and students' resistance to such codes, and facilitated increased inequality in power, resources, and official knowledge between

urban and rural schools, both public and private. Dominant pedagogic codes were also facilitated by examination ideologies that reshaped finance, selection, and consumption of MCR that limited teachers' and students' creativity and critical thinking. The policy intersected with other policy discourses to produce and reproduce inequalities in access to official knowledge/power and social relations, between urban and rural, and public and private school contexts.

The case study has also shown the micro problems of the education system in Tanzania, which also reflected the macro picture of marketisation policy reform and its politics. These problems relate to declining educational access and increasing inequalities experienced by the majority of secondary school graduates. The study has also shown the political, social, and economic challenges that secondary school administrators have faced and continue to face in curriculum policy interpretation and leadership in the face of global policy reforms that emphasised the significance of markets over the state. It has shown the challenges teachers and students face in the construction of curriculum knowledge and identities.

Further, the study has shown the possible reasons for the deterioration in educational knowledge construction, enrolment decline in Mathematics and Science education experienced in higher education and other tertiary educational institutions, and the increased mass of students who could not be selected for further education and training in the past 10 years. This situation jeopardises the attainment of school and national curricula policy objectives and the contribution of the secondary education subsector in other national social and economic policies, such as the *Strategy for Economic Growth and Poverty Reduction* (URT, 2005h) and *The Tanzania Development Vision 2025* (URT, 1999e).

Therefore, this study has shown that policy transformations from state to marketisation and decision-making decentralisation to schools that has occurred over the past two decades have not been a panacea for CR problems that have faced Tanzania's secondary schools for so long. More alternative policies need to be devised and implemented, with full participation of schools and teachers, as sites and principal participants for curriculum construction.

Further, the case study has shown the extent to which the school curriculum is political. That is, the school curriculum is a site of struggle for the production and reproduction of dominant groups' cultures, power/knowledge, ideologies, and identities. These effects were higher in government and rural school contexts as compared to

urban private schools. From a sociological lens, the critical policy analysis of the three case study schools' marketisation policy has failed to achieve the expected social equity role, as well as a government policy failure to achieve expected curriculum objectives. A significant gap in what the curriculum policy aimed to achieve and processes has been constructed. In Chapter 1, I argued that the policy was silent on its expected objectives, but policymakers stated that it was aiming to transform school textbook production and distribution to a marketised system controlled by private publishers. Thus, policy failure in terms of a social perspective was framed at the planning or policymaking stage. Furthermore, this study's findings coincided with the government's textbook policy decision in August, 2014. This policy reversed CR production and distribution under TIE, which may support my conclusion on marketisation policy failure. This government policy action is consistent with the economics of education theory that, when markets fail, governments need to intervene to correct market failures.

Moreover, from a sociology of knowledge perspective, the findings are also valid. In a teacher-dominated classroom with limited or no resources, policy failure is expected because of less democracy and less access to knowledge. This was further accelerated by the emphasis on passing examinations that contradicted with knowledge construction's democratic principles. Marketisation policy in Tanzania is one of the policies that was implemented in a rush without research, and preparations underestimated the interested parties' pressure. This reflects the existing gap and link between education policymakers and other stakeholders, including professionals and educational researchers. Such parties include the so-called 'financial donors' or 'financial stakeholders' whose interests were either hidden or known to Tanzania's policymakers.

I conclude this section by arguing that there has been a significant discursive and practical contradiction between the expected and the achieved objectives of secondary education and the curriculum. This is because while education aimed to construct cultures, knowledge, and skills and reduce inequality, the school curricula texts and social practices worked against these by functioning to reconstruct cultural hegemonic and ideological domination and control.

11.5 Study's implications for policy and practice

With the above conclusions, I make the following recommendations for marketisation and other educational policymaking and interpretation. These recommendations relate to

policymakers, researchers, teachers, teacher educators, parents, and students. I begin with policymakers and researchers.

11.5.1 Education policymakers and researchers

From the conclusions that the marketisation policy reforms constrained teachers' work transformation from a teacher-dominated to a student-centered curriculum and the achievement of educational objectives facilitated the reconstruction of dominant cultures and identities among students, school CR policy needs to be reworked and reconsidered. If such transformations are to be achieved, there is a dire need to improve the curricular policy administration and practices at global, national, and local levels. Of course, the role of the private sector in education provision and, specifically, in the production and distribution of school textbooks is important. However, this role should not replace that of the state and constrain teachers' work to the benefit of the capitalist economy. Rather, the private sector and the state should work to facilitate teachers' work to reduce inequality in resources, power, and knowledge based on class, gender, race, geographical location, and ethnicity. That is, the public sector is more than important in the marketisation context to improve the social democratic role of the public education system.

Therefore, to enhance the role of the two sectors, we need to improve policy administration by providing adequate policy information and resources because of the role of information in the policy process. Further, there is a need to define policy strategies for schools, teachers, parents, and students to participate fully in curriculum, pedagogy, and evaluation. Their involvement would enable creation of their own knowledge and resources rather than purchasing and reproducing MCR aiming at profits. This would also reduce dependence on funding by the global capitalist society and institutional levels.

Most private publishers in developing countries require some level of technical assistance from the government in order to enhance the production of high quality, unbiased, and ideologies-free school MCR. Further, there is a need to perform critical text analysis to uncover these ideologies embedded within all forms of curriculum texts. This will uncover the multiple meanings constructed through the texts. However, this process is not as simple as one might think because meaning making is culture- and context-specific. This implies a need to involve wider representations of larger groups based on gender, race, and class. This may also mean the provision of training in book

writing and publications to respond to high textbook and resource demands imposed by a rapidly expanding secondary education sector for better and affordable education resources. Local and central governments need to work with the private sector to create enabling environments that take the advantage of new technology and market innovations. A policy is necessary to stimulate private sector growth for effective production, distribution, and consumption. Such a policy needs to focus on the values of educational quality and equity rather than as a source of private sector wealth, income, and profit reproduction. The state regulatory agencies like EMAC need to be open and visible to ensure accountability, transparency, equity, and adequacy for school CR for students and teachers. They should have the authority and capability to monitor the market behaviour.

Teachers and students need curricular, pedagogic, and evaluation policies that construct relevant official knowledge and identities from Tanzanian perspectives and contexts, rather than imposing dominant knowledge from elsewhere. This implies major reforms in the secondary school curriculum to focus on social, political, and economic needs because the current marketisation policy has constructed teachers, students, and society to work for global capitalist economies. The curricular policy that was constructed shaped and reshaped consumer knowledge and identities. Public education and schools should serve human service and not 'business organisations'. Schools, teachers, and students should not be centres and agents for the reproduction of capitalist cultures and consumer identities. Curricular, pedagogic, and evaluation policies that emphasise such corporate values reproduce domination. Examination ideologies need to be replaced by regular student-centred assessments that empower teachers and students to determine the objectives, strategies, and resources for their own work and outcomes. A successful school CR policy needs to fully involve secondary schools, teachers, and students and provide information to reduce existing policy confusion and politics so that schools, teachers, students, and parents can plan and implement their own context-dependent policies for enabling educational knowledge and identity construction.

In this study, one of the obstacles to distributing MCR to rural schools, that consequently reproduced rural-urban inequality in education and knowledge, was poor transport and communication infrastructures. The government should accelerate the extension of infrastructure to rural secondary schools so that CR will be distributed at affordable costs. This will reduce the existing gap in official knowledge construction and acquisition between students in rural and urban schools. Policymakers need to

understand that teachers and students come from multiple cultural, economic, and social backgrounds. This multiculturalism diversity should be addressed by curriculum policy texts. It is through the curriculum and education policy where a society can create democratic, just, equal, gender-balanced, non-violent, and non-discriminatory social identities. The current social, economic, and political problems facing Tanzania's society, such as gender discrimination, violence, prostitution, unemployment, albino killings, and corruption, have their roots in the social structures and are reproduced through schooling and the curriculum.

Policymakers need to realise and take action on the impact of the dependence culture for education policymaking and enactment. My concern here is that while billions of dollars are wasted through corruption, education policy still depends on the World Bank, IMF, and developed capitalist countries fifty years after independence. More importantly, the extent to which such dependence and corruption are reproduced through dominant discourses constructed in the society and school curriculum is critical. It is fair to say that Tanzania does not need foreign aid if tax resources are effectively collected and society is conscious of the discursive impact of dependence and corruption. The dependence culture constructed since colonialism needs to be broken to empower schools, teachers, and society to be independent and creative.

11.5.2 Secondary school subject teachers

My recommendations for teachers is how their subjectivities constructed in and through marketisation policy discourses reshape what, how, and when they teach because policy texts and discourses are very constructive and constitutive. Teachers should also learn that their professional recognition by society and the political system has considerably diminished over the past two decades. As a critical policy analyst, I argue that individual and social agency is required to recover this lost identity, empower knowledge, and develop creativity and independent minds. These may be constructed through access to texts and discourses that develop their reflexivity, creativity, critical thinking, collaboration, and research that improve their work practices. Similarly, student knowledge, creativity, and independence are socially and discursively constructed in less threatening and non-discursive practices that enable thinking, creative, and democratic ways. Moreover, teachers need to know that students' sociocultural, ideological, and economic backgrounds constrain and facilitate

knowledge and identity construction. These need to be taken into account in curriculum planning and decision making.

11.6 Suggestions for further research

Based on the above conclusions, future similar studies may be done in other schools and subjects in Tanzania to:

1. compare the effects of marketisation policy on teachers' work and schooling;
2. examine the social and psychological effects of the produced and reproduced classed, gendered, and raced struggles for teachers and students; and
3. examine the curricular, pedagogic, and evaluation policies that may enhance secondary school teachers' and students' democratic curriculum work that constructs a creative, equal, critical thinking, and participatory curriculum in the contexts of marketisation policy reforms.

Finally, I hope that this study's findings will help to improve Tanzania's education and curriculum policy process and research and, thus, improve individual teachers' work and professional knowledge, beliefs, ideologies, and attitudes towards curriculum, pedagogy, and evaluation. These will reconstruct teacher autonomy, responsibility, and participation in curriculum policy decision making. It will also improve communities, schools, and systemic policies and practices that may also help to improve education quality, access, and equity for the betterment of Tanzania's society.

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NOTES

1. I use the term *curriculum resources* (CR) in a general sense referring to all resources used by teachers and students in curriculum work, including all forms of books, teaching aids, subject syllabi, teachers guides, lesson plans, schemes of work, and the like.
2. Throughout this study, I adopt *Marketisation policy* to refer to *Curriculum Resources Marketisation Policy*, referring to policy transformation from state production and distribution of school CR to private sector determined by market principles.
3. The government policy texts provides a list of terms related to private sector school CR production and distribution in the context of marketisation policy reforms as follows:

<i>Term</i>	<i>Meaning</i>
Course book:	A book that covers the entire syllabus and intended to be used as a core book by all learners in a class of a particular subject and grade. It shall comprise both learners and teacher's guide.
Non-textual material:	Physical objects intended to be used in the teaching/learning process.
Pupil's book:	A book intended as a source of information for learners for a particular subject and level.
Reader:	A Storybook, fiction and non-fiction, intended to promote reading culture and skills.
Reference Book:	A book intended to be a source of information, some of which may not be specific to a particular subject or grade. This includes atlases, dictionaries, encyclopaedias, journals and other non-fiction materials
Supplementary book:	A book intended to be used by all learners in the class to supplement the course book. Usually it does not cover the entire syllabus of a particular subject. It may be accompanied by a Teacher's Guide.
Syllabus:	A curriculum document detailing the objectives, topics, strategies, teaching/learning methods, teaching aids for use in a particular subject and class. A Syllabus can also show periods and evaluation/assessment of what is to be taught.
Teacher's (guide) book:	A book providing assistance and guidance to teachers on how to use the accompanying learners' book.
Textual material:	Printed material e.g. books, charts, manuals etc.

Source: (URT, 2005g, p. ii)

4. EFA emphasized expansion, free, and compulsory primary education for all, learning and life skills, adult literacy, gender parity and equality, and quality improvement. However, as a capitalist tool, EFA constructed discourses that contradicted by emphasizing education provision in African countries using foreign languages such as English and French as languages of instruction (Brock-Utne, 1993b, 2000, 2001).
5. Although global campaigns against environmental pollution and degradation existed during the 1970s and 1980s, the 1992 United Nations Conference on Environment and Development (UNCED), called the Rio Earth Summit (UNO, 1992; URT, 1997b), culminated in the formulation of international and national policies for environmental protection and against pollution and degradation. Similar campaigns were those spearheaded by the UN including (1) “Convention on Biological Diversity, March 1996; (2) Convention for the Protection, Management and Development of the Marine and Coastal Environment of the Eastern African Region and Related Protocols, 1996; (3) United Nations Convention to Combat Desertification, 1997; (4) United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change, 1996; (5) The Vienna Convention on the Protection of Ozone Layer, 1993; and Montreal Protocol on Substances that Deplete the Ozone Layer acceded, 1993.
6. The conference emphasized access to education for women, reduction of infant, child and maternal mortality, and access to reproductive and sexual health services including family planning (Richey, 1999; UNO, 1994; URT, 1992, 1994, 1995b). Feminist and gender equality movement were against women discrimination, exploitation and violence, and support women rights, gender access and equality to education and training, and empowerment (UNO, 1995; URT, 1995c, 2005d).
7. The 1990s witnessed campaigns against HIV/AIDS declaring these as national calamity and the government invested resources in these campaigns.
8. Tanzania gradually introduced ICT in the public services, education, and training in encouraged all public and private social, political, and economic institutions were shifting to the use of computer technologies.

9. Basic Transcription Notations and the Meanings They Represent

<i>Notations</i>	<i>Explanation</i>	<i>Indicated meaning</i>	<i>Source</i>
/	Single slash	“Slight final fall indicating temporary closure” or ‘short pause’	(Gumperz & Berenz, 1993, p. 121)
//	Double slash	“Final fall” or ‘long pause’	
?	Question mark	“Final rise”	
-	Single dash	“Truncation”	
(...)	Three dots	‘Material deliberately omitted’	(Edley, 2001, p. 228)
[text]	Text in brackets	‘Clarificatory information’	
<u>text</u>	Underlined text	‘Word(s) emphasized’	
?	“A question mark”	“a rising inflection, not necessarily a question.”	(J. M. Atkinson

!	“An exclamation mark”	“an animated tone, not necessarily an exclamation.”	& Heritage, 1984, p. xi)
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10. These include Song of Lawino/ Song of Ocol; Weep Not Child; The Black Hermit; Three Suitors One Husband; and This Time Tomorrow. Others are: The Lion and the Jewel; The African Child; The Great Ponds; Is It Possible; A Meeting in the Dark; New Life in Kyerefaso; No Longer at Ease; Things Fall Apart; and The River Between.

APPENDICES

Appendix 1: Permission to Conduct a Research Project in Secondary Schools

The University of Dar es Salaam
The School of Education
P. O. Box 35048
Dar es Salaam

30th April 2012

The School Head,

Re: Permission to conduct a research project in your school

The above captioned matter refers. I am a doctoral (PhD) student at Massey University in New Zealand. I am conducting a research on: *The Politics of Teachers' Work in the Context of Curriculum Resources Marketisation Policy Reforms in Three Secondary Schools in Tanzania*. I have returned to Tanzania to gather data for my study.

In this study, I aim to investigate how the policy shift in the production and distribution of curriculum resources from the government to the private sector has affected teachers' work in secondary schools. This policy was introduced in 1991 in which the production and distribution of school curriculum materials was shifted from the government to private sector book writers, editors, publishers, and booksellers. Consequently, schools, teachers and students obtained variety multiple textbooks, reference books, teachers' guides, maps, charts, and other teaching and learning materials from the market. This policy existed from 1992 until 2011 when the government re-introduced the former *single textbook policy*.

With this letter, I am kindly requesting your permission to allow me to conduct my study in your school. If you accept my request, I will kindly need the following:

- Receive information about the curriculum resources policy implementation through interview with you, as the head of school;
- Recruit four (4) to six (6) teachers from three (3) subjects (Mathematics, Biology and English). I will ask your help to identify these teachers according to their experience in teaching, gender, and their orientation in support/non-support to curriculum resources marketisation policy.
- Conduct approximately six focus group interviews with groups of senior students identified by the subject teachers.
- Make copies of relevant policy implementation documents
- Access to staffroom to allow staff to become familiar with my presence in the school
- Access to classrooms to observe one or two lessons with permission from each subject teacher.
- A room for interview

In order to get adequate information for the research, I would like your agreement for me to spend a period of up to one month, and after this I may come back for follow-up interview later for issues that need further clarification from the participants.

I wish to make clear that this research seeks to understand the experience of curriculum resources use in secondary schools. It is not an evaluation of the participating schools or their teachers.

I have attached with this letter copies of documents that I will use in the process of this research for your reference.

I will appreciate if my request will be considered

Thanks in advance

Yours

Moshi A. Mislav

Doctoral student

Appendix 2: Information Sheet for School Administrators

Research Title: *The Politics of Teachers' Work in the Context of Curriculum Resources Marketisation Policy Reforms in Three Secondary Schools in Tanzania*

Researcher's introduction

My name is Moshi A. Mislal, and I am a doctoral (PhD) student at Massey University in New Zealand. I am conducting a research on: *The Politics of Teachers' Work in the Context of Curriculum Resources Marketisation Policy Reform in Three Secondary Schools in Tanzania*. I have returned to Tanzania to gather data for my study. This letter is an invitation for you to help me with my study.

Project description and invitation

Before 1991, the government through TIE was the main producer and distributor of school curriculum resources. In 1991, the Government introduced a new policy in which the production and distribution of school curriculum materials was shifted from the government to private sector book writers, editors, publishers, and booksellers. Consequently, schools, teachers and students selected and obtained variety (multiple) of textbooks, reference books, teachers' guides, maps, charts, and other teaching and learning materials from the market. This policy existed from 1992 until 2012 when the government re-introduced the former *single textbook policy*.

The purpose of this research is to find out how this shift in policy has affected teachers' professional work in secondary schools, in the period between 1992 and 2012. I wish to make clear that this research seeks to understand the experience of curriculum resources use in secondary schools. It is not an evaluation of the participating schools or their teachers. I take this opportunity to invite you to participate in this research project to help me understand how you have worked and the challenges the school and you have faced because of the implementation of this policy.

Identification of participants

The secondary schools involved in this research project are old schools that were established before 1990 and were selected purposively. The participants in this research include the heads of school, experienced subject (Mathematics, Biology, and English) teachers, and a sample of senior students in these same subjects. If you agree to participate in this research, you will be reimbursed to acknowledge your time and travel costs. I believe that this research will have no risks of harm to you and your school as a result of participation.

Participating procedures

If you agree to participate in this research you will be expected to:

- participate in an interview of approximately 1-1.5 hours (see attachment);
- provide copies of any relevant professional or official documents involved in the implementation of the policy on marketisation of curriculum resources since 1992 or before (see attachment);

- Suggest the names of between four (4) to six (6) experienced subject teachers for me to invite them to participate in an interview.

I will be spending time in the school and may ask you to participate in a follow-up interview to elaborate or clarify some issues from the first interview, my documentary analysis, and the classroom observations.

