A critical analysis of the establishment, conceptualisation, design and curriculum component selection of Master of Education programmes at selected Tanzanian universities

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Maryam Khamis Ramadhan

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Abstract

There is a dearth of research on how the design and curriculum of a Master of Education (MEd) qualification for university-based teacher educators of prospective secondary school teachers may or may not contribute to the problem of poor secondary school learning outcomes in Tanzania. This qualitative study analyses the establishment, conceptualisation, design and curriculum components of selected MEd programmes with the purpose of identifying and explaining the conditions enabling and/or constraining the development of quality teacher educators. The research used a case study design to investigate how and why particular knowledge is privileged in two MEd programmes at two Tanzanian universities with a view to probing the relevance of the knowledge to teacher educators professional roles and practices.

The study used critical realism as an under-labourer to investigate power structures and the generative and causal mechanisms underlying the two MEd programmes. The study draws on aspects of Bernstein's theory as analytical tools to explain what emerges from the data. The data was collected from interviews, document analysis and observation, and analysed using thematic analysis, abductive and retroductive modes of inference.

The research revealed and explains how underlying structural and agential mechanisms have shaped the establishment, conceptualisation and curriculum design of the two MEd programmes. The findings revealed a strong relationship between constraints, including the lack of appropriate MEd design team and the inadequacy of resources and facilities, and the quality of MEd graduates. Such constrains are possible mechanisms associated with the agential actions of the top administrators affect the relevance and appropriateness of the MEd curriculum components, the effective lecturers transmission and students acquisition of knowledge and skills.

The research also explored how underlying mechanisms shaped the selection of course content and the privileging of certain types of teacher knowledge. These mechanisms include programme entry qualification, curriculum arrangement of core and elective courses, the lack of awareness of the knowledge and skills requisite for teacher educators' specialisation, and the absence of recontextualisation principles to guide appropriate selection and recontextualisation of the relevant teacher educator's courses. There is evidence that both MEd programmes have insufficient pedagogical knowledge and lack large components of academic content knowledge

of teaching. An emphasis on individual disciplinary education courses with strong boundaries between modules and topics, aimed at developing specific education specialisations, results in teacher educator professional knowledge being less developed. Furthermore the accumulation and repetition of inappropriate knowledge has resulted in these programmes being weak regions for teacher educators' professional fields of practice. This has implications for the quality of the secondary school teacher professional development courses on which these MEd graduates teach. It raises questions about the quality of the secondary school teachers being produced, and the extent to which this is contributing to the disappointing performance of Tanzanian schooling.

The study generates insights into the mechanisms and conditions constraining the development of quality teacher educators. These conditions include the domination of higher education by customer demand, weak university regulatory systems, and the autonomy of university administration in terms of programme approval and other academic operations. Some administrators and lecturers showed an understanding of what would enable quality teacher educator development in the MEd programme.

The findings of the research may help to strengthen and enhance quality assurance in the Master of Education programmes for teacher educators in Tanzania in ways that help develop quality secondary school teachers and improve school learning outcomes.

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Nature, Scope and Organisation of the Study

> If education is to contribute to the full realisation of the individual and a new model of development, teachers and other educators remain key actors. (UNESCO, 2015, p. 54)

1.1 Introduction

This research is a case study of two Master of Education programmes that prepare teacher educators who teach in teacher education programmes for school teachers. The study pays particular attention to how they were conceptualised and established, and to how design and curriculum content decisions were made. It examines whether the curriculum components, including the knowledge privileged in these programmes, enable or constrain the development of quality teacher educators. This chapter describes the background of the study and provides the research goals and questions, the rationale for the research, the context of the study, and an outline of the thesis.

1.2 Background to the study

The United Republic of Tanzania is located in eastern Africa. It is the largest of five East African Community (EAC) member countries, with an area of 945,000 km^2 (United Republic of Tanzania [URT], 2005a), and a population of 44,928,923 (according to the 2012 census, URT, 2013). The other four EAC countries are Kenya, Uganda, Burundi and Rwanda.