Data management

The data and documents obtained for this research will be kept confidential from anybody except the researcher and supervisors, and no names of schools or individual participants will appear in the final report. The data will be analysed and used only for the purpose of writing a research report for the PhD programme, and academic papers and not for any other purpose. The raw data, whether in soft or hard copy, will be stored after the report is completed and will be mechanically destroyed after 5 years.

The research report will be available after the completion of the study at Massey University Library in New Zealand and, the library of the University of Dar es Salaam, where the researcher works. I will send a summary of results to you.

The rights of participant in this project

You are under no obligation to accept this invitation. If you decide to participate, you have the right to:

- decline to answer any particular question;
- withdraw from the study at any time;
- ask any questions about the study at any time during participation;
- provide information on the understanding that your name will not be used unless you give permission to the researcher;
- be given access to a summary of the project findings when it is concluded.
- ask for the recorder to be turned off at any time during the interview.

Project contacts

You can contact me (researcher) or my supervisors if you have any questions about the project.

Researcher: Mr. Moshi Amsi Mislai, email: severinemoshi@yahoo.com; Mob. +255719616700; +255767616700; and +64221003440.

The School of Education, University of Dar es Salaam, P. O. Box 35048 Dar es Salaam

Supervisors

Prof. John Gerard O'Neill: email: j.g.oneill@massey.ac.nz

Dr. Kama Jean Weir: email: k.j.weir@massey.ac.nz

This project has been evaluated by peer review and judged to be low risk. Consequently, it has not been reviewed by one of the University's Human Ethics Committees. The researcher named above is responsible for the ethical conduct of this research.

If you have any concerns about the conduct of this research that you wish to raise with someone other than the researcher, please contact Dr Nathan Matthews,
Email humanethics@massey.ac.nz.

Appendix 3: Interview Guiding Questions for School Administrators

Research title: *The Politics of Teachers' Work in the Context of Curriculum Resources Marketisation Policy Reform in Three Secondary Schools in Tanzania*

- 1 The intentions of the marketisation policy at both the national and school level
- 2 The schools' implementation of the marketisation policy in the acquisition of CR
- 3 The role of the government in the marketisation policy implementation
- 4 The interpretation of the marketisation policy on production and distribution of CR at school level
- 5 Guidelines or procedures provided by the government to obtain CR from the market
- 6 The steps and processes involved in the implementation of the policy at school level
- 7 The parties involved in the development of the policy at school level
- 8 Ways of feedback from those involved in the policy at school level
- 9 Factors might have affected the implementation of marketisation policy at school level
- 10 The expected objectives to be achieved by the school level policy on CR
- 11 The link between school-level marketisation policy to other educational policies or curriculum implementation guidelines
- 12 The finance of marketisation policy at school level
- 13 The participation of the school board in school's implementation of marketisation policy
- 14 The participation of parents in the school's the implementation of policy
- 15 The participation of teachers in the school's school's implementation of marketisation policy
- 16 The criteria used by the school to select CR from the market
- 17 The strengths and weaknesses of the selection and acquisition processes
- 18 Mechanisms designed to control and maintain the quality of CR at school level
- 19 Strategies used to by the school to address equity issues (departmental, class level) in the distribution of CR at school level
- 20 Strategies used to by the school to address teachers and students' access to CR
- 21 Strategies used to by the school to address quality issues on materials acquired and used by the teachers and students?
- 22 The effect of marketisation policy implementation on the instructional leadership practices
- 23 The nature of teachers' work in the context of marketisation policy in terms of:
 - lesson planning and preparation; subject matter or content selection; pedagogy;
 - description of concepts, principles, and presentation in the textbooks;
 - availability of textbooks and other materials;
 - ability to guide learning
 - assisting students' independent learning
 - developing classroom learning relationships
 - assessment/evaluation process/procedures on students learning

- self-evaluation
 - selection of curricular resources
 - interaction with students in the classroom lessons
24. The events/antecedents/circumstances/conditions that changed teachers' practice since 1991 when the market-based textbook policy was introduced in terms of the above areas
 25. Constraints faced by teachers in using the marketised CR in the above areas
 26. Strategies developed by teachers to respond to the constraints
 27. The patterns developed by the teachers and students in using the market-produced CR over time
 28. School or government responses on the patterns developed over time
 29. Teachers and students' perceptions on the marketised CR over time
 30. The impact of the perceptions on teaching and learning processes over time
 31. How has marketisation policy affected school practices on CR over time
 32. Selection of CR from the market by the schools, teachers, and students
 33. The effects of selected CR on teaching and learning processes and outcomes
 34. The impact of the marketised CR on teachers' innovations in teaching and learning
 35. The relevance of CR produced by the market in meeting teachers' needs in implementing competence-based curriculum
 36. The consistency of the national evaluation (examination and marking) with the CR available in the market and used in school
 37. Issues that have arose from the implementation of the school level marketisation policy
 38. Availability of all types of textbooks, reference books, CDs, Video tapes, charts, maps, globes, teachers guide) required by the school
 39. Which ones are most demanded and used by teachers and students
 40. Their content, and coverage of the school curriculum
 41. The impact of the nature and contents of CR produced and distributed through the market on teachers' decisions to use them in teaching

Appendix 4: Information Sheet for Subject Teachers

Research title: *The Politics of Teachers' Work in the Context of Curriculum Resources Marketisation Policy Reforms in Three Secondary Schools in Tanzania*

Researcher's introduction

My name is Moshi A. Mislai. I am a doctoral (PhD) student at Massey University in New Zealand. I am conducting research on *The politics of teachers' work in the context of curriculum resources marketisation policy reform in three secondary schools in Tanzania*. I have returned to Tanzania to gather data for my study. This letter is an invitation for you to help me with my study.

Project description and invitation

Before 1991 the government through TIE was the main producer and distributor of school curriculum materials/resources. In 1991, the Government of Tanzania introduced a new policy in which the production and distribution of curriculum materials was shifted from the government to private sector book writers, editors, publishers, and booksellers. Consequently, teachers and students selected and obtained a variety of textbooks, reference books, teachers' guides, maps, charts, and other teaching and learning materials from the market. This policy existed from 1992 until 2011 when the government re-introduced the former single textbook policy.

The purpose of this research project is therefore to analyse the effects of this policy on teachers' professional work in secondary schools, in the period between 1992 and 2011.

I take this opportunity to invite you to participate in this research project so as to help me understand how you have worked and the challenges you have faced in your work as result of the adoption of this policy.

Your head of school has agreed that I may invite you to participate in the study. You do not have to agree. If you decide not to participate, this will have no effect on your work at the school.

Participant identification and recruitment

The three secondary schools involved in this research project are old schools that were established before 1990 and were selected purposively in three regions. The participants I am inviting to participate in this research include the head of school, experienced subject (Mathematics, Biology, and English) teachers, and a sample of senior students in these same subjects in the participating secondary schools.

Subject teachers were selected purposively according to their experience in teaching, gender and orientation to marketisation policy reform reforms. The names of teachers who matched these criteria were obtained from the head of the school. The study will involve between four to six teachers in each school.

If you agree to participate in this research you will be reimbursed to acknowledge your time and travel costs.

I believe that this research will have no risks of harm to you as a result of participation.

Project procedures

If you agree to participate in this research you will be expected to:

- participate in an interview of approximately 1-1.5 hours;
- be asked to provide copies of any relevant professional or official documents involved in the implementation of the policy of marketisation of curriculum resources since 1992 or before;
- allow me to observe you teaching one or two lessons in your subject area to let me see how curriculum resources are used by you and your students;
- suggest the names of suitable senior students for me to invite to participate in a focus group interview.

I will discuss with you what sort of documents I am hoping to copy. I would also like to have brief discussion (up to 0.5 hours) with you after the classroom observation to make sure that my understandings are correct.

I will be spending time in each participating school and may ask you to participate in a follow-up interview to elaborate or clarify some issues from the first interview, my document analysis, and the classroom observations.

Data management

The data and documents obtained for this research will be kept confidential from anybody except the researcher and supervisors, and no names of schools or individual participants will appear in the final report. The data will be de-identified as soon as possible. They will be analyzed and used only for the purpose of writing a research report for the PhD programme, and academic papers and not for any other purpose. The raw data, whether in soft or hard copy, will be stored after the report is completed and will be mechanically destroyed after 5 years.

The research report will be available after the completion of the study at Massey University Library in New Zealand and The library of the University of Dar es Salaam, where the researcher works. I will send a summary of results to the head of each participating school.

The rights of participant in this project

You are under no obligation to accept this invitation. If you decide to participate, you have the right to:

- decline to answer any particular question;
- withdraw from the study at any time;
- ask any questions about the study at any time during participation;
- provide information on the understanding that your name will not be used unless you give permission to the researcher;
- be given access to a summary of the project findings when it is concluded.
- ask for the recorder to be turned off at any time during the interview.

Project contacts

You can contact me (researcher) or my supervisors if you have any questions about the project.

Researcher

Mr. Moshi Amsi Mislai, email: severinemoshi@yahoo.com; Mob. +255719616700; +255767616700; and +64223210422.

Researchers' institutional affiliation and address: P.O. Box 35048 University of Dar es Salaam School of Education

Supervisors

Prof. John Gerard O'Neill: email: j.g.oneill@massey.ac.nz

Dr. Kama Jean Weir: email: k.j.weir@massey.ac.nz

This project has been evaluated by peer review and judged to be low risk. Consequently, it has not been reviewed by any of the University's Human Ethics Committees. The researcher named above is responsible for the ethical conduct of this research.

If you have any concerns about the conduct of this research that you wish to raise with someone other than the researcher, please contact Dr Nathan Matthews, Email humanethics@massey.ac.nz.

Appendix 5: Subject Teachers' Interview Guiding Questions

Research title: *The Politics of Teachers' Work in the Context of Curriculum Resources Marketisation Policy Reform in Three Secondary Schools in Tanzania*

1. The intentions of the marketisation policy at both the national and school level
2. The schools' implementation of the marketisation policy in the acquisition of CR
3. The role of the government in the marketisation policy implementation
4. The interpretation of the marketisation policy on production and distribution of CR at school level
5. Guidelines or procedures provided by the government to obtain CR from the market
6. The steps and processes involved in the implementation of the policy at school level
7. The parties involved in the development of the policy at school level
8. Ways of feedback from those involved in the policy at school level
9. Factors might have affected the implementation of marketisation policy at school level
10. The expected objectives to be achieved by the school level policy
11. The link between school-level marketisation policy to other educational policies implementation guidelines
12. The finance of marketisation policy at school level
13. The participation of the school board in the school's implementation of marketisation policy
14. The participation of parents in the school's implementation of policy
15. The participation of teachers in the school's implementation of marketisation policy
16. The criteria used by the school to select CR from the market
17. The strengths and weaknesses of the selection and acquisition processes
18. Mechanisms designed to control and maintain the quality of CR at school level
19. Strategies used to by the school to address equity issues (departmental, class level) in the distribution of CR at school level
20. Strategies used to by the school to address teachers and students' access to CR
21. Strategies used to by the school to address quality issues on materials acquired and used by the teachers and students?
22. The effect of marketisation policy implementation on the instructional leadership practices
23. The nature of teachers' work in the context of marketisation policy in terms of:
 - lesson planning and preparation; subject matter or content selection; pedagogy;
 - description of concepts, principles, and presentation in the textbooks;
 - availability of textbooks and other materials;
 - ability to guide learning
 - assisting students' independent learning
 - developing classroom learning relationships
 - assessment/evaluation process/procedures on students learning
 - self-evaluation
 - selection of curricular resources
 - interaction with students in the classroom lessons

24. The events/antecedents/circumstances/conditions that changed teachers' practice since 1991 when the market-based textbook policy was introduced in terms of the above areas
25. Constraints faced by teachers in using the marketised CR in the above areas
26. Strategies developed by teachers to respond to the constraints
27. The patterns developed by the teachers and students in using the market-produced CR over time
28. School or government responses on the patterns developed over time
29. Teachers and students' perceptions on the marketised CR over time
30. The impact of the perceptions on teaching and learning processes over time
31. How has marketisation policy affected school practices on CR over time
32. Selection of CR from the market by the schools, teachers, and students
33. The effects of selected CR on teaching and learning processes and outcomes
34. The impact of the marketised CR on teachers' innovations in teaching and learning
35. The relevance of CR produced by the market in meeting teachers' needs in implementing competence-based curriculum
36. The consistency of the national evaluation (examination and marking) with the CR available in the market and used in school
37. Issues that have arose from the implementation of the school level marketisation policy
38. Availability of all types of textbooks, reference books, CDs, Video tapes, charts, maps, globes, teachers guide) required by the school
39. Which ones are most demanded and used by teachers and students
40. Their content, and coverage of the school curriculum
41. The impact of the nature and contents of CR produced and distributed through the market on teachers' decisions to use them in teaching

Appendix 5b: Classroom Lesson Observation Schedule

1. The kinds of CR used by the teacher and students in the lesson
2. The relevance, distribution, and access to CR available in the classroom
3. How the nature, distribution, and use of CR reshape teacher involvement of students in the lesson
4. How the student respond to teachers' and other students' questions
5. Teachers' communication of subject matter to students (language used)
6. Teachers' use of CR in the lesson
7. The nature of exercises, assignments, group work provided and how students performed them
8. How the teacher's lesson plan affects the lesson development
9. The relationship between teacher's pedagogy and the nature and distribution of CR
10. How creative is the teacher and students in the construction of curriculum
11. Teacher's pace and sequencing of subject matter content
12. How students describe what they learn and do
13. How different categories (boys, female, back benchers etc.) of leaners are equally involved in the lesson
14. Do textbooks show that pupils consistently produce work of a good standard?
15. Students' independent working
16. How students take responsibility for their own learning
17. How students collaborate with others
18. The routine nature of the tasks

Appendix 6: Students' Information Sheet

Research title: *The Politics of Teachers' Work in the Context of Curriculum Resources Marketisation Policy Reform in Three Secondary Schools in Tanzania*

Researcher's introduction

My name is Moshi A. Mislai. I am conducting research on *The Politics of Teachers' Work in the Context of Curriculum Resources Marketisation Policy Reform in Three Secondary Schools in Tanzania*. The purpose of this research is to understand (1) Your experience with the curriculum materials produced and distributed to schools by the private sector and their effects in supporting your learning inside and outside the classroom; (2) our parents experience (as described by you) with the curriculum materials produced and distributed to schools by private sector

I take this opportunity to invite you to participate in this research. Your head of school and subject teacher has agreed that I may invite you to participate in the study. You do not have to agree. If you decide to participate, this will have no effect on your study at the school.

If you agree to participate in this research you will be reimbursed to acknowledge your time and travel costs.

Participation procedures

If you agree to participate in this research you will be expected to:

- participate in a discussion with your fellow students for approximately 1-1.5 hours (see attachment);
- be asked to provide copies of any relevant documents(see attachment);

Data management

The data and documents obtained for this research will be kept confidential from anybody except the researcher and supervisors, and your name not will appear in the final report.

Your rights in this research

You are not forced to accept this invitation. If you decide to participate, you have the right to:

- reject to answer any particular question;
- decide to stop participating in the study at any time;
- ask any questions about the study at any time during participation;
- ask for the recorder to be turned off at any time during the interview.

Important Contacts

You can contact me (researcher) or my supervisors if you have any questions about the research.

Researcher: Mr. Moshi Amsi Mislay, email: severinemoshi@yahoo.com; Mob. +255719616700; +255767616700; and +64221003440.

The School of Education, University of Dar es Salaam, P. O. Box 35048 Dar es Salaam
Supervisors

Prof. John Gerard O'Neill: email: j.g.oneill@massey.ac.nz

Dr. Kama Jean Weir: email: k.j.weir@massey.ac.nz

This project has been evaluated by peer review and judged to be low risk. Consequently, it has not been reviewed by one of the University's Human Ethics Committees. The researcher named above is responsible for the ethical conduct of this research.

If you have any concerns about the conduct of this research that you wish to raise with someone other than the researcher, please contact Dr Nathan Matthews, Email humanethics@massey.ac.nz.

Appendix 7: A Guide for Students' Focus Group Discussions

- 1 Experience with marketisation policy at market and school level
- 2 Their involvement in the implementation of policy at the school level
- 3 Their experience with availability of MCR in schools and the classrooms
- 4 Factors that might have affected the availability of MCR
- 5 The participation of parents in the implementation of the policy
- 6 How teachers worked with or without CR
- 7 School library access and use
- 8 Students' experience with curriculum evaluation strategies such as exercise, tests, examinations
- 9 Strategies used by the school to address teachers and students' access to CR in implementing this policy
- 10 The nature of teachers' work in the context of marketisation policy in terms of:
 - Lesson planning and preparation
 - Subject matter content in the subject
 - Lesson presentation approaches (teaching methods and styles)
 - The description of concepts, principles, and presentation in the textbooks in the subject
 - Availability of textbooks and other materials
 - Teachers' access to curricular materials
 - Teachers' ability to guide learning

Appendix 8: Confidentiality Agreement

Research title: The politics of teachers' work in the context of curriculum resources marketisation policy reform in three secondary schools in Tanzania

I _____ agree to keep confidential all information concerning the project *The Politics of Teachers' Work in the Context of Curriculum Resources Marketisation Policy Reform in Three Secondary Schools in Tanzania*.

I will not retain or copy any information involving the project.

Appendix 9: Consent Form for School Administrators and Subject Teachers

Title: The politics of teachers' work in the context of curriculum resources marketisation policy reform in three secondary schools in Tanzania

I have read the Information Sheet and have had the details of the study explained to me. My questions have been answered to my satisfaction, and I understand that I may ask further questions at any time.

I agree/do not agree to the interview being sound recorded.

I wish/do not wish to have my recordings returned to me. _____

I wish/do not wish to have data placed in an official archive.