The United Republic of Tanzania was formed out of the union of two sovereign states, Tanganyika and Zanzibar. Tanganyika became a sovereign state on 9th December 1961 and became a Republic the following year. Zanzibar became independent on 10th December 1963 and the People's Republic of Zanzibar was established after the revolution of 12th January 1964. The two sovereign Republics formed the United Republic of Tanzania on 26th April 1964 (URT, 2005a).

Figure 1.1 The United Republic of Tanzania (URT, 2013, p. i)

Administratively, the United Republic of Tanzania comprises two governments; the Union government, which also oversees all matters on mainland Tanzania, and the Zanzibar Revolutionary Government, which has full autonomy on all aspects except on union matters that are spelt out in the Constitution of the United Republic. Higher education is one of those union matters (Tanzania Commission for Universities [TCU], 2009).

The year 1961 marked the beginning of efforts by the United Republic of Tanzania to improve access, equity and quality in school education (URT. Ministry of Education and Culture [MoEC], 1995; Vavrus, Bartlett & Salema, 2013). The country made it clear at independence that it was committed to providing quality education for all citizens at all school levels. The education system reviews and reforms occupied a central position in the process of improving the quality

of education provision (Al-Samarrai & Peasgood, 1998; Omari, 2002). But although initiatives such as supplying teaching and learning resources to schools, strengthening in-service teacher training programmes and reviewing school and teacher college curricula have been in place for decades, the issue of poor quality and resultant low learning outcomes in school education remains an on-going and as yet unresolved situation (Omari, 2002; HakiElimu, 2009).

Investigation into the quality and performance of school education in Tanzania has been well documented (Mmari, 1984; URT. MoEC, 2001; HakiElimu, 2007; HakiElimu, 2011; Dennis & Stahley, 2012; HakiElimu, 2012). Many primary school children finish seven years of primary education not knowing how to read, write or do arithmetic (see also Ndunguru, 1993; Mwinyipembe, 2004; Nyasigo, 2004; URT. MoEVT, 2012; Dladla & Moon, 2013). Almost half of the primary school leavers who enter lower secondary school fail to get even a secondary school certificate (National Examination Council of Tanzania [NECTA], 2012; HakiElimu; 2007; HakiElimu, 2012; Bartlett & Vavrus, 2013; URT, MoEVT, 2012). Of those few who succeed in higher secondary schools, many fail to get the minimum entry qualification to read for a higher education degree (TCU, 2012a; TCU, 2013; TCU, 2014a). The enrolment for undergraduate programmes in higher education institutions shows that there are not enough higher secondary school leavers to fill the available undergraduate degree slots (ibid.; Nyirenda, 2014).

Central to the learning of school children and the quality of their education are teachers (Chipa, 1983; Organisation for Economic Co-Operation and Development [OECD], 2005; Tao, 2013; Aslam & Kingdom, 2013). Many concerns have been raised by researchers, practitioners, and education stakeholders about the professional quality of school teachers in Tanzania (OECD, 2005; HakiElimu, 2008; HakiElimu, 2009; David, 2011; Kanisi, 2012; Dladla & Moon, 2013; Fidelis, 2013). Attempts to understand and redress the poor achievement of schools have tended to focus on teacher professionalism and teacher education (Paulo, 2012; OECD, 2006). If the quality of teachers is such an important factor in the learning and success of school children, then teacher educators should be regarded as equally important (Cochran-Smith, 2003; Liston, Borko & Whitcomb, 2008; Swennen & van der Klink, 2009). Indeed, the quality of school teachers has been linked to the quality and relevance of their teacher training by university-based teacher educators (Liston, et al., 2008; Goodwin & Kosnik, 2013; Goodwin, Smith, Souto-Manning,

Cheruvu, Tan, Reed & Taveras, 2014). To become a university-based teacher educator in Tanzania, one needs a Master of Education (MEd) degree.

In Tanzania, as in many other developing countries, short courses like seminars, symposiums and workshops to prepare teacher educators or, as they are called, Assistant Lecturers (ALs) and Tutors, are limited to non-existent. Instead, this function is fulfilled by the Master of Education (MEd) programmes, long, formal, professional development programmes.

Usually teacher educators in Tanzania are former school teachers. But the literature indicates that the demands of teaching teachers are different from school teaching (Ritter, 2007; Williams & Ritter, 2010; Loughran, 2014). The organisational context within teacher colleges and higher education institutions also differs from the school system (Dinkelman, Margolis & Sikkenga, 2006; Swennen, Shagrir & Cooper, 2009; Williams, Ritter & Bullock, 2012). Zeichner (2005) highlights the fact that the teacher educators' role is made even more demanding if there is little formal preparation (see also Swennen, et al., 2009). Buchberger, Campos, Kallos and Stephenson observe that "a number of problems of teacher education could arise from the fact that the whole issue of the education of teacher educators has been rather neglected" (Buchberger et al., as quoted by Korthagen, Loughran & Lunenberg, 2005, p. 110). Researchers agree that there are significant challenges in the teacher educator role associated with learning how to understand, effectively use and develop knowledge of practice in ways that can support student teachers' learning about teaching (Kane, 2007; Berry, 2009; Field, 2012).

This study involves analysis of the MEd programmes that one needs to complete in order to qualify as a teacher educator in Tanzania. Two programmes were selected: the oldest one, which gave me insight into how these programmes were when they started out in the country; and the first private MEd programme, which had to stop because of a shortage of applicants. Critical realism meta-theory was used as a basis for investigating the causal mechanisms behind the establishment, conceptualisation and design of these programmes. Bernstein's theory and concepts were employed to develop a language of description for analysing the curriculum components of the programmes. Critical realism was also used as a means to explore the generative mechanisms underlying the selection of these curriculum components.

The goal of the study was to uncover, identify and explain the conditions enabling and/or constraining the MEd programmes' development of quality teacher educators. In doing that, the study investigated what knowledge was privileged and how it was selected for the programmes. The following research questions framed the study:

1. How and under what conditions were the MEd programmes established, conceptualised and designed?
2. How and on what bases were the curriculum components of the MEd programmes selected?

I analysed the MEd curricula and course outlines, focusing on the various curriculum components (Posner, 2004), especially the nature of the knowledge that the courses embody and seek to impart. I also analysed education policies and university regulations, teacher educators' qualifications, duties and responsibilities, as well as the aims, objectives, roles and responsibilities of higher education. Interviews with programme lecturers, designers and administrators were also conducted to explore their actions and experiences in relation to what led to the MEd establishment. Interviews were also conducted to understand how the MEd programmes were conceptualisation, and how the design process as well as the selection of curriculum components happened. The study contributes to our understanding of how and why these programmes were conceptualised and designed the way they are, and the extent to which what is taught enables or militates against the development of quality teacher educators. In the section below, I narrate my personal experiences that inspired me to conduct the research, as well as other motives pertaining to the research topic.

1.3 Rationale for the study

The motivation to undertake the proposed research came from personal and professional experience. The personal interest started in 2006 when I was a student enrolled in a MEd programme at a Tanzanian university. During the course of my studies, I became increasingly dissatisfied with the programme's content, which I felt was not equipping me adequately to become a competent teacher educator. From the discussions I had with other students enrolled in this and other MEd programmes, I became aware that my perceptions and experiences were

similar to theirs. Curious, but at the same time wishing to balance my negativity with a more positive outlook, I decided to examine the course more closely.