I agree to participate in this study under the conditions set out in the Information Sheet. _____

Appendix 10: Students' Consent Form

Research title: The politics of teachers' work in the context of curriculum resources marketisation policy reform in three secondary schools in Tanzania

I have read the Information Sheet and have had the details of the study explained to me. My questions have been answered to my satisfaction, and I understand that I may ask further questions at any time. _____

I agree not to disclose anything discussed in the Focus Group. _____

I agree to participate in this study under the conditions set out in the Information Sheet. _____

Appendix 11: A Bibliographic List of Marketised Curriculum Texts

Book title	Author	Publisher	Year
Biology Form 3 & 4 (PB)	Tanzania Institute of Education (TIE)	Pearson Longman	2007
Biology Form 3 & 4 (TG)	Tanzania Institute of Education & D. Baylis	Pearson Longman	2007
Fundamentals of Biology Book 1 (PB)	J. M. Mwaniki & G. G. Geoffrey	Delah Educational Publishers	2006
Certificate Biology 1 (PB)	Daniel Muraya & Abdallah S. Ngodu	Ujuzi Educational Publishers Ltd	2007
Certificate Biology 1 (TG)	Abdallah S. Ngodu	Ujuzi Educational Publishers Ltd	2007
New Essentials of Biology Bk 1 (PB)	Sedrick C. Magasi	Nyambari Nyangwine	2008
New Essentials of Biology Bk 1 (TG)	Sedrick C. Magasi	Nyambari Nyangwine	2008
Biology Charts for Secondary Schools	Oxford University Press (T) Ltd.	Oxford University Press (T) Ltd.	2008
O' Level Biology Form 1 (PB)	Ben & Company	Ben & Company	2009
O' Level Biology Form 1 (TG)	Ben & Company	Ben & Company	2009
O' Level Biology Form 2 (PB)	Ben & Company	Ben & Company	2009
O' Level Biology Form 2 (TG)	Ben & Company	Ben & Company	2009
O' Level Biology Form 3 (PB)	Ben & Company	Ben & Company	2009
O' Level Biology Form 3 (TG)	Ben & Company	Ben & Company	2009
O' Level Biology Form 4 (PB)	Ben & Company	Ben & Company	2009
O' Level Biology Form 4 (TG)	Ben & Company	Ben & Company	2009
Biology for Secondary Schools, Forms 1&2 (PB)	SCSU & MoEVT-Zanzibar	Oxford University Press (T) Ltd.	2009
Biology for Secondary Schools, Forms 1&2 (TG)	Oxford University Press (T) Ltd	Oxford University Press (T) Ltd.	2009
Biology for Secondary Schools, Forms 1&2 (PB)	SCSU & MoEVT-Zanzibar, Revised Ed.	Oxford University Press (T) Ltd.	2010
Biology for Secondary Schools, Forms 1&2 (TG)	Oxford University Press (T) Ltd	Oxford University Press (T) Ltd.	2010
New Essentials of Biology Book 1 (PB)	Sedrick C. Magasi	Nyambari Nyangwine	2008
New Essentials of Biology	Sedrick C. Magasi	Nyambari	2008
A Comprehensive Anatomy of Literature	Nyangwine, Msabila and Mhilu		

Advanced Level Literature	Nyangwine		
Advanced Literature in English	Nyangwine & Bukagile		
African History From 19th to 21st Century	Maluka		
Basic Mathematics Book One, Current Syllabus Approach	Masinde		
Basic Mathematics Book Three	Sabaya	TIE/Oxford	
Basic Mathematics Book Three	Sichizya & Raza		
Basic Mathematics Course Book One	Buluda		
Basic Mathematics For Form One and Two	Msemwa		
Basic Mathematics For Secondary Schools	Masinde		
Basic Mathematics For Secondary Schools Book Four	Masinde		
Basic Mathematics For Secondary Schools Book One	Masinde		
Basic Mathematics For Secondary Schools Book Three	Masinde		
Basic Mathematics For Secondary Schools Book Two	Masinde		
Basic Secondary Mathematics Book Two	Nyangwine		
Biology Book For Form One and Two Students	Davis Baylis		
Biology For Secondary Schools	Nyangwine		
Biology Series Book Three	Msaki		
Biology Notes Form One To Four	Jutter		
Biology Series Book Four	Msaki		
Biology Series Book One	Msaki		
English For Advanced Levels	Kadeghe		
English For Form Two	Kadeghe		
English For Secondary Schools	Kadeghe		

English For Secondary Schools	Nyangwine		
English For Tanzania Secondary Schools Form One to Four	Kadeghe		
English Grammar and Other Items	Mwijage		
English Language Book Three	Kinunda		
English Language Book Two	Bukagile and Nyangwine		
English Language For Secondary Schools	Bukagile		
English Language For Secondary Schools Book Four	Bukagile, Kinunda, Msabila, Ashel		
English Language For Secondary Schools Book One	Bukagile and Maziku		
English Language For Secondary Schools Book One	Nyangwine		
English Language For Secondary Schools Book Three	Kinunda		
English Language For Secondary Schools Book Two	Bukagile and Kinunda		
English Textbook For Tanzania Secondary Schools Book Four	Kadeghe		
Essentials of Biology Book Three	Magasi and Nyangwine		
Fundamentals of Biology	Mwaniki and Geofrey		
Fundamentals of Biology	Delah Education Publishers		
Fundamentals of Biology Book One	Mwaniki and Geofrey		
Fundamentals of Biology Book Two for Form Two	Mwaniki and Geofrey		
Fundamentals of Biology Form One and Two	Mwaniki		
Integrated Mathematics Course Book Three	Bumby		
Introduction to Literature	Kadeghe		
Literature for Ordinary Level Form Three and Four	Nyangwine		
Literature Form Three and Four	Msabila		
Literature in English	Kadeghe		
New Essentials of Biology	Mustafa		

New Essentials of Biology	Mahumbwe		
New Essentials of Biology For Secondary Schools	Magasi		
New Essentials of Biology Book Four Secondary Schools	Mwaniki, Magasi, and Geoffrey		
New Essentials of Biology Book Four	Mustafa, Nyaoli and Kiira		
New Essentials of Biology For Secondary Schools Book Two	Mustafa, Nyaoli and Kira		
New Essentials of Biology For Secondary Schools Book Three	Nyangwine		
Ordinary Level Literature Form	Bukagile, Nyangwine,		
Ordinary Level Mathematics Review	Salum and Hermas		
Oxford Secondary English for Form Two	Shekighenda		
Pure Mathematics One	Rose Emmanuel		
Secondary School Chemistry Book One and Two	Nyangwine		
The Real English For Ordinary Level	Kadeghe		
The Real English Textbook For Tanzania Secondary Schools	Kadeghe		
Wasakatonge			
The river between	Ngugi wa Thiong'o	Heinemann Education	1965
No longer at ease	Chinua Achebe	Heinemann Education	1960
Things fall apart	Chinua Achebe	New York: Anchor Books 1994/2011	1958/
Is it possible?	Henry Rusuf Ole Kulet	Longman London	1971
Song of Lawino	Ocot p'Bitek	Heinemann Education Publishers Oxford	1966
Song of Ocol	Ocot p'Bitek	Heinemann Education Publishers Oxford	1967
Song of Lawino and Ocol	Ocot p'Bitek	Heinemann Education Publishers Oxford	1984

Spared			
Passed Like a Shadow			
Weep Not Child			
A Wreath of Farther Mayer of Masasi			
The Interview			
The Black Hermit			
Three Suitors One Husband			
This Time Tomorrow			
The Lion and the Jewel			
Summons			
Mabala The Farmer	Richard Mabala		1988
Hawa the bus driver	Richard Mabala		
The African child	Camara Laye		
The Great Ponds	Amaddi Elechi		
Is It Possible?	Ole Kulet H.		
A Meeting in the Dark	Ngugi wa Thiong'o		
Three Suitors One Husband	Oyono Mbia G		
Selected Poems	Institute of Education		
This Time Tomorrow	Ngugi wa Thiong'o		
New Life in Kyerefaso	Sutherland		
No Longer at Ease	Chinua Achebe		
Things Fall Apart	Chinua Achebe		
The River Between	Ngugi wa Thiong'o		
The Black Hermit-	Ngugi wa Thiong'o		
Weep Not Child-	Ngugi wa Thiong'o		
A Man of the People			
The Beautiful Ones are not yet Born			
An Enemy of the People			
Betrayal in the City			
Growing Up with Poetry: An Anthology for Secondary	David Ruadiri	1989	
Advanced level mathematics, pure and applied	Trunter		
Pure Mathematics 1 (New edition)	L. Bostock , F. S. Chandler	Nelson Thornes Ltd	(1978)
S. Chand's Principles of physics	S. Chand		

Oxford practice grammar	Eastwood		
Principles of physics	Eastwood	London: Heinemann	
Ordinary level physics (Fifth ed.).	Abbott, A. F.	London: Heinemann	1989
Advanced level physics (5th ed.).	Nelkon, M., & Parker, P.		1995
Physics (5th edition)	Michael Nelkon	London: Longman Group	1981
Pure mathematics I: A first course-S1 Edition	J. K. Backhouse and S.P.T. Houldsworth; P. J. F. Horril	Longman Group	1985
Pure mathematics II, 2 nd Course	J. K. Backhouse; S. P. T. Houldsworth; B. E. D. Cooper; P. J. F. Horril	Longman Group	1985
New Understanding Biology for Advanced Level	Glenn Toole, Susan Toole	Nelson Thornes Ltd	1999
Biology	Michael Roberts, Neil Ingram	Nelson Thornes Ltd	2001
The Basics of Biology	Carol Leth Stone)	Greenwood Publishing Group	2004
Environmental Biology	Mike Calver, Alan Lymbery, Jennifer McComb, Mike Bamford	Cambridge University Press	2009
The Structure of Biological Science	Alexander Rosenberg	Cambridge University Press	1985
Biological science Volume 1	Scott Freeman	Benjamin Cummings	2002
Biology: A modern introduction (First edition)	Brian Samwel Beckett GCSE edition	Oxford: Oxford University Press	1976; 1986
Beginning Science: Biology	Brian Samwel Beckett	Oxford University	1983
Primate Life Histories and Socioecology	Peter M. Kappeler, Michael E. Pereira	University of Chicago Press	2003
Juvenile Primates: Life History, Development, and Behaviour	Michael Eric Pereira, Lynn A. Fairbanks	Oxford University Press	1983
Lower Secondary Tropical Biology	Afzal Aziz, Brian Samuel Beckett	Oxford University Press	1984

Biology: For higher tier	Peril Liceo linguistic. Brian Samuel Beckett, RoseMarie Gallagher	Oxford University Press.	2001
Illustrated Human & Social Biology	Brian Samwel Beckett	Oxford University Press	1981
Life Study: A Textbook of Biology	D. G. Mackean		1988
Modular Science: Biology	Brian Samwel Beckett, RoseMarie Gallagher		2001
New tropical biology for schools	Robert Henry Stone, Arthur Barry Cozens	Longman	1969
Genesis	Bernard Beckett		2006
Juvenile primates: Life history, development, and behaviour	Michael Eric Pereira, Lynn A. (editors)	New York: Oxford University Press	1993
Co-Ordinated Science: Biology	Brian Samuel Beckett, RoseMarie Gallagher		1996
Introduction to Human and Social Biology	D. G. Mackean, Brian W. Jones, B.M. Jones		1987
Life study: A textbook of biology	Donald Gordon Mackean	John Murray	1981
Experimental work in biology. Respiration and gaseous	Donald Gordon Mackean	John Murray	1981
Introduction to biology	Donald Gordon Mackean	John Murray, London	1963/ 1973/ 1984
Fundamentals of biology		Delah Education Publishers	
Biology book for form one and two students	Davis Baylis	TIE/Oxford	
Integrated mathematics course book three	Bumby		
Pure Mathematics 1	Hugh Neill, Douglas Quadling	Cambridge University Press	2002
School mathematics for East Africa		Delah Education Publishers	

**Appendix 12: Amendments of Percentage Distribution of Fees for Day/ Boarding
College/ School**

MAREKEBISHO YA MGAWANYO WA MATUMIZI YA ADA KWA ASILIMIA KATIKA CHUO/SHULE YA KUTWA/BWENI

KIFUNGU	MAELEZO	KUTWA	BWENI
1308	Conference & Committees	6.0%	3.0%
1501	Office & General	1.0%	1.0%
1503	Electricity	8.0%	5.0%
1504	Water	6.0%	3.0%
1506	Postage	0.5%	2.0%
1709	Drugs & Medicine	3.0%	2.0%
1802	Maintenance of Vehicles	11.0%	5.0%
1806	Upkeep of stations	2.0%	2.0%
1808	Minor works	6.0%	2.0%
1815	Maintenace of Machinery	2.0%	2.0%
2001	Catering		58.5%
2011	School Materials	52.0%	13.0%
2174	Games & Sports	2.5%	1.5%
	TOTAL	100%	100%

Source: (URT, 1999d, p. 2).

Appendix 13: List of Marketised Curriculum Resources Suggested by School Inspectors

1. D. Waugh, (2000). Geography: An Integrated Approach
2. Landforms in Africa: Collins Buckle
3. Geography Course book for Secondary Schools, Books I, II, III, IV –TIE
4. Certificate Geography for Form 1, 2, 3, 4 by Karrugah
5. Secondary Geography Book 1, 2, 3, 4 by Kenya Institute of Ed.
6. Research Methodology – C. Kothari
7. Africa –Minns
8. Human and Economic Geography by Morgan

Source: Njambi, 2005, p. 5

Appendix 14: "Urpisa's" Students Joining Instruction

Parents' Name: _____ Students' Name: _____ -

Re: School joining instruction for Advanced Level.

1. The school official management is delighted to inform you that your daughter has been selected to join form V in 2006/2007 academic year. "CONGRATULATIONS".
2. **Opening:** The school opens on **10th July 2006** we are expecting you to report for registration before 5:00 pm. Students must report to school within one week (7 days) from the opening date.
3. **Information about the school.**

The school is registered with registration No. (*Skipped for ethical purpose*). The school is purely boarding. English Medium conducting NECTA Syllabus in both Ordinary level school and Advanced Level curriculum. The catchments are countrywide.

4. School destination

Urpisa High School is located at Arusha town. The school pass mark for Advanced Level students is 50%. On your first day to join our school you will be required to prove that you are a successful form IV leaver with credit on each principle subject at the combination you're applying for, by providing a form IV results slip or certificate from the National examination council of Tanzania.

5. School fees payments

First term	T shs. 600,000/=
Second term	T shs 600,000/=

6. School contributions:

Medical fees	60,000/=
Maintenance fee	30,000/=
Students should come with 3 reams of paper or money	<u>30,000/=</u>
	Total = <u>120,000/=</u>

7. School uniforms

Uniform will be given once you report at school after paying as described below:

Sn	Item	Quality	Price	Total
1	Black skirt	2 pair	@20,000/=	40,000/=

2	White shirt	2 pair	@ 12,000/=	24,000/=
3	White socks	2	@ 1,400/=	2,800/=
4	Black necktie	2	@ 6,000/=	12,000/=
5	Shamba Dress	2	@ 10,000/=	20,000/=
6	Sport Dress	1	@ 10,000/=	10,000/=
7	Blue pullover	1	@ 14,000/=	14,000/=
8	T-shirt	1	@ 7,000/=	7,000/=
9	Black tracksuit	1	10,000/=	10,000/=
10	Coat	1	@ 14,000/=	14,000/=
Total				=/=185,800

NOTE: School fees and other contribution should be paid through school Account (skipped for ethical purpose). Come with your pay slip or send it direct to the headmaster through Fax (*skipped for ethical purpose*) quote name of student.

8. Students' properties: When reporting to school the following items can be bought from the school shop, come with money and you will be served at the best prices.

	The following items can be purchased in school shop	Students have to bring the following items with them when reporting
1	A trucker with a padlock	2 pairs of Black shoes
2	One Water bucket	A pair of white sport rubber shoes
3	One Towel	
4	One Mosquito net	
5	One Mattress 3 inches	
6	2 Bed sheets -yellow	
7	2 Blankets	
8	2 Pillows with yellow pillow case	
10	Oxford English Lerner's' Dictionary-Oxford	
11	Exercise book counter books Quire 4	

9. Visitors: Parents/Guardian is allowed to visit students twice per term, at the middle and at the end of the term.

10. Worship: Every student is required to attend religious services according to her denomination registered in the registration schoolbooks. The matron or female teacher will escort students to venue of worship.

11. Public Holidays: The school will honour all public holidays religious or secular.

12. Holidays: Students go on leave twice a year. They will go for their mid – term break and end of term.

13. Permission: Permission will be given only for sick students and if going back home to collect school Fees whenever needed.

14. Clothing: Classroom uniform green skirt, white socks, black shoes, green pullover, school T- Shirt and a necktie. Students should wear uniforms according to venue or context. The school Rules and Regulations are attached here with.

15. List of books students should purchase

English Language

1. University grammar of English.
2. Communicative grammar of English
3. A level English books, by Dr. Michael Kadege
4. Literature books.
5. Oxford English Learners' Dictionary- Oxford

Novels and short stories (any three of the following)

1. Magala Nyago. (1985). *The rape of the pearl*. Macmillan Publishers Ltd
2. Namige Kayond. (1995). *Vanishing shadows*. Macmillan Publishers Ltd
3. Danny Safo. (1983). *His Excellency the head of state*. Macmillan Publishers Ltd
4. Kalu Okpi. (1982). *Baifra testaments*. Macmillan Publishers Ltd
5. Paul Williams. (2000). *Encounters from Africa: An Anthology of Short Stories*. Macmillan Publishers Ltd

Plus two from the following

1. Ngugi wa Thiong'o. (1991). *A grain of Wheat*. East African publishing House.
2. Richard weight. (1964). *The Nitveson*. New American library.
3. Alex la Guma. (1974). *The stone country*. Heinemann Education Limited.
4. Danny Zweelonke. (1973). *Robben Island*. Heinemann
5. Ayi Kwei Armah. (1996). *The Beautiful ones are not yet born*. Nairobi: East African Education publisher.
6. Chinue Achebe. (1997). *A man of the people*. East African Educational Publishers.
7. Sembene Ousmane (1997). *God's bits of wood*. Heinemann Educational Publishers Ltd

Plays.

Any two of the following.

1. Okait Omtatah. (1991). *Lwanda Magere*. Nairobi: Heinemann Kenya.
2. Bukenya A. L. (1984). *The bride*. Nairobi: East African Education Publishers.
3. John Ruganda. (1986). *Echoes of silence*. Nairobi: Heinemann Kenya Ltd.
4. Ngugi wa thiongo *et al.* (1982). *I will marry when I want*. West African Education Publishers Ltd.
5. Francis Imbuga. (1990). *Betrayal in the city*. Heineman Kenya Ltd.

Plus any two of the following

1. Henry Ibsen. (1974). *An enemy of the people*. Eyre Methuen Company
2. Bertolt Brecht. (1963). *The Caucasian chalk circle*. Methuen
3. Arthur Miller. (1994). *The death of salesman*. Heinemann.

Poetry

Note less than 16 poems from either

1. David Cook & David Rubadiri (ed). (1971). *Poems from East Africa*. East African Education Publishers Ltd.

KISWAHILI

Vitabu vifuatavyo vilitarajiwa kusajiliwa mwisho wa mwaka 2005. Hivyo ni vizuri kufuatilia. taasisi ya elimu kwa uhakika.

1. Kiswahili vyuoni –Tumi.
2. Sarufi mauombo ya Kiswahili-Kapinga.
3. Fasihi na sanaa za moonyesho – Muha P& Balisidya.
4. Makala za semina ya kimataifa ya waandishi wa kiswahili juzuli
5. Fasihi simulizi –Kirumbi.
6. Fasihi –Senkoro.
7. Mising ya Fasihi Simulizi – Kirumbi.
8. Historia ya kiswahili – Shihabudui Cluraghdin.
9. Kunga za lugha nafasihi – Mbunda Msokile.
10. Historia ya Kiswahili – Mbunda
11. Jitayarishe fasihi ya Kiswahili Kidato cha tano na sita–maswali na majibu ya fasihi
12. Tahakiki vitabu teule vya fasihi Kidato cha tano na sita-uhakiki wa maandiko.
13. Nadharia ya lugha. Kiswahili 1 Kidato cha tano na sita- fasihi kwa ujumla.
14. Nadharia ya fasihi. Kiswahili 2 Kidato cha tano na sita- fasihi kwa ujumla
15. Kamusi ya semi za Kiswahili.
16. Kamusi ya Kiswahili sarufi. Maneno mapya. Toleo la pili.
17. Secondary School Atlas

VITABU TEULE – FASIHI ANDISHI**RIWAYA**

1. Vuta nikuvute
2. Kufikirika
3. Mfadhili
4. Usiku utakapokwisha

TAMTHILIA

1. Kivuli kinaishia.
2. Kwenye ukingo wa thim – 1 Hussen
3. Marani –E. Mbogo.
4. Nguzo mama

USHAIRI

1. Fungate ya uhuru.
2. Kimbunga – G. Haji

3. Chungu tamu – Theobald Mvungi
4. Mapenzi bora – Robert

The Headmaster

Appendix 15: Form Five 2005/2006 Admission Application Form for “Urpisa”

1. Personal details

Full name

Sex

Date of birth

Nationality

Name of parent

Occupation

Address

Resident

Telephone No

2. Details of a national form IV (CSEE) results

Name of the previous school

National examination index no.

Did you reseat the national form four examinations? yes/no (tick the correct answer) if you re-sat the examination, fill in your index no and year of examination in the space shown below.

Index no. Year

Result of national examination

SUBJECT	GRADE
Basic Mathematics	
Biology	
Book keeping	
Chemistry	
Civics	
Commerce	
Computer	
English	
Geography	
History	
Kiswahili	
Physics	

Examination result stated above confirmed by:

Name Signature

The above should be confirmed by either HEAD OF YOUR PREVIOUS SCHOOL, OR OFFICIAL AUTHORITY OF THE NATIONAL EXAMINATIONS COUNCIL OF TANZANIA WITH THE OFFICIAL STAMPS.

3. Pre-form five

Urpisa high school offers pre-form five programs starting, April 21st. During this period the student will be taught all Advanced level combination available in our school. In addition to that, computer studies will be free to all pre-form five.

4. Subject combinations

Arts Subjects		Science Subject	
HGL	History, Geography, Language	CBG	Chemistry, Biology, Geography
HKL	History, Kiswahili, Language	PCM	Physics, Chemistry, Maths
HGK	History, Geography, Kiswahili	PCB	Physics, Chemistry, Biology
HGE	History, Geography, Economics	CBM	Chemistry, Biology, Maths
ECA	Economics, Commerce, Accounts	PGE	Physics, Geography, Economics
EGM	Economics, Geography, Maths		

5. Returning the form

After filling this form return where you bought it from the result will be posted to you through your home address.

6. Other documents

- Bring a photocopy of the school leaving certificate. Result slip/academic certificate. Birth certificate, and two passport size photos.
- Come with originals for verification.
- Attach passport photo size on the first page: it should be the school stamp before the face.

7. Form and registration fee

TSH 15,000/= fifteen thousand only.

Signature of Applicants

Date

Appendix 16: Two National Songs and National Symbols

1. The Tanzania national anthem

<p>Mungu ibariki Afrika Wabariki Viongozi wake Hekima Umoja na Amani Hizi ni ngao zetu Afrika na watu wake. <i>Chorus</i> Ibariki Afrika, Ibariki Afrika Tubariki watoto wa Afrika.</p> <p>Mungu ibariki Tanzania Dumisha uhuru na Umoja Wake kwa Waume na Watoto Mungu Ibariki Tanzania na watu wake. <i>Chorus</i> Ibariki Tanzania, Ibariki Tanzania Tubariki watoto wa Tanzania.</p>	<p>God bless Africa Bless its leaders Wisdom, unity and peace These are our shields Africa and its people <i>Chorus:</i> Bless Africa, Bless Africa Bless us, the children of Africa</p> <p>God bless Tanzania Grant eternal freedom and unity To its women, men and children God bless Tanzania and its people <i>Chorus:</i> Bless Tanzania, Bless Tanzania Bless us, the children of Tanzania</p>
--	--

2. Tanzania Tanzania nakupenda

<p>Tanzania Tanzania Nakupenda kwa moyo wote Nchi yangu Tanzania Jina lako ni tamu sana Nilalapo nakuota wewe Niamkapo ni heri mama wee Tanzania Tanzania Nakupenda kwa moyo wote</p> <p>Tanzania Tanzania, ninapokwenda safarini, kutazama maajabu, biashara nayo makazi, sitaweza kusahau mimi, mambo mema ya kwetu kabisa,</p> <p>Tanzania Tanzania, Nakupenda kwa moyo wote. Nchi yangu Tanzania, watu wako ni wema sana, siasa yako na desturi, vilituletea uhuru, hatuwezi kusahau sisi, mambo mema ya kwetu kabisaa</p>	<p>Tanzania Tanzania I love you with all my heart My country Tanzania Your name is very sweet When I sleep I dream of you When I wake I am at peace Tanzania Tanzania I love you with all my heart</p> <p>Tanzania Tanzania, Whenever I travel, watching wonders, business and housing, I will never forget, completely good things to us,</p> <p>Tanzania Tanzania , I love you wholeheartedly. Tanzania my country, With very kind people, politics and customs, brought our freedom, we can never forget, our good practices,</p>
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<p>Tanzania Tanzania, Mola awe nawe daima.</p> <p>Tanzania, Tanzania, Watu wako ni wema sana, Nchi nyingi zakuota, Nuru yako hakuna tena, Na wageni wakukaribia, Mpigane kiume chema wee, Tanzania Tanzania, Heri yako kwa mataifa.</p>	<p>Tanzania Tanzania , Lord be with you always.</p> <p>Tanzania Tanzania , With very kind people; Many counties dream of you, Your greatest light, And visitors approach you, Fight hard like males, Tanzania Tanzania , Be blessed among other nations.</p>
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3. The National Coat of Arms and the National Flag of Tanzania



Source: <http://tanzania-un.org/index.asp?pgid=55>

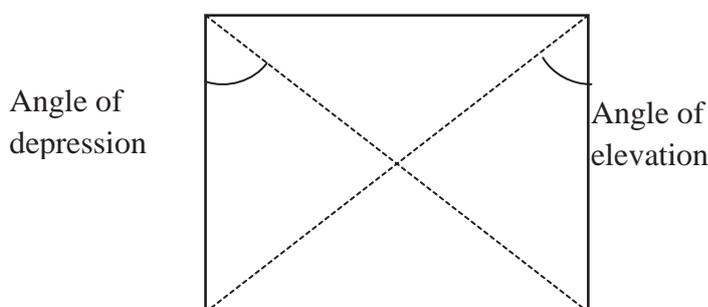
Appendix 17: Observation Notes Excerpt from Recorded Mathematics Lesson

Key:	MUR = Mura	STU = A group of few students
------	------------	-------------------------------

MUR: Stop writing and look on the blackboard// Therefore this is angle of elevation/ and depression// But as is seen here there is a picture of somebody who is watching/ angle of what?/ angle of elevation/ and down there/ as you may see/ there is somebody who is watching/ angle of what?/ angle of depression/ therefore// the angle of elevation/ is the angle which/ I am cycling// in what? In a certain/ in a certain/ can we say what?/ in a certain oblique/ katika mwinuko fulani/ tuko pamoja?/ kwa hiyo angle ambayo unaiangalia katika mwinuko fulani/ hiyo basi tunaita angle gani?/ Ile angle ambayo unaitengeneza sambamba na usawa wa horizontal// tunaita angle gani?/ angle of elevation// angle ya mwinuko// kwa kiswahili/ sawa hee// *((After getting difficulties of explaining the concepts in English the teacher changes the discourse to Swahili language to emphasize the concept of “angle of elevation”. He turned back and displays in few seconds)).*

STU: *((Students were quite))*.

MUR: And if we come back to angle of depression/ angle of depression/ this is a sign of angle of depression//*((showing the angle of depression))*// I am watching downwards/ I am watching down wards// therefore while am watching downwards/ there is a angle which am making with the what// the vertical/ with the?/ vertical/ the vertical kama tulivyozungumza ni/ wima/ si ndiyo? Kwa kiswahili/ wima/ kwa hiyo ni angle ninayotengeneza kati ya jicho langu na nini?/ na usawa wa nini?wa mwili wangu/ tuko pamoja?/ *((The teacher changes the discourse to Swahili language again to emphasize the concept “angle of depression” using the following diagram)).*



MUR: Therefore this angle of depression// and that is the angle of //

MUR: And again when it comes to other sides/ all of this angle now put in the same what?// the same diagram/ which is right-angled triangle// as we talked last time/ which consists both/ angle of elevation and/ depression/ now/ let me ask you some few questions// where is the angle of elevation now?// in this right-angled triangle?

STU: That one// *((Students murmuring and few showing from where they are seated by pointing on the chalkboard))*.

MUR: Which one?// angle of elevation// this one or that on? *((Pointing on the diagram))*

STU: Down// *((A group of few students say at once))*

MUR: Then/ what about the angle of depression?

STU: *((Group of students murmuring))*

MUR: This one// therefore I think now you are aware with what is angle of elevation/ and angle of depression//

MUR: If that is the case/ lets now come to our example// *((Goes back to the example he had written on the chalkboard to develop the solution the question was as written below))*

MUR: You are given/ a practical problem/ then you have/ *(starts copying)*: “A man who is 172cm tall, notes that the length of his shadow is 158cm. Find the angle of elevation of the sun.”// the angle of elevation of the?/ *((After writing the question, he reads the notes as written on the chalkboard and gives some examples of objects that qualify such as a hill, man, etc. He introduces the steps to solve the question by displaying a diagram and label it “angle of elevation and depression”))*

STU: Sun/ *((A group of students responds))*

MUR: Sun// Now we have a man/ whose length is what?/ 172 what?/ let’s assume this must be there// *(while drawing a diagram, the teacher points a point where a man is on the diagram he is drawing))// then his length is what? 172 what?// 172? ((In deriving the solution Mura draws another diagram, which emphasizes the two angles. To make the concept clear and demonstrates using his height and ruler as a shadow with a height of 158cm to form a right-angled triangle. The diagram is as shown below))*

STU: Centimetre// Sun/ *((Group of students responds))*

MUR: Centimetre// note that the length of his shadow/ is the what?/ is 158/ cm/ note that the length of his shadow/ urefu wa kivuli chake// sasa kama huyu jamaaa ana mwili tuseme upande huu/ hapa jua lipo upande huu *((Showing the location of the sun))// in this side/ or whatever/ this side// si ndiyo?/ kama/ jua linamulika hapa maanake kivuli chake kitaelekea wapi/ kitaelekea chini au/ kitaelekea upande huu// kwa upande huu kama jua lipo upande huu// litaelekea upande huu/ si ndiyo?// therefore kivuli chake/ huyu mtu maana miguu yake ameiweka/ kwa ndani hivi/ tuko pamaoja?// maanake atakuwa straight moja kwa moja// kama unavyoniona mimi/ si ndiyo?/ then/ maanake kivuli chake kikiwa kinamulika/ hivi kivuli chake kitaanguka wapi?/ kitaanguka hapa chini/ si ndiyo?// then his shadow will be where?// there// Then anakuambia/ the length of his shadow is 1 what?/*

MUR: Centimeter// Then/ find the angle of elevation of the what?/ of the sun// sasa angle ya elevation ya sun tutaiona wapi?/ tutaionea hapa/ huo ndiyo upande wenye kivuli// si ndiyo? Jua liko upande huu// tutalionea wapi? Hilo jua tutalionea kwenye angle gani?/ angle hi hapa au ile kule?//

STU: Ya chini// (*Some students responded*).

MUR: Angle ya chini// therefore we make a line from there to/ there// therefore this is our angle of elevation/ let us/ call this angle/ what?//

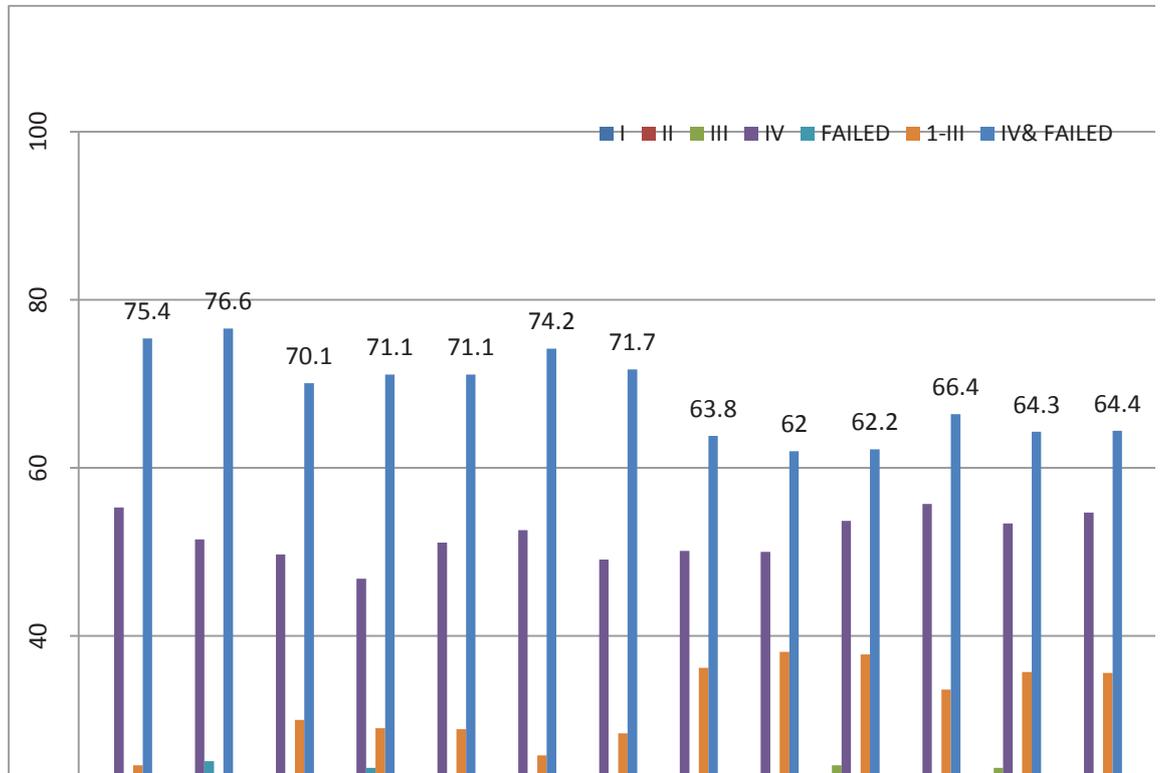
Appendix 18: Fifteen Examination Rules and Regulations

NOTICE TO CANDIDATES

1. You are required to appear for the examination(s) at the centre(s) under which you are registered unless otherwise advised by the Council in writing.
2. You are required to observe all instructions given to you by the Supervisor, Invigilators or Officers of the Council responsible for the conduct of the examinations.
3. If you arrive more than half an hour late for an examination, you will not be admitted.
4. After the first half-hour, you may leave as soon as you have finished your paper and handed in the script to the Supervisor/Invigilator. You may leave the room temporarily at any time after the first half-hour but only with the permission of the invigilator.
5. You may bring into the examination room only books, papers or instruments which are specifically permitted. If you are suspected of cheating or attempting to cheat, or assisting someone else to cheat, the facts will be reported to the Council. You may in consequence be disqualified from the examination and excluded from all future examinations of the Council. Any notes or other unauthorised material may be retained by the Council at its discretion.
6. Communication, verbal or otherwise, between candidates is not allowed during the examination. If any candidate wishes to communicate with the invigilator he should raise his hand to attract attention.
7. Write your examination number correctly on every answer sheet of the answer booklet/answer sheet used. Using anybody else's examination number is considered a case of dishonesty that may lead to cancellation of examination results. Names, initials or any other mark that would identify a candidate should never be written on answer books or sheets of paper.
8. If you are found guilty of dishonesty in connection with the examination you may be disqualified in the entire examination.
9. Take nothing other than the question paper, unless instructed otherwise, from the examination room. Do not damage any paper or material supplied.
10. Write all answers in the language required unless you are instructed otherwise.
11. Write in blue or black ink or ball pen. Draw in pencil.
12. You are required to attend punctually at the time shown on your timetable.
13. Smoking is not permitted in the examination room.
14. Private candidates should produce a letter of authority from the Council allowing them to sit for the particular examination at the prescribed centre, failure to that no permission will be given to enter the examination room.
15. The examination will continue as scheduled even if it falls on a public holiday.

Sources: http://www.necta.go.tz/matangazo/timetable_csee2014.pdf (retrieved on 2nd September 2014).

Appendix 19: Summary of Form IV National Examination (CSEE) Performance in Percentage and Division from 1995 and 2012



Appendix 20: Permission Letters to the Case Study Schools and Other Institutions

	<p>UNIVERSITY OF DAR-ES-SALAAM OFFICE OF THE VICE-CHANCELLOR P.O. BOX 35091 ♦ DAR ES SALAAM ♦ TANZANIA</p>
<p>Ref. No: AB3/12(B) Date: 22nd March, 2012 To: The Regional Administration Secretary, Arusha Region.</p>	
<p>UNIVERSITY STAFF AND STUDENTS RESEARCH CLEARANCE</p>	
<p>The purpose of this letter is to introduce to you Mr. Moshi A. Mislai who is a 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 4th 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 facilitate him to achieve 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 "The Effects of Curricular Resources Marketisation Policy on Teachers' Professional Work in Three Secondary Schools in Tanzania".</p>	
<p>The period for which this permission has been granted is April, 2012 to October, 2012 and will cover the following areas/offices: Arusha Municipal, Arumeru, Longido, Kiteto and Karatu Districts.</p>	
<p>Should some of these areas/offices be restricted, you are requested to kindly advise him as to which alternative areas/offices could be visited. In case you may require further information, please contact the Directorate of Research, Tel. 2410500-8 Ext. 2087 or 2410743.</p>	
<p> Prof. Rwekaza S. Mukandala VICE-CHANCELLOR</p>	<p>VICE CHANCELLOR UNIVERSITY OF DAR-ES-SALAAM P.O. BOX 35091 DAR-ES-SALAAM</p>
<p>Direct +255 22 2410700 Telephone: +255 22 2410500-8 ext. 2001 Telefax: +255 22 2410078</p>	<p>Telegraphic Address: UNIVERSITY OF DAR ES SALAAM E-mail: vc@admin.udsm.ac.tz Website address: www.udsm.ac.tz</p>



UNIVERSITY OF DAR-ES-SALAAM
 OFFICE OF THE VICE-CHANCELLOR
 P.O. BOX 35091 ♦ DAR ES SALAAM ♦ TANZANIA

Ref. No: AB3/12(B)
 Date: 22nd March, 2012
 To: The Regional Administration Secretary,
 Kilimanjaro Region.

UNIVERSITY STAFF AND STUDENTS RESEARCH CLEARANCE

The purpose of this letter is to introduce to you **Mr. Moshi A. Mislai** who is a 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 4th 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 facilitate him to achieve 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 **"The Effects of Curricular Resources Marketisation Policy on Teachers' Professional Work in Three Secondary Schools in Tanzania"**.

The period for which this permission has been granted is **April, 2012 to October, 2012** and will cover the following areas/offices: **Moshi Urban, Moshi Rural and Hai Districts.**

Should some of these areas/offices be restricted, you are requested to kindly advise him as to which alternative areas/offices 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
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UNIVERSITY OF DAR-ES-SALAAM
 OFFICE OF THE VICE-CHANCELLOR
 P.O. BOX 35091 ♦ DAR ES SALAAM ♦ TANZANIA

Ref. No: AB3/12(B)
 Date: 22nd March, 2012
 To: The Regional Administration Secretary,
 Manyara Region.