In 2009, the Tanzania Commission for Universities (TCU) employed me as a Quality Assurance Officer. The TCU is responsible for approving university programmes and coordinating the admission of students to undergraduate programmes in all tertiary and higher education institutions in Tanzania. The professional motivation to undertake the study came after I became aware that the peer review process for approving university programmes (including the MEd programmes) was being conducted by the same people who, in one way or another, were involved in designing the programmes that were being approved. Consequently, there was little, if any, space for critical engagement with and evaluation of the programmes. I also observed that the overall enrolment in undergraduate programmes is low, with higher education and other tertiary institutions not receiving sufficient numbers of applicants (TCU, 2012a; TCU 2013; TCU 2014a). The reasons for low enrolments include the low learning achievement of higher secondary school students (HakiElimu, 2011; NECTA, 2012; URT. MoEVT, 2012). Many of them fail to meet the minimum requirements for acceptance into undergraduate programmes (TCU, 2012a; TCU 2013; TCU 2014a).

My assumption about the higher education system is that academically well-functioning educational institutions facilitate the development of well-functioning schools, which in turn facilitate effective learning and raise the overall quality of school education. This assumption may turn out to be without empirical foundation, however, as noted above, the literature reveals a widely held view that "quality teacher preparation depends on quality teacher educators" (Goodwin & Kosnik, 2013, p. 334; see also Cochran-Smith, 2003; Smith, 2005; Liston, et al., 2008; HakiElimu, 2009). I concur with this view, and argue that the MEd programmes (see a list in Appendix A) have an important role to play in ensuring that Tanzania produces quality teacher educators who are able to develop competent and skilled school teachers.

1.4 Context of the study

The education of teacher educators has a direct effect on the education of school teachers, which in turn affects the education of school children. Chapter Two presents a detailed discussion on the history of education and training in Tanzania and how it has influenced the nature of existing

tertiary institutions in general, and university programmes in particular. This section offers an overview of Tanzanian school teachers and teacher education and training in Teacher Colleges, to delineate their relation to university teacher education, specifically to the graduates of MEd programmes. The aim is to illuminate how these teacher educators influence the education of school teachers and school children.

1.4.1 School teachers and teacher education in Teacher Colleges

The teacher education department in the Ministry of Education manages the certificate and diploma programmes at Teacher Colleges (TCs). This enables the Ministry to plan for the preparation and supply of teachers to pre-primary, primary and secondary schools throughout the country (URT. MoEC, 1995, p. 45). The department is responsible for the provision and coordination of the primary, secondary and the teacher education programmes in the TCs. The Tanzania Institute of Education (TIE) is the organisation within the Ministry responsible for designing, developing, disseminating, monitoring and evaluating curriculum for pre-primary, primary and secondary schools, as well as for teacher education in the TCs (p. 51).

The Certificate in teacher education comprises two-year programmes for pre-primary and primary school teachers (MoEVT. Tanzania Institute of Education [TIE], 2009a). The entry requirement for these programmes is a Certificate of (Lower) Secondary Education Examinations (CSEE) (MoEVT. TIE, 2009a, p. 10). Tutors who have the Bachelor of Education degree teach the programmes (p. 23).

The Diploma in teacher education is a two-year programme for lower secondary school teachers (MoEVT. TIE, 2009b, p. 5; MoEVT. TIE, 2007a, p. 21). The Advanced Certificate of Secondary Education Examinations (ACSEE) is the entry requirement for the diploma programme (MoEVT. TIE, 2009b, p. 10). Tutors who teach these programmes are teacher educators with the Master of Education qualification (p. 17).

1.4.2 Importance of teacher educators

As indicated above, those who teach pre-primary and primary school teachers in TCs are tutors with a Bachelor degree qualification. It should be noted that these Bachelor of Education tutors are also teachers who teach advanced secondary school students (MoEVT. TIE, 2007b, p. 21).

Tutors who teach lower secondary school teachers in the TCs are teacher educators with Master of Education degrees. As noted in section 1.2, teacher educators who teach bachelor of education students in the universities are Assistant Lecturers (ALs) who also have the MEd qualification. Figure 1-2, below, shows the relation of ALs and tutors to the education of both school teachers and school children in Tanzania.