UNIVERSITY STAFF AND STUDENTS RESEARCH CLEARANCE

The purpose of this letter is to introduce to you **Mr. Moshi A. Mislay** who is a 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 4th 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 facilitate him to achieve 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 "**The Effects of Curricular Resources Marketisation Policy on Teachers' Professional Work in Three Secondary Schools in Tanzania**".

The period for which this permission has been granted is **April, 2012 to October, 2012** and will cover the following areas/offices: **Babati and Mbulu Districts**.

Should some of these areas/offices be restricted, you are requested to kindly advise him as to which alternative areas/offices 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
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UNIVERSITY OF DAR-ES-SALAAM
 OFFICE OF THE VICE-CHANCELLOR
 P.O. BOX 35091 ♦ DAR ES SALAAM ♦ TANZANIA

Ref. No: AB3/12(B)
 Date: 22nd March, 2012
 To: The Director,
 University of Dar es Salaam Library,
 University of Dar es Salaam.

UNIVERSITY STAFF AND STUDENTS RESEARCH CLEARANCE

The purpose of this letter is to introduce to you **Mr. Moshi A. Mislay** who is a 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 4th 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 facilitate him to achieve 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 **"The Effects of Curricular Resources Marketisation Policy on Teachers' Professional Work in Three Secondary Schools in Tanzania"**.

The period for which this permission has been granted is **April, 2012 to October, 2012** and will cover the following areas/offices: **University of Dar es Salaam Library**.

Should some of these areas/offices be restricted, you are requested to kindly advise him as to which alternative areas/offices 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
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UNIVERSITY OF DAR-ES-SALAAM
OFFICE OF THE VICE-CHANCELLOR
P.O. BOX 35091 ♦ DAR ES SALAAM ♦ TANZANIA

Ref. No: AB3/12(B)
Date: 22nd March, 2012
To: The Executive Director,
Tanzania Institute of Education (TIE),
Dar es Salaam.

UNIVERSITY STAFF AND STUDENTS RESEARCH CLEARANCE

The purpose of this letter is to introduce to you **Mr. Moshi A. Mislai** who is a 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 4th 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 facilitate him to achieve 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 **"The Effects of Curricular Resources Marketisation Policy on Teachers' Professional Work in Three Secondary Schools in Tanzania"**.

The period for which this permission has been granted is **April, 2012 to October, 2012** and will cover the following areas/offices: **Tanzania Institute of Education (TIE)**.

Should some of these areas/offices be restricted, you are requested to kindly advise him as to which alternative areas/offices 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

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UNIVERSITY OF DAR-ES-SALAAM
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UNIVERSITY OF DAR-ES-SALAAM
OFFICE OF THE VICE-CHANCELLOR
P.O. BOX 35091 ♦ DAR ES SALAAM ♦ TANZANIA

Ref. No: AB3/12(B)
Date: 22nd March, 2012
To: The Permanent Secretary,
Ministry of Education and Vocational Training Headquarters,
Dar es Salaam.

UNIVERSITY STAFF AND STUDENTS RESEARCH CLEARANCE

The purpose of this letter is to introduce to you **Mr. Moshi A. Mislay** who is a 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 4th 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 facilitate him to achieve 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 "**The Effects of Curricular Resources Marketisation Policy on Teachers' Professional Work in Three Secondary Schools in Tanzania**".

The period for which this permission has been granted is **April, 2012 to October, 2012** and will cover the following areas/offices: **Ministry of Education and Vocational Training Headquarters**.

Should some of these areas/offices be restricted, you are requested to kindly advise him as to which alternative areas/offices 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
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**THE UNITED REPUBLIC OF TANZANIA
PRIME MINISTER'S OFFICE
REGIONAL ADMINISTRATION AND LOCAL GOVERNMENT**

ARUSHA REGION:
Tel: No: 2502270/2502289/254-5608
Fax No. 255-5239, 254-4386
E-Mail: rasarusha@yahoo.com
E-Mail: rasarusha@gmail.com



REGIONAL COMMISSIONER'S OFFICE,
P.O. Box 3050,
ARUSHA.

In reply please quote: Ref. No.
Ref.No. **FA.195/223/01B/272**

30th May, 2012

District Administrative Secretary,
Arusha, Arumeru, Longido and Karatu Districts,
Arusha Region.

RE: RESEARCH PERMIT

Reference is hereby made to the letter dated 22nd March, 2012 from University of Dar es Salaam pertaining the underlined subject matter.

I hereby take this opportunity to introduce to you **Mr. Moshi A. Mislay** who is a student from University of Dar es Salaam. At the moment he's conducting a research Titled "*The Effects of Curricular Resources Marketisation Policy on Teachers' Professional Work in Three Secondary Schools in Tanzania*".

He has been granted permission from **April, 2012 to October, 2012** to conduct his research in your Districts, as he applied for.

You are kindly requested to introduce him to the lower administrative machinery to allow him to start his research.

Thanks for your utmost cooperation.


 (Mwanga, E. S. K.)
For: REGIONAL ADMINISTRATIVE SECRETARY
ARUSHA

Copy to: Mr. Moshi A. Mislay

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

SIMU: 250-6659 / 250-2695
Fax: 2502271
Tafadhali unapojibu taja:



OFISI YA MKUU WA WILAYA
S.L.P. 1
ARUSHA

Kumb. Na. DC/AR/R,37/148

31 Mei, 2012

**KWA YEYOTE ANAYEHUSIKA
WILAYA YA ARUSHA.**

YAH: KIBALI CHA UTAFITI NDUGU MOSHI A. MISLAY

Napenda kumtambulisha Ndugu Moshi A. Mislay ambaye ni Mwanafunzi/Mtafiti kutoka Chuo Kikuu cha Dar es Salaam. Anafanya Utafiti juu ya **"The Effects of Curricular Resource Marketisation Policy on Teachers' Professional Work in Three Secondary Schools in Tanzania"**.

Utafiti huu ni kuanzia mwezi Aprili, 2012 hadi Oktoba, 2012. Tafadhali apewe ushirikiano ili kufikia malengo ya utafiti huu.


L.K. Kileo
**Kny: KATIBU TAWALA WILAYA
ARUSHA.**

Nakala kwa: Ndugu Moshi A. Mislay
Mwanafunzi/Mtafiti.

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

WILAYA YA LONGIDO
Ariwani ya Simu:
Simu Nambari: 0272539202
Fax Na. 0272502271
Unapojibu tafadhali taja:



OFISI YA MKUU WA WILAYA,
WILAYA YA LONGIDO,
S.L.P.2.
LONGIDO.

Kumb. Na. DC/LONG/U.R/1/25

01/06/2012

KWA YEYOTE ANAYEHUSIKA.

**YAH: KIBALI CHA KUFANYA UTAFITI KWA BW. MOSHI A. MISLAY KUTOKA
CHUO KIKUU CHA DAR ES SALAAM.**

Tafadhali husikeni na mada tajwa hapo juu,

Napenda kumtambulisha kwenu **Bw. Moshi A. Mislay** ambaye ni mwanafunzi kutoka Chuo Kikuu cha Dar es Salaam anayefanya utafiti kuhusiana na ***"The Effects of Curricular Resources Marketization Policy on Teacher's Profession work in three secondary school in Tanzania"***.

Ofisi ya Mkuu wa Wilaya imetoa kibali cha kufanya utafiti huo kuanzia April 2012 hadi October 2012.

Ni matumaini yetu kuwa mtampa ushirikiano wa kutosha ili aweze kukamilisha utafiti huo.

Nakutakia kazi njema.

Robert Saigurani
ROBERT SAIGURANI,
Kny: **KATIBU TAWALA WILAYA,**
LONGIDO.
KATIBU TAWALA
LONGIDO

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

MIKOA WA ARUSHA,
Simu Na: 2534032,
Fax Na: 2534469
E-mail: dckaratu@yahoo.com
Unapojibu tafadhali taja:



OFISI YA MKUU WA WILAYA,
WILAYA YA KARATU,
S. L. P. 5,
KARATU.

Kumb. Na. DC/KAR/E.10/9/VOL.11/131

04/06/2012

Mkurugenzi Mtendaji,
Halmashauri ya Wilaya,
S. L. P. 190,
KARATU.

YAH: **KIBALI CHA UTAFITI**

Rejea somo hilo hapo juu.

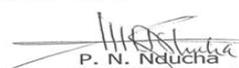
Mamlaka husika imetoa kibali cha kufanya Utafiti ndani ya Wilaya ya Karatu kwa **Bw. Moshi A. Mislai** kutoka Chuo Kikuu cha Dar es Salaam.

Utafiti huo unahusu *"The Effects of Curricular Resources Marketisation Policy on Teachers' Professional Work in Three Secondary Schools in Tanzania"*.

Kibali hicho ni kuanzia Aprili, 2012 hadi Oktoba, 2012.

Tafadhali unaombwa kumpa msaada na ushirikiano atakaouhitaji kutoka kwako ili aweze kufanikisha utafiti huo.

Nakushukuru kwa ushirikiano wako.


P. N. Nducha
**KATIBU TAWALA WA WILAYA
KARATU**

Nakala: Bw. Moshi A. Mislai

**KATIBU TAWALA WILAYA
KARATU**

HALMASHAURI YA WILAYA YA KARATU

(Mawasiliano yote yaandikwe kwa Mkurugenzi Mtendaji)

Simu: +255 27 2534047
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Unapojibu tafadhali taja
kumbukumbu nambari:
KDC/DED/.



Idara ya Elimu,
S.L.P. 190,
Karatu,
Tanzania

Tarehe: 12/06/2012

Mkuu wa Shule,
Sekondari,
S.L.P.
KARATU.

YAH: KUMRUHUSU BW. MOSHI A. MISLAY KUFANYA UTAFITI

Mada hapo juu inahusika.

Bw. Moshi A. Mishay wa Chuo Kikuu cha Dar-es-Salaam ameruhusiwa kufanya utafiti shuleni kwako.

Utafiti wake unahusu "The Effects of Curricular Resources Marketisation Policy on Teachers' Professional Work in Three Secondary Schools in Tanzania."

Kibali cha utafiti ni kuanzia **Aprili, 2012** hadi **Oktoba, 2012**.

Nawasilisha.


P. N. Mbwambo
Kny: Mkurugenzi Mtendaji (W)
KARATU

Nakala:
Bw. Moshi A. Mislay.

Appendix 21: Selected English and Biology Curriculum Texts between 1996 and 2012

- 1 Ndunguru, S. N. (1997). *A wreath for Fr. Mayer of Masasi*. Dar es Salaam: Mkuki na Nyota Publishers.
- 2 Ndunguru, S. N. (2004). *Spared*. Dar es Salaam: Mkuki na Nyota Publishers.
- 3 Mabala, R. S. (1980). *Summons*. Dar es Salaam: Tanzania Publishing House.
- 4 Mabala, R. S. (1988a). *Hawa the bus driver*: Longman Ltd.
- 5 Mabala, R. S. (1988b). *Mabala the farmer*. Addison-Wesley: Longman Limited.
- 6 Kadeghe, M. (2006a). *The real English textbook for the Tanzania secondary schools form one: The new syllabus (2005)*. Dar es Salaam: Jamana Printers Ltd.
- 7 Kadeghe, M. (2006b). *The real English textbook for the Tanzania secondary schools form two: The new syllabus (2005)*. Dar es Salaam: Jamana Printers Ltd.
- 8 Kadeghe, M. (2007). *The real English textbook for the Tanzania secondary schools form three: The new syllabus (2005)*. Dar es Salaam: Afroplus Industries Ltd.
- 9 Kadeghe, M. (2008). *The real English textbook for the Tanzania secondary schools form four: The new syllabus (2005)*. Dar es Salaam: Jamana Printers Ltd.
- 10 Thiong'o, N. (1965). *The river between*. Oxford: Heinemann Educational Publishers.
- 11 Thiong'o, N. (1967). *A grain of wheat*. Oxford: Heinemann Educational Publishers.
- 12 Thiong'o, N. (1970). *This time tomorrow*. Nairobi: East African Literature Bureau.
- 13 Thiong'o, N. (1974). *A meeting in the dark*. Oxford: Heinemann Educational Publishers.
- 14 Thiong'o, N. (1987). *Weep not, child*. Oxford: Heinemann Educational Publishers.
- 15 Thiong'o, N. (2000). *The black hermit*. Nairobi: Heinemann Educational Publishers.
- 16 Achebe, C. (1958). *Things fall apart* London: Heinemann Educational Publishers.
- 17 Achebe, C. (1963). *No longer at ease*. Oxford: Heinemann Educational Publishers.
- 18 Achebe, C. (1966). *A man of the people*. London: Heinemann Publishers Limited.
- 19 Msaki, L. K. (1992). *Cell structure and organization*. Mture publishers.
- 20 Msaki, L. K. (1994). *Biology for secondary schools Book 1*. London: Macmillan Education.
- 21 Msaki, L. K. (1998). *Biology for secondary schools: Book 2*. (Revised edition). Oxford: Macmillan Education.
- 22 Msaki, L. K. (1999a). *Biology series: Book 3*. Mture Publishers.
- 23 Msaki, L. K. (1999b). *Biology series: Book 1*. Mture Publishers.
- 24 Msaki, L. K. (1999c). *Biology series: Book 2*. Mture Publishers.
- 25 Msaki, L. K. (1999d). *Biology series: Book 4*. Mture Publishers.

Appendix 22: A Sample of Biology Teacher's Lesson Plan

TEACHER'S LESSON PLAN						
Date	Subject	Class	Period	Time	Number of students	
12 July 2012	BIOLOGY	III E	6 & 7	11:35-12:55	Registered 71	Present 68
Main Topic: <u>MOVEMENT</u>						
Sub-Topic: <u>MUSCLES AND MOVEMENT</u>						
General Goal: <u>The student should understand the whole concept of muscles and movement</u>						
Specific Objectives:						
1. <u>Students should be able to describe the ^{three} types of muscles.</u>						
2. <u>Explain the concept of Muscles Cramp.</u>						
3. _____						
4. _____						
Teaching Aids or Resources:						
<u>charts showing contraction and relaxation of muscles (Biceps and Triceps muscles); model of human being skeleton.</u>						
Reference Books:						
<u>school certificate Biology Form 3 & 4 by Abdallah S. Ngidi & Beatrice S. Chombo</u>						
<u>New essential of Biology for secondary school Book Three</u>						
LESSON PLAN PRESENTATION						
Stage	Minutes	Teacher's Activities	Students' Activities			
Introduction:						
	15	- Asking the questions about the concept of muscles and movement.	- Answering the questions and providing some their understanding on the whole concept of muscles and movement.			

Presentation:			
	40	- Continuing on emphasizing the concept of muscles and movement in details and the adaptations of muscles.	- Listening carefully and noting down some short notes provided by teacher.
Application/Practice:			
	15.	- Demonstrating the way muscles work and their adaptations.	- Observing carefully and practicing themselves.
Closing:			
	10	- Summarizing the whole concept and asking the oral questions.	- Listening carefully and answering the questions asked by the teacher.
Self evaluation: The concept was understood to the students as they were able to answer some oral questions asked by the teacher. Next period I will try to insist to and explain much the concept of muscle cramp and its causes.			

Appendix 23: A Sample of Rugosa Maths Teacher's Lesson Plan

TEACHER'S LESSON PLAN

Date	Subject	Class	Period	Time	Number of students	
					Registered	Present
25/07/12	Maths	IV	9:20-10:40	80min	171	169

Main Topic: TRIGONOMETRY.

Sub-Topic: Application of trigonometry (real) topics.

General Goal: At the end of the topic students must know how to draw

Specific Objectives: At the end of the sub-topic:

1. Students should be able to solve practical problems
2. Students should be able to analyse practical problems
3. Students should be able to identify angle of elevation
4. Students should be able to show angle of depression.

Teaching Aids or Resources:

F.W.T. figure math tables and math book.

Reference Books:

Book IX mathematics for secondary schools by (T.I.E) chapter A, page (119-123)

LESSON PLAN PRESENTATION

Stage	Minutes	Teacher's Activities	Students' Activities
Introduction:			
	10	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Reviewing the previous lesson and doing correction. - Introducing new subtopic. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Doing correction and revision. - Listening to the teacher.

Presentation:			
	45	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - To guide students to read a values of sine, cosine and tangent for angles between 0° & 360°. - To lead students prepare the table of values of sine, cosine and tangent for 0° & 360°. - To discuss with students the features of the graphs of sine and cosine functions. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Reading values of sine, cosine and tangent of angles. - Prepare a table - Discussing with the teacher.
Application/Practice:			
	15	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Giving students questions for them to try on the blackboard. - Correcting misconception <p>EXERCISE 4.1 Pg (109)</p> <p>4 @ 5 @ 6 (a)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Doing questions on the blackboard. - Doing correction
Closing:			
	05	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Giving a brief summary of the lesson and to introduce the next subtopic 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Listening carefully to the teacher.
<p>Self evaluation:</p> <p>Generally, the lesson was understood because most of the students answered the questions well, therefore next period I will proceed with the new sub-topic.</p>			

Appendix 24: A Sample of Biology Curriculum Contents Form III Taught at Urpisa

Everyone and the community at large should take part on control and prevention of drugs. Report to the authority concerned any person you see involved in drug abuse, drug trafficking or drug production.

Family Guidance, Counseling and Good Moral Teachings

The family should be responsible to inculcate good moral values to the family members so as to avoid bad habits of using drugs. Parents need to be good examples to their children by not using alcohol, cigarettes and other drugs that affect human health and life in general. The family should also provide guidance and counseling to their children and family members within the family.

HORMONAL COORDINATION IN MAMMALS

Meaning of Hormonal Coordination

The body of mammals is under control of two mechanisms which regulate all aspects of physical life, which are the nervous system and the endocrine system. Bodies of mammals secrete organic compounds which are protein in nature and travel through the blood stream and influence different kinds of target cells, modifying their activity in a variety of ways. These chemical (organic) compounds are called *hormones*. Hormonal coordination is the mechanism of control of body activities which is under the influence of hormones. Hormones are secreted by ductless glands which make up the system called *endocrine system*.

The Endocrine system consists of eight principal ductless glands that release hormones directly into the blood. These glands are thyroid, anterior pituitary, posterior pituitary, parathyroid, and the islets of langerhans (pancreas), adrenal cortex, adrenal medulla, and gonads (testes in males, and ovaries in females).

Activity 3.10: Location of Endocrine Glands

- Obtain charts or diagrams which show endocrine glands in man.
- Identify names of the located endocrine glands.
- Compare your work with figure 3.18
- Mention types of hormones produced by glands located on the neck and head regions.

Endocrine Glands in Mammals (Man)

Endocrine glands are specialized chemical factories that produce hormones that perform a special task or group of tasks. Endocrine glands are also called the *ductless glands*. Unlike the exocrine glands such as sweat glands, salivary and pancreas glands have no ducts. Their secretions diffuse directly into the blood which carries them to all parts of the body or their target cells. The endocrine glands are located in the head, neck and abdomen (trunk).