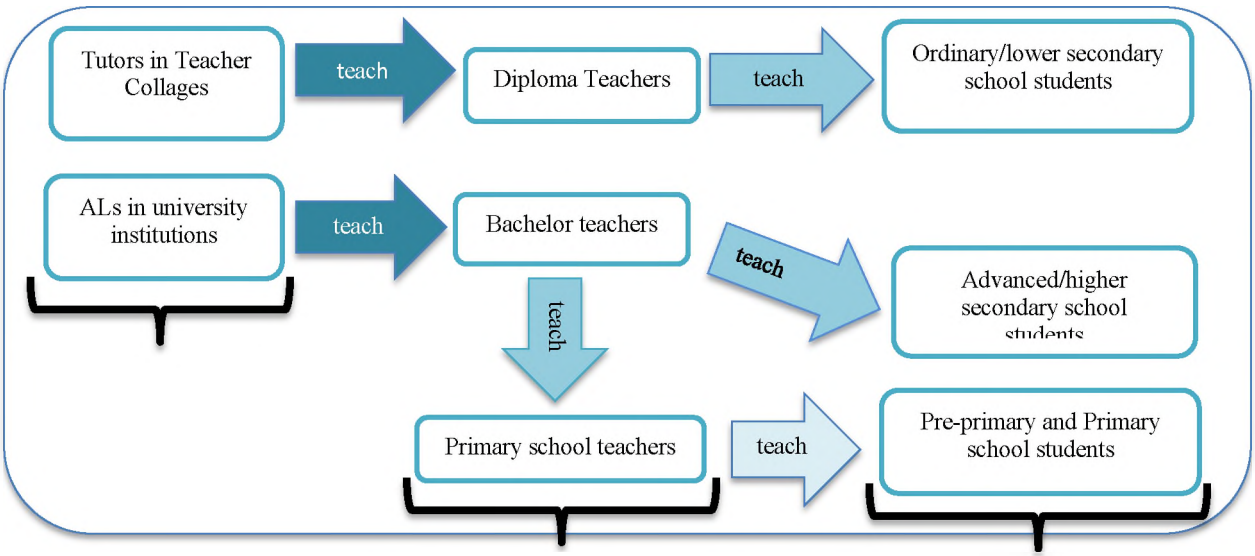

Figure 1.2 ALs and tutors and the teaching of school teachers and school children

The overall education and training system as depicted in the Figure above means that ALs and tutors in Tanzania play a central part in the teacher education and training system, as well as in school education. They are the main actors, entrusted with a fundamental role in the process of preparing and developing school teachers for the entire school system. The teaching profession thus subjects ALs and tutors to a double commitment: to the school teachers they teach and to their pupils (school children) (Ben-Peretz, Kleeman, Reichenberg & Shimoni, 2010, p. 119). Hence, they have to demonstrate the capacity simultaneously to cope with the demands of teaching and of training people to teach (Ben-Peretz, et al., 2010, p. 113; see also Guilfoyle, Hamilton & Pinnegar, 1997; Loughran, 2014). They are responsible for the quality of prospective school teachers and in this way they contribute to the overall quality of school education. Yet there is a noticeable silence about the preparation of teacher educators themselves. Indeed, teacher educators seem to be an under-researched group in Tanzania (see Chambulila, 2013). Little is known about teacher educators – how are they prepared, the structure and content of their preparation programmes, and what the experiences and perceptions are of those who teach these programmes.

Lunenberg, Korthagen & Swennen (2007) cite Howey and Zimpher (1990) to confirm that "little is known about the characteristics of teacher educators, in spite of the fact that they are the people who are perceived to be responsible for the quality of teachers" (p. 588). This seems to indicate that some careful attention to how teacher educators are prepared for their work is long overdue. Swennen et al. (2009) declare that "novice teacher educators are often good teachers…but they may lack the knowledge that is needed to be good teachers of teachers" (p. 93). In other words, the knowledge and skills of a good teacher do not necessarily qualify him or her to be a teacher educator. An in-depth analysis of the MEd programmes will contribute to an understanding of the knowledge privileged for teacher educators in these programmes, and of the extent to which this knowledge influences or does not influence the effective teaching of school teachers.

In Chapter Five, Section 5.4.1, I present the two MEd cases that I set out to study and sketch the scenario that led to this. In the next section, I provide a brief outline of the thesis.

1.5 Outline of chapters

In Chapter Two, I describe the historical background of higher education in Tanzania and the challenges faced by education in Tanzania since independence. I describe the development of university institutions before and after the 1995 Education and Training Policy. This includes the establishment of private universities, the diminished role of the university regulatory bodies and the impact of this on the quality of university education. The chapter also provides an outline of the context of the two selected MEd programmes and discusses the issue of programme review in universities.

Chapter Three starts with a discussion of quality criteria in higher education institutions, including the quality of programmes and graduates, and extends this to the roles of universities in contextualising and designing teacher education programmes. The notion of effective curriculum design for quality teacher education programmes is explored in some detail. The chapter also discusses the standards, competences, roles, functions and needs of teacher educators. What are dubbed the 'what' and the 'how' of teacher education are comprehensively handled. The chapter also discusses instructional strategies and practices for teacher educators, and noting the scarcity of research on teacher educators' preparation programmes in the country.

Chapter Four presents the study's theoretical frameworks. Having selected critical realism as a meta-theory to enable understanding of the causal mechanisms underlying the nature of the MEd programmes, I focus on the theory's ontological depth and philosophical stance on the nature of reality, "emergence", the three levels of reality, and interrelations between structure and agency. I summarise the discussion on critical realism by redefining the study's research questions in the idiom of critical realism, before explaining my choice of Bernstein's theory and concepts to cover the limitations of critical realism. I describe how Bernstein's pedagogical device, classification and framing provided a theoretical language for analysing the curriculum components of the MEd programmes, focusing on the knowledge that these programmes contain relevant to the development of teacher educators' professional practice.

Chapter Five focuses on the research methodology. The chapter presents arguments for adopting a qualitative research approach and case study design. It describes the methods that I used to collect data, how I collated and analysed the data, and how I handled issues of validity and research ethics. Critical realist philosophical perspectives guided the choice of the qualitative research methods and tools that I used in collecting and analysing data for the study, as well as how I engaged with ethical issues and the issue of validity.

Chapters Six and Seven discuss the findings with regard to the first and the second research questions, respectively. Chapter Six discusses conditions underlying the establishment of the MEd programmes and the principles underpinning the design of the curricula and the determination of quality requirements for teacher educators. This includes investigation into how decisions were made about the design process and who was to be involved in it.

Chapter Seven discusses the findings of the analysis of the MEd curriculum components, describing how they were selected in relation to teacher educators' roles and needs. It focuses on exploring conditions underlying the selection of these components. Chapter Eight concludes the study by synthesising the main findings concerning the conditions that enable and/or constrain the MEd programmes' development of quality teacher educators. The lessons learned from the research study are identified.

Chapter Two

Overview of (Higher) Education in Tanzania

2.1 Introduction

In this chapter, I describe and contextualise the development of education in Tanzania. The chapter starts with an overview of education in pre-independence times. This includes a brief discussion of the pre-colonial and colonial periods, and of the reforms that took place after independence and their consequences for the quality of education. I then outline the history of the provision of higher education in Tanzania. This has changed over the years, to now include private higher education institutions and regulatory bodies. I also discuss the nature of university institutions and the challenges that affect the quality of university education. I give a brief overview of university programmes before focusing on the two Master of Education programmes that are investigated in this study. Finally I broach the issue of the quality of university programmes in relation to the way they are approved and reviewed.