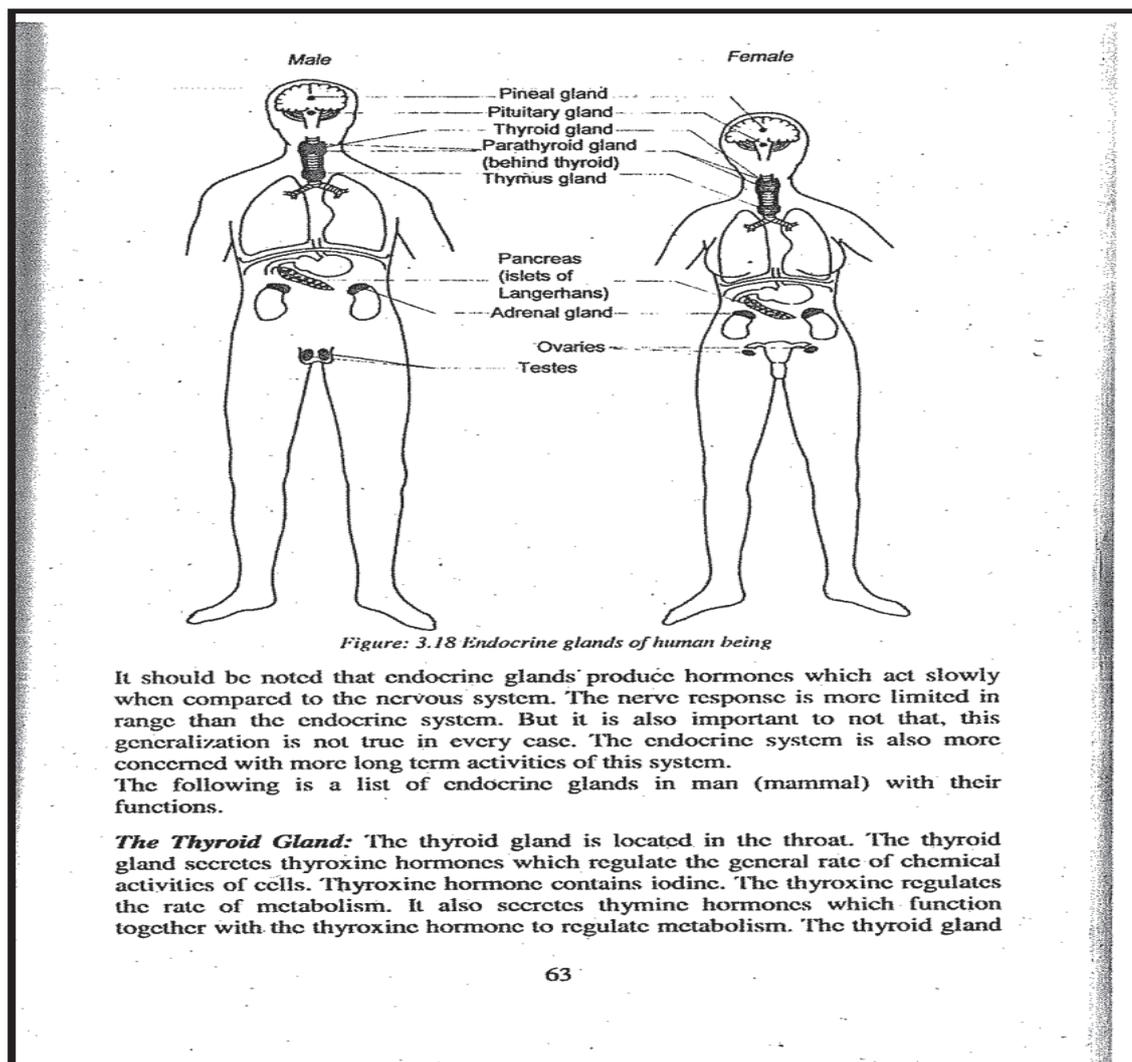


Figure: 3.18 Endocrine glands of human being

It should be noted that endocrine glands produce hormones which act slowly when compared to the nervous system. The nerve response is more limited in range than the endocrine system. But it is also important to not that, this generalization is not true in every case. The endocrine system is also more concerned with more long term activities of this system.

The following is a list of endocrine glands in man (mammal) with their functions.

The Thyroid Gland: The thyroid gland is located in the throat. The thyroid gland secretes thyroxine hormones which regulate the general rate of chemical activities of cells. Thyroxine hormone contains iodine. The thyroxine regulates the rate of metabolism. It also secretes thymine hormones which function together with the thyroxine hormone to regulate metabolism. The thyroid gland

also secretes calcitonin, a hormone that functions to regulate body use of calcium. The calcitonin hormones produced by the thyroid gland encourages the deposition of calcium in the bones.

Since the thyroid gland uses almost all the iodine in the body, deficiency of iodine in the body caused by taking too little iodine in food leads to condition called *colloid goitre*, which is characterized by enlargement of the thyroid gland. This condition occurs as a result of the thyroid gland increasing in size due to the attempt of producing more thyroxine hormones.

Deficiency of thyroxine in early stage of development (infancy) causes a condition or disorder called *cretinism*. *Cretinism* is characterized with severe mental retardation and stunted growth.

Under secretion of thyroxine hormones in human adults result into a condition called *myxoedema* which is characterized by slow metabolic functioning and heart beat, reduced mental activities, loss of past memory, and person looks older than he/she actually is. However, over secretion of thyroxine causes a disorder known as *exophthalmic goitre*.



Figure: 3.19 A Person with goiter

Parathyroid Gland: Parathyroid gland lies in front of the neck (throat) embedded in the thyroid gland.

Parathyroid gland produces parathormone which raises calcium level in the blood and also functions in controlling calcium metabolism in the body.

The Adrenal Glands: Located above the kidney. These glands have two regions, the outer one called adrenal cortex and the inner one called adrenal medulla. The adrenal cortex is the outer part of the adrenal gland. It secretes different hormones which include aldosterone and hydrocortisone.

Aldosterone plays a big role in regulating salts in the body, whereas the hydrocortisone is involved in metabolizing amino acids, fats and glucose, and produces raw materials and energy required for building and repairing tissues. The hydrocortisone hormones also function to influence carbohydrates within the body. These hormones are also concerned with reabsorption of sodium and chloride ions and water in the kidney tubules.

The adrenal cortex synthesizes the male sex hormones (androgens) as well as the female sex hormones (estrogens).

The Adrenal Medulla: Is the inner part (central portion) of each kidney. This gland secretes adrenaline and noradrenaline hormones. Adrenaline hormones are believed by many biologists to be produced during emergency situations. When one is frightened or anxious, adrenaline hormones are produced and released into the blood stream, causing an increase in blood pressure, increasing the rate of heart beat, blood sugar levels and supply of blood to the muscles. Thus, these hormones are said to prepare a person for a fight or flight in a situation of stress. Adrenaline is also said to be produced when one is excited. Both adrenaline and noradrenaline play part in regulating blood circulation and the use of carbohydrates in the body.

The Pancreas (Islets of Langerhans): The pancreas lies inside the loop of the duodenum in man opening into the small intestine. Principally the pancreas has both the endocrine and exocrine functions. The exocrine function of pancreas is to produce digestive enzymes which break down food in mammals.

The islets of langerhans do the endocrine function. It secretes two hormones, insulin and glucagons. These two hormones have opposing effects on the glucose level of the blood but both insulin and glucagons hormones function to regulate glucose and some other organic compounds in the blood.

Insulin does the following:

1. Increasing the rate of conversion of glucose to glycogen. This process is called *glycogenesis*.
2. Stopping the liver from producing unwanted glucose.
3. Increasing the uptake of glucose from the blood by muscle cells.
4. It increases the rate of uptake of amino acids into cells and the rate of protein synthesis.
5. It also functions to prevent adipose tissue releasing glycerol and fatty acids.

ganadotrophic hormones, and adrenocorticotrophic stimulating hormone (ACTH). TSH functions to stimulate the thyroid gland to produce thyroxine.

Adrenocorticotrophic hormones (ACTH) encourage hormone output from the cortex of each adrenal gland. Others are Follicle stimulating hormone (F.S.H) and Lutenizing hormone (L.H) which respectively control development of follicles in the ovary and the release of an ovum by the ovary.

Gonadotrophic Hormones: control sexual maturity in human beings. The anterior pituitary produces other hormones, such as *growth hormones and prolactin*. These hormones can be stimulated and inhibited by the hypothalamus. Growth hormones stimulate the growth of tissues especially bony tissues and broadly influences metabolism. When there is normal secretion of growth hormones, the body grows normally. When there is under secretion of growth hormones disorder known as *dwarfism* results. Over secretion of these hormones leads to a condition called *gigantism*. Gigantism normally occurs in children. Over-secretion of the growth hormones in human adults results in *acromegaly*.

Prolactin: This hormone stimulates milk production in lactating mothers.

The posterior Pituitary (lobe): This is an inner part of a pituitary which stores and release two hormones namely antidiuretic hormone and oxytocin.

Antidiuretic hormone (ADH) also called vasopressin. It controls water reabsorption in the kidney. By controlling urine output, it helps to maintain water balance of the body. Oxytocin hormone controls the contraction of the uterus during childbirth. Oxytocin also stimulates the release of milk during nursing of lactating mammals.

Deficiency of ADH (vasopressin) hormones leads to a disease called diabetes insipidus.

Characteristics of Diabetes Insipidus

- It is associated with the production of large quantities of dilute urine.
- It takes place when there is insufficiency of ADH. (Antidiuretic hormone)

The Gonads: These comprise testes and ovaries which produce a number of hormones known as *sex hormones*.

The male testes produce hormones, called *testosterone*. Testosterone functions in controlling secondary sexual characteristics such as growing of beard, deep voice and pubic hair. Testosterones begin to be produced on the onset of puberty (sexual maturity).

The ovaries in female produce hormones called *oestrogens*. These hormones are responsible for controlling development of secondary sexual characteristics in female. It helps to develop the lining of the uterus after ovulation. Oestrogens are produced on the onset of maturity. Oestrogens do another important function of preparing the uterus to receive a ripe ovum in female mammals.

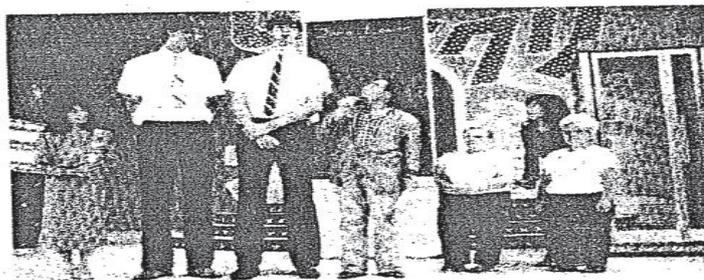


Figure: 3.21 Pituitary giant, normal and pituitary dwarf people

Table 3.2: Differences between Endocrine System and Nervous System

Mode of Function	Endocrine System	Nervous System
1. Mode of transmission.	It uses chemicals called hormones which travel through the blood stream.	It uses nerve cells which transmit impulses in electrical signals.
2. Speed of transmission.	It takes long time to reach target cells, e.g. growth hormones.	It takes very short time to reach the required area e.g. touching a hot object.
3. Effects.	The effect of hormonal transmission is localized.	The effects of nervous transmission is generalized.
4. Control.	Endocrine system control slow – long term activities in the body. (such as growth and sexual development).	Nervous system control activities which need fast response.

Appendix 25: A Sample of Form IV Mathematics Curriculum Contents on “Trigonometry”

- (b) 317° is in the fourth quadrant
 $\sin 317^\circ = -\sin(360^\circ - 317^\circ)$
 $= -\sin 43^\circ$.
- (c) 95° is in the second quadrant
 $\tan 95^\circ = -\tan(180^\circ - 95^\circ)$
 $= -\tan 85^\circ$.
- (d) 258° is in the second quadrant
 $\tan 258^\circ = \tan(258^\circ - 180^\circ)$
 $= \tan 78^\circ$.

Approximate Values of Sine and Cosine of Angles Between 0° and 360° .

Figure 4.6 represents a unit circle shown on squared paper. Angles $0^\circ, 10^\circ, 20^\circ, \dots, 360^\circ$ marked on the circumference correspond to the angles at the centre O. Approximate values of sine and cosine, of the respective angles can be found by reading the coordinates of the points on the circle.

For example in finding the values of $\sin 20^\circ$ we read the y -coordinate at the point as 0.34 and the value of $\cos 20^\circ$ as 0.94.

Table 4.1 has been partly completed by entering approximate values of sine and cosine using Figure 4.6. The pupil can copy and fill in the missing values and compare these values with those given in the tables for trigonometrical ratios.

Table 4.1: Approximate values of sines and cosines of angles between 0° and 360°

Angle	Sine	Cosine	Angle	Sine	Cosine
20°	0.34	0.94	190°	- 0.17	
30°			220°		
70°			290°		
120°		- 0.50	310°		0.64
140°	0.64		330°		

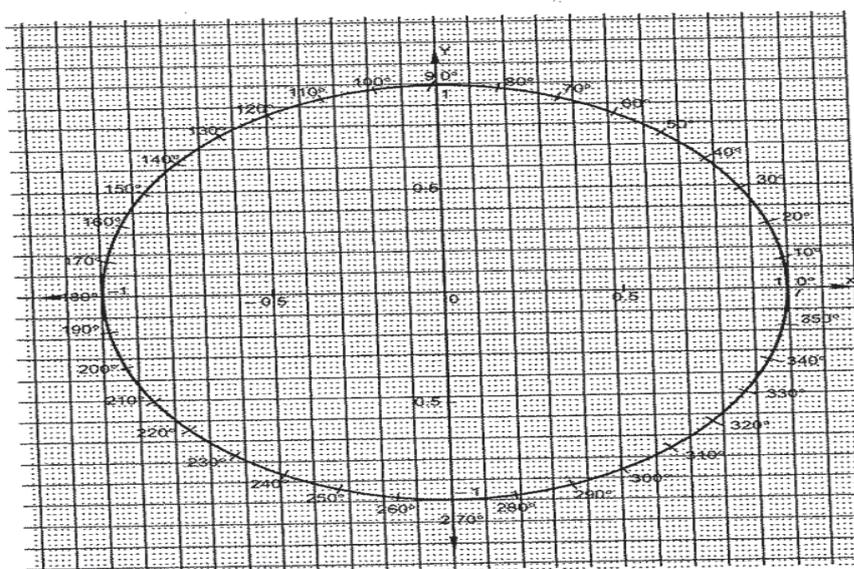


Figure 4.6

Approximate Values of Tangents of Angles Between 0° and 360°

Figure 4.7 represents a unit circle shown on a squared paper. Line segments corresponding to central angles of 0°, 10°, 20° ... 360° meet tangents to the circle at points A and A₁. The tangent of any angle can be found by using the coordinates at the point as follows:

$$\tan \theta = \frac{y\text{-coordinate}}{x\text{-coordinate}} = \frac{y}{x}$$

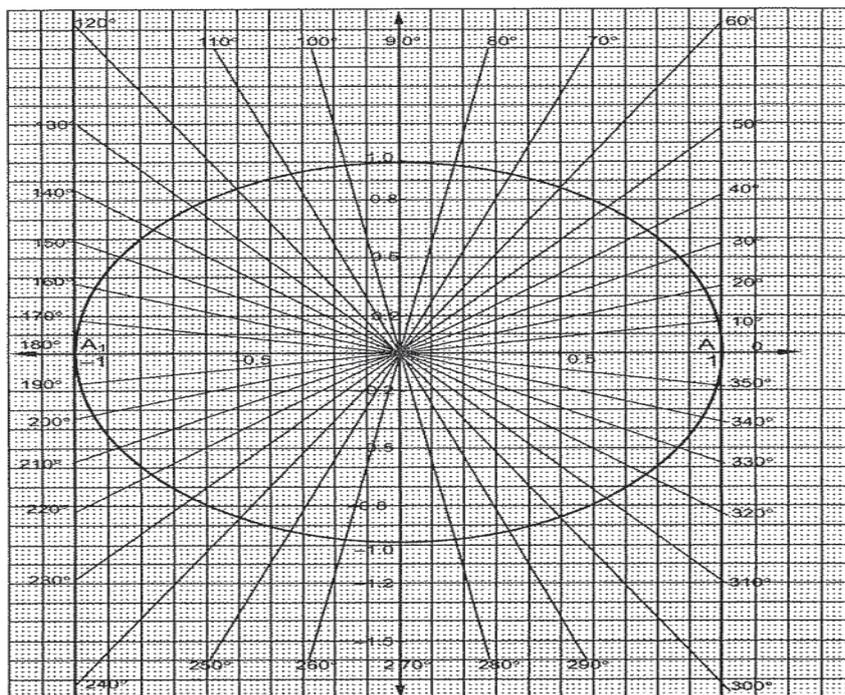


Figure 4.7

Note that the coordinate is 1 or -1 in all cases. For example:

$$\tan 40^\circ = \frac{0.84}{1} = 0.84$$

$$\tan 130^\circ = \frac{1.2}{-1} = -1.2$$

$$\tan 210^\circ = \frac{-0.58}{-1} = 0.58$$

In Table 4.2 approximate values of $\tan \theta$ have been filled partly. The pupil can copy and fill in the remaining values and compare with those given in the trigonometrical tables.

Table 4.2: Approximate values of tangents of angles between 0° and 360°

Angle	20	60	140	210	240	310	330
Tangent	0.4		-0.85			-1.19	

Use of Coordinates of a Point in Determining Trigonometrical Ratios.

Trigonometrical ratios can be determined and their signs found by using coordinates of points in each quadrant. Figure 4.8 represents a circle centre O with radius r , subdivided into four quadrants by the coordinate axes.

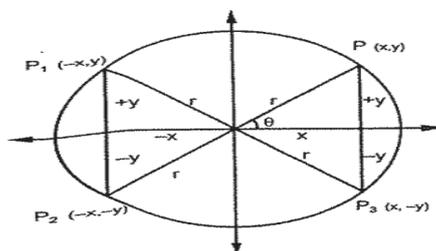


Figure 4.8

The x -coordinate is positive on the first and fourth quadrants but negative in the second and third quadrants. The y -coordinate is positive in the first and second quadrants but negative in the third and fourth quadrants.

Note that r is the radius.

$$\sin \theta = \frac{\text{y-coordinate}}{\text{radius}} = \frac{y}{r}$$

$$\cos \theta = \frac{\text{x-coordinate}}{\text{radius}} = \frac{x}{r}$$

$$\tan \theta = \frac{\text{y-coordinate}}{\text{x-coordinate}} = \frac{y}{x}$$

We are therefore able to find the trigonometrical ratios of angles using the coordinates of the terminal point of the side determining the angle.

Let, θ be any angle and P with coordinates $(-4,3)$ be a point on the terminal point of OP as shown in Figure 4.9.