Table 2.1, below, summarises the five periods in the history of Tanzanian education namely pre-colonial and colonial which fall under pre-independence key period, and pre-reform, during education reform, and the period after the implementation of the 1995 policy which fall under post-independence key period. Key activities and developments, the sector affected, emergent issues associated with each period, and the relevance of these periods to this study are discussed thereafter.

Table 2.1 Summary of the chapter structure

Key periods	Period	Significant events
Pre-independence: Education before independence	Pre- colonial	Learning from community based activities, no formal school education
	Colonial	Formal school education begins, focus on primary, limited secondary and no higher education Education for colonial expatriate work force
Post-independence: Education after independence	Pre-reform 1961-1967	New Education Act in 1962 to strengthen school, begin higher education and abolish racial discrimination in education provision - School education still producing mostly colonial expatriate work force Establishment of the University College of Dar es Salaam
	During education reforms 1967-1995	Focus on increasing school enrolment and developing/strengthening higher education: - Education for Self-Reliance policy - School curricula review to meet national needs - Establishment of University of Dar es Salaam - Access and equity in education - Poor quality and increasing dropout rate - Structural adjustment programme
	Tanzania Education after 1995 policy 1995-2012	- Establishment of 1995 Tanzania Education and Training Policy (TETP) - Establishment of school education Sector Development Plans - Establishment of private university institutions - Establishment of university regulatory bodies and higher education policy

2.2 Education before independence

Before colonialism, education in Tanzania was community based, informed by and focused on productive work and activities like hunting, fishing, and learning about nature and natural calamities (Dhiman, 2008). Every member of the society shared and taught the knowledge. Children learned such life activities by direct participation in the day-to-day life of the community and in an informal way from the more experienced members of the community. Children also learned appropriate behaviour, morals and social values from their parents, focusing on building good citizenship and life skills (History of Education in Tanzania, n.d.).

During colonialism, access to basic education in Tanzania was difficult, with wide inequities in terms of race, region and gender (Al-Samarrai & Peasgood, 1998; URT. MoEC, 1995). In the late 1800s Tanganyika (as it was known before Union in 1964) became a colony under German control, and the first government schools were established in 1893 (History of Education in Tanzania, n.d.). There was very limited educational development in Tanganyika under German rule, for almost 30 years until World War I (Vavrus et al., 2013).

When war broke out in 1914, German troops in Tanzania were defeated by British troops. This caused the fall of the entire education system (History of Education in Tanzania, n.d.). The British took over the administration of Tanganyika from the end of World War I, and shortly after, the government education system resumed with the first Director of Education being appointed in 1920 (ibid.). There was gradual institutional upgrading of government schools, mainly primary, to extend beyond Standard Four education (Vavrus et al., 2013). The main goal of schooling was to produce a Tanzanian colonial expatriate work force.

Although the opportunities for formal education expanded over the four decades of British rule, inequality was entrenched through the existence of schools exclusively for Africans, Europeans and Asians who were Indians, Pakistanis, Goans, and Arabs. European schools were the best provided for in terms of teachers, facilities and funding, while African schools were the worst off (Omari, 2002; Vavrus et al., 2013). In 1947, less than ten percent of the school-age population was enrolled in primary school, and at secondary level, less than one percent was enrolled, and no females had ever progressed beyond the primary level (Al-Samarrai & Peasgood, 1998). This

implies that informal education still played an important role in Tanzania during the colonial period.