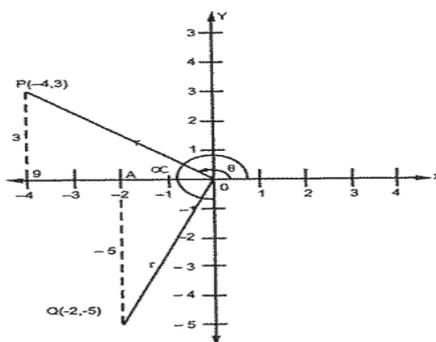


Figure 4.9

By Pythagoras theorem

$$r = OP = \sqrt{(-4)^2 + 3^2} = \sqrt{25} = 5$$

6. $\cos 45^\circ \tan 30^\circ$
 7. $\frac{\sin 45^\circ \tan 60^\circ}{\cos 30^\circ}$
 8. $\frac{\tan (-30^\circ) \cos 60^\circ}{\sin (-45^\circ)}$
 9. Find positive or negative angles corresponding to each of the following angles: (a) -333° (b) 192° (c) -204° (d) 265° .
 10. If $\sin \theta = \sin 160^\circ$ and θ is acute, find θ .
 11. Find the value of θ that satisfies the equation $\sin 2\theta = \sin 135^\circ$ and $0 \leq \theta \leq 360$.
 12. If $\sin 120^\circ = \cos 2\theta$ find the value of θ where $0 \leq \theta \leq 90$.

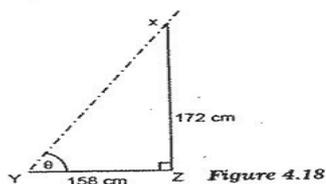
Applications of Trigonometrical Ratios

Trigonometrical ratios can be used in solving practical problems.

Example 1: A man who is 172cm tall, notes that the length of his shadow is 158cm . Find the angle of elevation of the sun.

Solution: In Fig. 4.18, XZ represents the man's height, YZ the length of his shadow and θ sun's angle of elevation.

$$\begin{aligned}\tan \theta &= \frac{172\text{cm}}{158\text{cm}} \\ &= 1.089 \\ \theta &= 47^\circ 26'\end{aligned}$$



\therefore The angle of elevation of the sun is $47^\circ 26'$.

Example 2: Petro starts from a point P and cycles 19.8cm to a point in a direction $N 41^\circ 22' W$. How far has he travelled West and North respectively?

Solution: Let x and y be the distances in km due West and North of P respectively as shown in Figure 4.19

$$\begin{aligned}\sin 41^{\circ}22' &= \frac{x}{19.8} \\ x &= 19.8 \times 0.6608 = 13.08km \\ \frac{y}{19.8} &= \cos 41^{\circ}22' \\ y &= 19.8 \times 0.7505 = 14.86km\end{aligned}$$

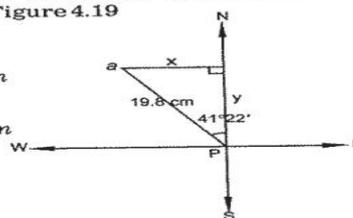


Figure 4.19

\therefore Petro travelled $13.08km$ West of P and $14.864km$ North of P .

Example 3: From a certain point A , Fatuma observes the angle of elevation of the top of a church tower to be 32° . Moving $30m$ further away to a point B on the same horizontal level as the bottom of the tower C , she observes the angle of elevation to be 22° . Find the distance AC and the height of the tower.

Solution: Let h be the height of the tower and x be the distance AC as shown in Figure 4.20.

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Then: } \frac{h}{x} &= \tan 32^{\circ} \\ h &= x \tan 32^{\circ} \\ \frac{h}{x+30} &= \tan 22^{\circ} \\ h &= (x+30) \tan 22^{\circ} \\ &= x \tan 22^{\circ} + 30 \tan 22^{\circ}.\end{aligned}$$

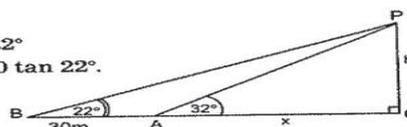


Figure 4.20

$$\begin{aligned} \therefore x \tan 32^\circ &= x \tan 22^\circ + 30 \tan 22^\circ \\ x (\tan 32^\circ - \tan 22^\circ) &= 30 \tan 22^\circ \\ x &= \frac{30 \tan 22^\circ}{\tan 32^\circ - \tan 22^\circ} = \frac{30 \times 0.4040}{0.6249 - 0.4040} \\ &= \frac{12.12}{0.2209} = 54.9\text{m} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \therefore \text{The distance } AC &= 54.9\text{m} \\ h &= x \tan 32^\circ \\ &= 54.9 \times 0.6249 \\ &= 54.9\text{m}. \end{aligned}$$

\therefore The height of the tower is 34.3m.

Exercise 4.4

1. At a point 182m from the foot of a tower on a level road, the angle of elevation of the top of the tower is $36^\circ 44'$. Find the height of the tower.
2. A ladder rests against the top of the wall and makes an angle of 62° with the ground. If the foot of the ladder is 8.3m from the wall, find the height of the wall.
3. From the top of a cliff 35m high the angles of depression of two boats lying in a line due east of the cliff are 27° and 23° . Find the distance between the boats.
4. X and Y are two points on opposite banks of a river (Figure 4.21). If PY measures 90m and $\angle XPY = 59^\circ$, find the width of the river.

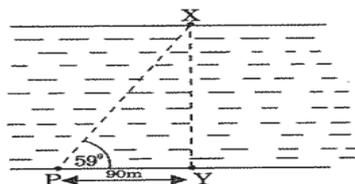


Figure 4.21

5. The edges of a rectangular garden are $163m$ long and $109m$ wide. Find the angles made by a canal and the edges if the canal cuts the garden diagonally.
6. A ship starts from a point P and travels 22 km in a direction $N 32^\circ 41' E$. How far North and East of P is the ship?
7. A ladder $18m$ long rests against a vertical wall. Find the inclination of the ladder to the horizontal if the foot of the ladder is $8.5m$ from the wall.
8. A pendulum $28cm$ long swings on either side of the vertical through an angle of 17° . Through what height does the pendulum bob rise? (See Figure 4.22a).

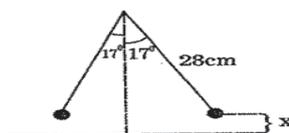


Figure 4.22a

9. AB and AC are the legs of a ladder (Fig. 4.22b) each $3m$ long. Find: (a) The height of the ladder (b) The distance between the feet of the ladder.

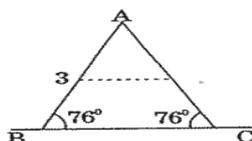


Figure 4.22b

10. An electric pole casts a shadow $5.5m$ long. If the angle of elevation of the sun is 55° , find the height of the pole.
11. A rope $15m$ long is stretched out from the top of a flagpost $10m$

high to a point on a level ground. What angle does it make with the ground and how far is this point from the foot of the flag post.

12. The angle of depression of a boat from the cliff 25m high is 12° . Find the distance of the boat from the bottom of the cliff.

Trigonometrical Functions

The determination of trigonometrical ratios for both positive and negative angles has been done earlier. The relationship between an angle and its trigonometrical ratio defines a function. For example if $\sin \theta = y$ then the ordered pairs (θ, y) define a sine function. Similarly the ordered pair (θ, x) define a cosine function and $(\theta, \frac{y}{x})$ the tangent function.

Examples of such ordered pairs are:

$$(45^\circ, \sin 45^\circ) = (45^\circ, 0.71)$$

$$(120^\circ, \cos 120^\circ) = (120^\circ, -0.5)$$

$$(-70^\circ, \tan (-70^\circ)) = (-70^\circ, -2.75).$$

Even and Odd Functions

Definition:

A function f is said to be even if $f(-x) = f(x)$ and odd if $f(-x) = -f(x)$. Cosine function is an even function while sine and tangent functions are odd as we can see from Tables 4.5, 4.6 and 4.7. For example

$$\sin (-45^\circ) = -\sin 45^\circ$$

$$\cos (-45^\circ) = \cos 45^\circ$$

$$\tan (-45^\circ) = -\tan 45^\circ$$

Tables 4.5 and 4.6 show a set of such ordered pair for sine and cosine functions respectively for angles between -360° and 360° .

Table 4.5: Ordered pairs of sine for angles between -360° and 360°

θ	-360	-315	-270	-225	-180	-135	-90	-45	
$\sin \theta$	0.00	0.71	1.00	0.71	0.00	-0.71	-1.00	-0.71	
θ	0	45	90	135	180	225	270	315	360
$\sin \theta$	0.00	0.71	1.00	0.71	0.00	-0.71	-1.00	-0.71	0.00

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Appendix 26: Book Price List Provided by Tanzania Institute of Education

AINA NA BEI YA VITABU VYA MEMKWA VINAVYOPATIKANA TAASISI YA ELIMU TANZANIA (TET):

1. VITABU VYA MEMKWA KUNDIRIKA LA KWANZA, MWAKA WA KWANZA

MWANAFUNZI	MWEZESHAJI
HISABATI Kitabu cha Hisabati Mwanafunzi kundirika la kwanza Mwaka wa Kwanza Bei shs. 3,900/=	HISABATI Hisabati kitabu cha Mwezeshaji kundirika la kwanza mwaka wa kwanza Bei sh. 3,500/=

UJENZI WA HAIBA : Kitabu cha Ujenzi wa Haiba kundirika la kwanza mwaka wa kwanza Bei sh. 2,000/=	UJENZI WA HAIBA Ujenzi wa Kundirika la kwanza mwaka wa kwanza mwanafunzi Bei sh. 2,000/=
KISWAHILI: Kitabu cha Kiswahili Mbinu za Mawasiliano 2002 Bei sh. 3,500.=	KISWAHILI: Kitabu cha Kiswahili Mbinu za Mawasiliano Bei sh. 3,500/=
STADI ZA KAZI: Kitabu cha Stadi za kazi Mwanafunzi Mwaka wa kwanza Bei 3,500/=	STADI ZA KAZI Kitabu cha Stadi za Kazi Mwezeshaji Bei 3,500/=
MAARIFA: Kitabu cha Maarifa Mwanafunzi Mwaka wa kwanza Bei 3,500/=	MAARIFA Kitabu cha Maarifa Mwezeshaji 2002 Bei 3,500/=
ENGLISH English learner's Book Cohort One Year One price 3,000/=	ENGLISH English Facilitator's book Cohort One Year one Price 3,000/=
2. VITABU VYA MEMKWA KUNDIRIKA LA PILI, MWAKA WA KWANZA	
MWANAFUNZI	MWEZESHAJI
HISABATI Kitabu cha Hisabati Mwanafunzi kundirika la pili Mwaka wa kwanza Bei sh. 3,400/=	HISABATI Kitabu cha Hisabati Mwezeshaji kundirika la pili mwaka wa Kwanza Bei 3,800/=.
UJENZI WA HAIBA Kitabu cha Ujenzi wa Haiba kundirika la pili mwaka wa kwanza Bei sh. 2,000/=	UJENZI WA HAIBA Kitabu cha Ujenzi wa Haiba Mwezeshaji kundirika la pili mwaka 1 Bei sh. 2,400/=.
KISWAHILI: Kitabu cha Kiswahili Mbinu za mawasiliano mwanafunzi kundirika la pili mwaka wa Kwanza Bei sh. 2,000/=	KISWAHILI Kitabu cha Kiswahili mbinu za mawasiliano Mwezeshaji Kundirika la pili mwaka kwanza Bei sh. 2,000/=
STADI ZA KAZI Kitabu cha Stadi za Kazi Mwanafunzi kundirika la pili mwaka wa kwanza Bei sh. 2,700/=	STADI ZA KAZI Kitabu cha Stadi za Kazi Mwezeshaji kundirika la pili mwaka wa kwanza Bei sh. 3,900/=
MAARIFA YA JAMII: Kitabu cha Maarifa Mwanafunzi kundirika la pili mwaka wa kwanza Sh. 2,800/=	MAARIFA Kitabu cha Maarifa Mwezeshaji kundirika la pili mwaka wa kwanza Bei 3,300/=
ENGLISH English learner's Book Cohort two	ENGLISH English language Facilitator's book Cohort Two year

year one price 2,400/=	one price 3000
3. VITABU VYA MEMKWA KUNDIRIKA LA KWANZA, MWAKA WA PILI	
MWANAFUNZI	MWEZESHAJI
HISABATI Kitabu cha Hisabati Mwanafunzi kundirika la kwanza Mwaka wa pili Bei sh. 3,500/=	HISABATI Kitabu cha Hisabati Mwezeshaji kundirika la kwanza Mwaka wa pili Bei sh. 3,500/=
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KISWAHILI: Kitabu cha Kiswahili Mbinu za mawasiliano mwanafunzi kundirika la kwanza Mwaka wa pili Bei sh. 2,300 /=	KISWAHILI Kitabu cha Kiswahili Mbinu za mawasiliano Mwezeshaji kundirika la kwanza Mwaka wa pili Bei sh. 2,300/=
STADI ZA KAZI Kitabu cha Stadi za Kazi Mwanafunzi kundirika la kwanza Mwaka wa pili Bei sh. 3,000/=	STADI ZA KAZI Kitabu cha Stadi za Kazi Mwezeshaji kundirika la kwanza Mwaka wa pili Bei sh. 3,500/=
MAARIFA YA JAMII: Kitabu cha Maarifa Mwanafunzi kundirika la kwanza Mwaka wa pili Sh. 3,500/=	MAARIFA YA JAMII: Kitabu cha Maarifa Mwezeshaji kundirika la kwanza Mwaka wa pili Sh. 3,500/=
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4. VITABU VYA MEMKWA KUNDIRIKA LA PILI, MWAKA WA PILI	
MWANAFUNZI	MWEZESHAJI
HISABATI Kitabu cha Hisabati Mwanafunzi kundirika la pili Mwaka wa pili Bei sh. 3,500/=	HISABATI Kitabu cha Hisabati Mwezeshajii kundirika la pili Mwaka wa pili Bei sh. 3,500/=
UJENZI WA HAIBA: Kitabu cha Ujenzi wa Haiba kundirika la pili Mwaka wa pili Bei sh. 3,000/=	UJENZI WA HAIBA Kitabu cha Ujenzi wa Haiba kundirika la pili Mwaka wa pili Bei sh. 3,000/=
KISWAHILI Kitabu cha Kiswahili Mbinu za mawasiliano mwanafunzi	KISWAHILI Kitabu cha Kiswahili Mbinu za mawasiliano mwezeshaji kundirika la pili Mwaka

kundirika la pili Mwaka wa pili Bei sh. 3,000/=	wa pili Bei sh. 3,000/=
STADI ZA KAZI Kitabu cha Stadi za Kazi Mwanafunzi kundirika la pili Mwaka wapili Bei sh. 3,000/=	STADI ZA KAZI Kitabu cha Stadi za Kazi Mwezeshaji kundirika la pili Mwaka wapili Bei sh. 3,000/=
MAARIFA YA JAMII: Kitabu cha Maarifa Mwanafunzi kundirika la pili Mwaka wa pili Sh. 3,500/=	MAARIFA YA JAMII: Kitabu cha Maarifa Mwanafunzi kundirika la pili Mwaka wa pili Sh. 3,500/=
ENGLISH English learner's Book Cohort two year two price 3,000/=	ENGLISH English learner's Book Cohort two year two price 3,000/=
5. VITABU VYA KUNDIRIKA LA KWANZA NA LA PILI, MWAKA WA TATU	
MWANAFUNZI	MWEZESHAJI
HISABATI Kitabu cha Hisabati mwanafunzi kundirika la kwanza Mwaka wa Tatu Bei sh. 3,500/=	HISABATI Kitabu cha Hisabati Mwezeshaji kundirika la kwanza Mwaka wa Tatu Bei sh. 4,000/=
UJENZI WA HAIBA Kitabu cha Ujenzi wa Haiba kundirika la kwanza Mwaka wa Tatu Bei sh. 3,000/=	UJENZI WA HAIBA Kitabu cha Ujenzi wa Haiba kundirika la kwanza Mwaka wa Tatu Bei sh. 3,500/=
KISWAHILI Kitabu cha Kiswahili Mbinu za mawasiliano Mwanafunzi kundirika la kwanza Mwaka wa Tatu Bei sh. 3,000/=	KISWAHILI Kitabu cha Kiswahili Mbinu za mawasiliano Mwezeshaji kundirika la kwanza Mwaka wa Tatu Bei sh. 4,000/=
STADI ZA KAZI Kitabu cha Stadi za Kazi kundirika la kwanza Mwaka wa Tatu Bei sh. 3,500/=	STADI ZA KAZI Kitabu cha Stadi za Kazi Mwezeshaji kundirika la kwanza Mwaka wa Tatu Bei sh. 4,000/=
MAARIFA YA JAMII Kitabu cha Maarifa kundirika la kwanza Mwaka wa Tatu Sh. 3,500/=	MAARIFA YA JAMII Kitabu cha Maarifa Mwezeshaji kundirika la kwanza Mwaka wa Tatu Sh. 4,000/=
ENGLISH English learner Book Cohort one	ENGLISH English Facilitator Book Cohort one year Three, price

year Three, price Sh. 3,000/=	Sh. 3,500/=
6. MUHTASARI WA MEMKWA KUNDIRIKA LA KWANZA	7. MUHTASARI WA MEMKWA KUNDIRIKA LA PILI
Muhtasari wa somo la Ujenzi wa Haiba Bei 1,000/=	Muhtasari wa somo la Ujenzi wa Haiba Bei sh. 1,000/=
Muhtasari wa somo la Hisabati Bei sh. 1,000/=	Muhtasari wa somo la Hisabati Bei sh. 1,000/=
Muhtasari wa somo la Stadi za Kazi Bei sh. 1,000/=	Muhtasari wa somo la Stadi za Kazi Bei sh. 1,000/=
Muhtasari wa somo la Maarifa Bei sh. 1,000/=	Muhtasari wa somo la Maarifa Bei sh. 1,000/=
Muhtasari wa somo la Mbinu za Mawasiliano: Kiswahili Bei sh. 1,000/=	Muhtasari wa somo la Mbinu za Mawasiliano Kiswahili Bei sh. 1,000/=
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Mafunzo ya Wawezeshaji wa MEMKWA: Bei Sh 1,000/=	
Tathimini ya MEMKWA: Bei Sh 1,200/=	
Mwezeshaji wa MEMKWA: Bei Sh 1,400/=	
Upimaji Mendeleo ya Mwanafunzi .: Bei Sh 1,800/=	

Source: <http://www.tie.go.tz/index.php/services/books-and-syllabuses-price-list-retrieved> on Wednesday, 19 September 2012

Appendix 27: A Sample of Biology Curriculum Content on Muscles and Movement

Functions of Human Skeleton

1. The human skeleton provides mechanical support for the body.
2. Protection for internal organs, e.g. skeleton of the head protects the brain while chest bones protect soft organs such as heart.
3. Skeleton functions as a frame work for anchoring the muscles.
4. Skeleton, together with muscles, function to bring about movement in an organism.

Muscles and Movement

The Structure of Muscles: It should be noted that, the skeleton alone cannot bring about movement. For skeleton to function well in bringing about movement, muscles must be involved. Muscles are made up of many elongated cells, known as *muscle fibres*, which can contract and relax. Muscles have a tendency of *elasticity*, that is, they can be stretched and shortened, and this habit helps in bringing about movement. When muscles are stretched, they elongate, and can return to their original position.

Activity 2.3: Types of Muscles

- In groups of two, observe charts/models/pictures of different muscles provided by your teacher.
- Identify the differences between the muscles you are observing.
- Draw and label the muscles you observed

Observation

Among the muscles you observed, some are found on the heart. These are cardiac muscles; some are attached to the bones, and yet some are smooth, such as those found on the stomach wall.

Types of Muscles

Muscles can be distinguished in terms of their location or structure.

1. **Skeletal muscles:** These are muscles which are attached to the bones. These muscles move the bones and, therefore, are responsible for our movement. Skeletal muscles contract and fatigue very quickly. They work under voluntary control.
2. **Cardiac muscles:** These are muscles found only in the heart. These muscles work against our wills, that is involuntary. They work all the time in the life of a human being.
3. **Smooth muscles:** These muscles are also called unstriated muscles. They are found in walls of organs of the body, such as bladder and stomach wall. Unlike skeletal muscles, smooth muscles contract slowly and fatigue slowly to allow movement of materials in the organs concerned. Since we are concerned with general movement in different organisms, we shall only discuss skeletal muscles in this chapter.

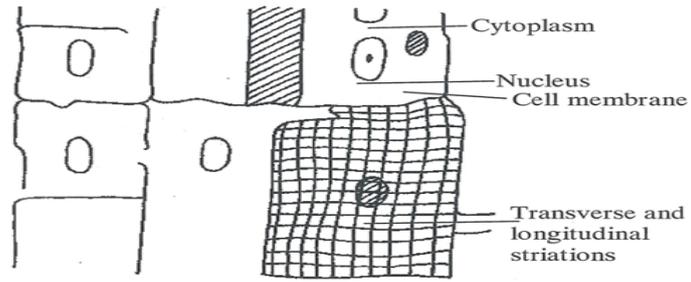


Figure: 2.12 Cardiac muscles

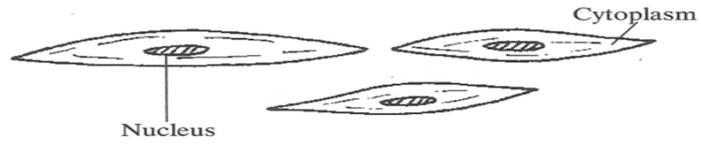


Figure: 2.13 Smooth muscles

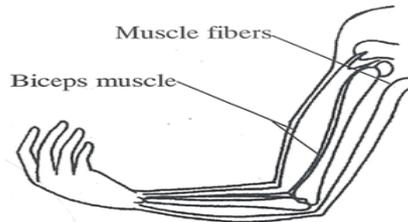


Figure: 2.14 Skeletal muscles

How are the skeletal muscles arranged, and what happens to these muscles so that movement occurs.

Activity 2.4: The Role of Muscles in Movements

Try to hold a weight on your arm. Straighten (extend) the arm horizontally, and then keep on folding and stretching it several times. What changes do you feel in the shape of the muscles? Muscles function by contraction and relaxation.

Two types of muscles work antagonistically (against each other) to bring about movement of the arm. When we bend or straighten our arms, the two types of muscles, called *biceps* and *triceps*, are involved. These two sets of muscles are located above and below the humerus. The muscles above the humerus are called *biceps* and those located below the humerus are called *triceps*. When the biceps contract and the triceps relax the lower arm is raised.

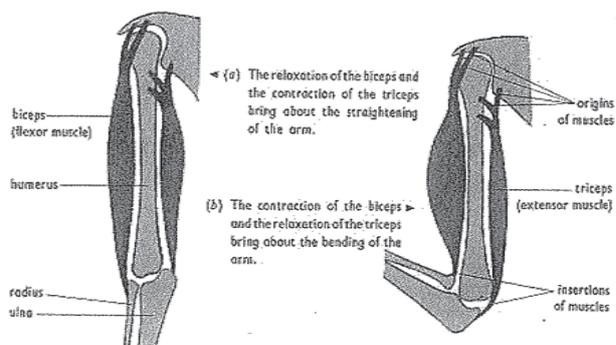


Figure: 2.15 Lowering and raising of the Arm

Contraction of Biceps: Remember, biceps and triceps muscles work antagonistically (in opposite direction) in order to cause movement. So, during contraction of biceps to raise the lower arm, the triceps relax and become elongated. When straightening the arm, the triceps muscles contract, while the biceps muscles relax.

This contraction is responsible for movement in the organism, or any work that needs to be done by organisms' body. Such a contraction requires ATP energy. So, ATP is involved in movement or doing work. The ATP (adenosine triphosphate) energy is derived (obtained) from the process of respiration. When muscles contract, ATP (adenosine triphosphate) is broken down to ADP, thus releasing energy to muscles.

Muscles are attached to both ends by strong inelastic fibres, called *tendons*. Active movements of any joints would be impossible without tendons. Tendons

attach bones or cartilage to muscles. Muscles cause tension (force) at their point of attachment during contraction. The locomotor organ moves as a result of tension (force exerted), since the other bone to which the muscles are attached is fixed. Therefore, as a result of such a process the whole body of an organism (animal) moves due to movement of the locomotor organ.

Adaptation of Muscles to their Roles

- Muscles possess muscle fibers which can contract and relax to allow movement.
- Muscles can store oxygen which can be used during vigorous exercises.
- They possess abundant mitochondria which help in providing energy required for contraction of muscles.

Muscle Cramps: A cramp within a muscle is an involuntary painful and prolonged contraction.

Causes of Muscle Cramp

A cramp can occur while muscles are in use or at rest. The precise cause of a cramp is unknown, but evidence indicates that they may be related to condition within the muscles, e.g. calcium or oxygen deficiencies or to stimulation of the motor neurone.

Application of heat may help to dilate the muscles and ease flow of oxygen in the cramped muscles.

Activity 2.5: Adaptation of Different Muscles to Their Roles.

- Collect different pictures/diagrams of different types of muscles (of fish, birds, man).
- Observe them carefully and identify their parts.
- In groups of two, discuss the adaptation of the types of muscles you have observed.

Adaptation of Different Muscles to Their Roles in Different Media

Generally, all skeletal muscles are more suited to their roles due to their elasticity that allows them to contract and relax so as to allow movement.

Muscles are also supplied with blood that takes oxygen which provides them with the energy to function. Utilization of ATP energy by muscles makes them function well.

Different organisms have managed to live and move in different environments (media), such as on land, in water, and in air due to presence of different muscles that are suited to such environment. Such organisms have different ways of movement. Birds move by flying, fish do swim and different animals move by walking, jumping and running.

Appendix 28: A List of Mostly Imported Marketised Basic Mathematics Textbooks

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Source: TIE 2011a

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**Appendix 29: A List of Mostly Marketised imported Biology Textbooks Referred
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Appendix 30: A List of Imported Biology Textbooks Referred in Teachers' Manual

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Appendix 31: A List of Mostly Imported Textbooks Referred in Teachers' Manual

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Appendix 32: Description of Participants (Except students)

Urban Government Secondary School (Urgova) participants

<i>Name</i>	<i>Position as interviewed</i>	<i>Gender</i>	<i>Age</i>	<i>Work experience (years)</i>
Hasani Iloto	Urgova headmaster	Male	48	22
Sulata Jackson	English teacher	Male	51	20
Kwasu Songani	Biology teacher	Male	48	17
Mwanne Karoli	Biology teacher	Female	42	17
Mosino Kababu	Maths teacher	Male	48	20
Alota Maira	Maths teacher	Female	27	8

Rural Government Secondary School (Rugosa) participants

Hosca Jembeli	Rugosa headmaster	Male	56	30
Maneno Mainata	Mathematics teacher	Male	52	25
Mura Okona	Basic Appl. Maths teacher	Male	40	13
Technolina Ayoub	Biology teacher	Female	43	18
Abubaka Balota	Biology teacher	Male	41	18
Estomina Kabisani	English teacher	Female	38	15

Urban Private Secondary School (Urpisa) participants

Matano Borato	Urpisa headmaster	Male	52	24
Mtunge Albano	Biology teacher	Male	57	32
Davisani Kabibi	English teacher	Female	39	14
Rutata Saimoni	Mathematics teacher	Male	33	8
Anoko Sayuni	Mathematics teacher	Male	26	6
Hapiseni Karibu	Biology teacher	Female	28	6

Appendix 33: Policy on Production and Distribution of School and College Books

True Copy



UNITED REPUBLIC OF TANZANIA

MINISTRY OF EDUCATION AND CULTURE

**POLICY ON
PRODUCTION AND DISTRIBUTION OF SCHOOL/COLLEGE BOOKS**

DECEMBER 1991

1. INTRODUCTION

- 1.1 This policy repeals circular No. EDTT/8/184 dated 1st august, 1970 of the Ministry of Education and culture titled “SALE OF TEXTBOOKS PRODUCED BY THE MINISTRY OF EDUCATION”.
- 1.2 The policy aims at transforming the Textbook Production and distribution to a complete commercialized system whereby the entire book provision would be marshalled by publishers.
- 1.3 This policy applies to preprimary, primary, secondary and teacher education levels.
- 1.4 This policy comes into effect from 1st January, 1992.

2.0 TRANSITION PERIOD:

- 2.1 This is a transformation period towards complete commercialization of Book Production and Distribution.

- 2.2 Time Frame:

This period will depend on how fast the various agencies which are the Institute of Curriculum Development (ICD), Publishers, the Ministry of Education and culture (MOEC) and the Prime Minister’s Office (PMO) organize themselves to manage the expected change.

- 2.3 Assignment for agencies:

During this period, the ICD will continue to prepare/manage manuscripts for most of the subjects while publishers would be contracted to prepare some on competitive basis.

Alternatively, the publisher might be contracted to revise a few titles which have already been in use in schools.

Finally, after publishers have acquired much experience in successful publishing and have improved financially they would be contracted to publish up to printing and marketing.

Distribution of textbooks would mainly continue to be undertaken by the government. The responsibility of distribution from Central Warehouses to District Warehouses would continue to be vested in the Prime Minister’s Office for primary education materials. However, the distribution of materials from the district Warehouses would continue to be the responsibility of District councils. The transportation of textbooks and other education materials would be done by transporters. Transporters would comprise public/parastatal and private

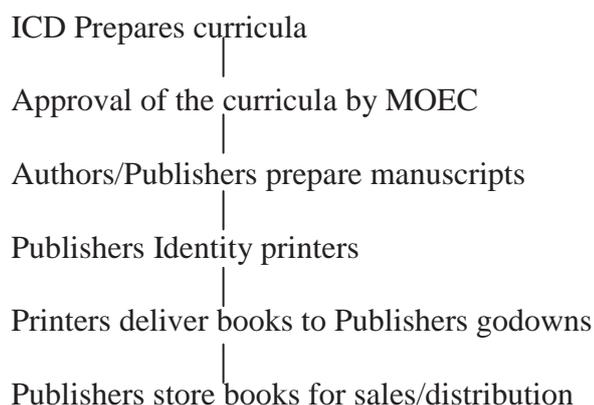
companies. These would compete through tender to be selected for rendering transport services.

3.0 LONG TERM POLICY:

3.1 The long term marks the commercial period of books production and distribution. During the period:-

- a) ICD will remain with the sole responsibility of Curriculum Development.
- b) The Government will have no direct involvement in actual book production and distribution. The government will simply recommend suitable titles for use in schools.
- c) Publishers will assume the entire activities of production and distribution, which include:
 - Author contracting
 - Editing, illustration, design etc.
 - Subcontracting of printing
 - Financing
 - Warehousing
 - Marketing
 - Sales
 - Distribution

d) The following will be the long term production model:



1.2 PLANNING PRODUCTION:

- a) Planning the preparation and development of textbooks would be the responsibility of each educational books publisher. The centralised planning of textbook production would no longer apply at this stage. Publishers in their own right would be expected to draw up both short and long term textbook production programmes for their respective firms. There would be as many textbooks development plans as there are interested local education books publishers.

- b) The role which is expected to be played by the MOEC is to provide materials for facilitating the book production. The most important raw material would be approved syllabuses. The MOEC would be expected to furnish publishers with copies of approved syllabus, together with information on policy changes so that they would have time to adjust themselves accordingly.

1.3 AUTHORSHIP:

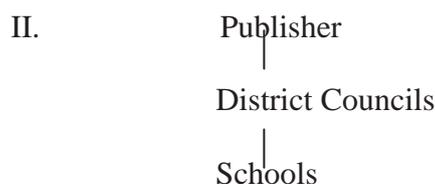
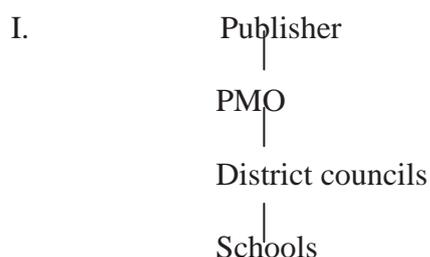
- a) This task would be open to all interested individuals and institutions (public and private). Individuals may write manuscripts and endeavour to find publishers. On the other hand commercial publishers would be expected to initiate manuscript writing through commissioning writers.
- b) Publishers normally tend to specialize into some subject areas, as such publishers in the long run must acquire such specialization.

1.4 PRINTING

Publishers would be responsible for buying printing services from printers. They would be expected to have professional skills to select the most appropriate printer for the type of printing jobs planned by the publisher. Consequently, publishers would contract a printer who would give a good price as well as be able to produce books of excellent finish. On the other hand printers would be faced with the challenge of competing for printing jobs from publishers.

1.5 DISTRIBUTION:

- a) The following model would operate:



Wholesalers/Retailers
|
District Councils
|
Schools

IV. Publisher
 |
 Wholesalers/Retailers
 |
 Schools

V. Publishers
 |
 Wholesalers/Retailers
 |
 Parents

- b) The models can be put to function simultaneously depending on various factors, mainly on the level of functioning of the district council, and the publishers together with Wholesalers and Retailers. The following are possible alternatives.
- ii) If the Publishers and district councils are strong, the latter can go/get supplies directly from the Publishers (model II). In that case the PMO will have nothing to do with distribution. Model I is currently in use because the district councils are very weak.
 - iii) When a stage is reached whereby Wholesalers/Retailers start establishing themselves, either independently or as part of the publisher's chain of activities, the District councils can get their supplies from the wholesalers/retailers directly (Model III).
 - iiii) If schools are under strong management and funds are managed directly by them, they can get the supplies directly from the Wholesalers/Retailers. At this stage the State (PMO and District councils) is not involved in the distribution of school materials (Model IV).
 - iv) Model V is not affected at all with what is happening in other models as long as Wholesalers/Retailers are well established. Therefore, the parents can buy school materials for their children even if the school (government) does the same.
 - iv) In other words, as the system matures, publishers would be responsible for warehousing, marketing and sales of books. It is envisaged that publishers would sell education materials directly to schools or would use agents e.g. bookshops. It is hoped that as the system develops, the bookshop network

would continue to expand to cover all townships – in the country. The role of the state in distribution will gradually disappear as the new system develops.

Appendix 34: Recommended English Language Books for Teacher Education Programme

References

Crystal, D and Davy, D. (1969). *Investigating English Style*: Longman, London U.K.

Crystal, D. (1987). *The Cambridge encyclopedia of Language*, Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, U.K.

Di Yanii, R. (1990). *Literature: Reading fiction, poetry, drama and the essay* (2nd ed.) McGraw – Hill, Inc. New York, USA.

Leech, G and Svartvik, J (1994). *A Communicative Grammar of English* (2nd ed): Longman, London, U.K.

Luvai, A. (1987). *Literature: Part One*: University of Nairobi, Kenya

Manning, A and Gardener, S. (1990). *Revision English*. Oxford University Press, Nairobi, Kenya.

Mbise, I. R. (1996)). *Creative Writing*, The Open University of Tanzania, Dar-es Salaam, Tanzania.

Othman, S. Y et al (2005). *Taking English skills further. An English proficiency course for university students*. Department of Foreign Languages and Linguistics. Dar es Salaam, Tanzania.
<http://www.pen.k12.va.us> 2003.

Source: (TIE, 2009b, p. 24)

Recommended English Language Marketised Textbook List for Teacher Education Diploma National Examinations 2009-2012

RECOMMENDED TITLES FOR NATIONAL EXAMINATIONS 2009-2012
For Diploma at Teacher Education Level:

Novels/short stories

1. N, Ndunguru, 2004, *Spared*, Mkuki na Nyota.
2. Osman Conteh, 2002, *Unanswered Cries*, Macmillan
3. Mapalala, B.M. 2006, *Passed Like a Shadow*, D.P
4. Kulet, H.R. Ok 1970, *Is it Possible?* Longman
5. Ngugi wa Thiongo, 1992, *A Grain of Wheat*, EAPH
6. Wright, R. 1964, *The Native Son*, New American Library.
7. Ousmane, S. 1970, *God's Bits of Wood*, Heinemann

Plays

1. Ruganda, J. 1986, *Echoes of Silence*, Heineman
2. Brecht, B. 1963, *The Caucasian Chalk Circle*, Methuen.
3. Miller, A. 1964, *The Death of a Salesman*, Heinemann.
4. Ngugi wa Thiongo, 1968, *The Black Hermit*, Heinemann
5. Mbia Oyono, 1974, *Three Suitors One Husband*, Eyre Muthuen
6. Ngugi wa Thiongo, 1962, *This Time Tomorrow*, Heinemann.

Poetry

1. Cook, D. et al. 1971, *Echoes of Silence*, Heinemann
2. Rubadiri, D. (ed) . *Growing up with Poetry*, Heinemann
3. P. Bitek, 1979, *Songs of Lawino and Ocol*, EAPH.]

Source: (TIE, 2009b, p. 25)

Appendix 35: A Reading List for Marketised Biology Diploma in Education Programme

Reading List

Barric, G. K., Berie, A. and Eze, J. M. (1990). *Tropical Plant Science*. Longman, Singapore.

Blomond, B. (1992). *AIDS: A Moral Issue*. Macmillan press Ltd.

Brown, G.D. and Creedy, J. (1970). *Experimental Biology Manual*. Heinemann Educat. London Wx 8AH.

Eames, J.A. and MacDaniels L.H. (1972). *An Introduction to Plant Anatomy*. Tata MC Graw-Hill.

Institute of Education (TIE) (1999). *Biology for Secondary Schools Book – IV*. Institute of Curriculum Development, Dar es Salaam

Johnson, R. and Godman, A. (1987). *Junior Tropical Biology*. Longman Singapore.

Legg, C. J. and Mackean D.G. (2000). *Advanced Biology Principles and Application 2nd Edition*. Wix 4BD, London.

Mackean, D.G. (2000). *GSCS Biology*. NW1 3BH 3rd Edition. London

Mckusick, V. A. (2005). *Human Genetics* Prentice Hall.

Rami Reeta, (1991). *Dictionary of Biology*. ANMOL, New Delhi. India.

Raven, P. H. and Johnson, G. B. (1986). *Biology*. MOSBY College. Toronto, Canada.

Roberts, (1986): *Biology Structure and Function*. London.

Taylor D. J., Green, N. P. O., and Stout, G. W. (1977). *Biological Science*. Cambridge University Press, London, U.K

Vines, A. E. and Rees. (1972). *Plant and Animal Biology*. 4th Edition Vol I and Vol II Longman Group Ltd, London, U.K.

Young, B. and Durston, S. (1991). *Primary Health Education*. Longman Group. Essex U.K.

Source: (TIE, 2009a, p. 23)