2.3 Education after independence (1961-1967)

After independence in 1961, Tanzania experienced infrastructural problems in many sectors, and one of the worst affected was education. Because of the neglect of formal education by the German and British colonial regimes, the country which then had a population of 10.37 million people (World Bank. Tanzania Population, n.d.) had only fourteen university graduates, with fewer than 17,000 students enrolled in secondary schools, and 525,000 in primary schools (Omari, 2002; Vavrus et al., 2013). Because of this early deficit, education has long been a source of pride for independent Tanzania (OECD, 2002). The fact that a well-educated population is essential to a country's economic and social development (OECD, 2012; World Bank, 2012a) is probably the main reason why Tanzania, immediately after the independence, prioritised the strengthening of school and university education. Education was planned to expand in line with work force requirements, as local people were trained for the public sector in order to replace the colonial expatriate work force (Omari, 2002). The aim was to regulate the provision of education by creating a basic education system appropriate for emerging Tanzanian citizens (Al-Samarrai & Peasgood, 1998).

2.3.1 Formal school post-independence

The government passed the Education Act in 1962 that repealed and replaced the 1927 colonial Education Ordinance. The new Act was intended to abolish racial discrimination in the provision of education; to streamline the curriculum, examinations and the administration and financing of education to provide for uniformity; and to promote Swahili as a national language. The Act declared Swahili to be the medium of instruction in primary schools, and English in secondary schools. It placed responsibility for the construction of primary schools and the provision of primary education in the hands of local authorities and communities, at the same time establishing Unified Teaching Services for all teachers. (URT. MoEC, 1995, p. i; see also Vavrus et al., 2013).

2.3.2 Higher education post-independence

It is no doubt the fact that "higher education helps to ensure the development of a highly educated population and labour force" (Hénard, 2010) that motivated Tanzania to establish the University College of Dar es Salaam immediately after independence in 1961. It was established as an affiliate college of the University of London. The college began with one faculty, the faculty of Law, and thirteen students (Mkude, Cooksey & Levey, 2003; University of Dar es Salaam (UDSM). Background, n.d.).

In an effort to distance itself from colonial influence, the Tanzanian government changed the status of the University College of Dar es Salaam from an affiliate college of the University of London to a constituent College of the University of East Africa in 1963. The University of East Africa was a regional university for the three East African countries of Kenya, Tanzania and Uganda. It comprised the University College in Dar es Salaam, Makerere University College in Uganda and Nairobi University College in Kenya. This marked the initial growth phase of higher education in East Africa and in Tanzania in particular.

To affirm its commitment to higher education, the newly built headquarters of the government ruling party was given to the college. It was evident that the college, though owned by the government, had full autonomy in determining admission qualifications, course and programme content and structure, as well as assessment criteria. The college moved to its own building in 1964 (Mkude et al., 2003).

While the college was part of the University of East Africa, its education system, for the first ten years of independence, was still in line with the British Commonwealth education system. For example, the entry requirement was based on high school performance, and courses and programmes were designed and packaged in ways similar to those of other Commonwealth universities. The college academic year followed the three-term system of ten to eleven weeks for each term, and the evaluation tools were term papers and final exams (Mkude et al., 2003).

2.4 Educational reforms (1967-1980s)

Despite the new Education Act of 1962, education in Tanzania was still producing mostly elite students for white-collar jobs (Omari, 2002). From the year 1967, the government decided to take action to resolve the situation through the introduction of a new philosophy of education and

others educational reforms. The following sections discuss the emergent issues associated with school and higher education reform in the period 1967 to 1980, as summarised in Table 2.2, below:

Table 2.2 Educational reforms 1967-1980s

Period	Activities and the sector affected	Emergent issues and challenges
Education reforms in school education		
1967	Establishment of philosophy of Education for Self-Reliance (ESR) aimed at school curriculum reform. Review of school education: - to reduce regional, ethnic and racial discrimination - to promote socialist values - to integrate theory into self-reliance activities e.g. agriculture, brick making. Establishment of Arusha Declaration: - to stress the implementation of ESR philosophy	- Reforms in school curricula in order to meet national needs. - More emphasis was given to the provision of primary education by introducing UPE. - Post-Primary Technical Centres (PPTCs) were introduced. - Teacher training programmes were expanded. - Multi-purpose Folk Development Colleges (FDCs) were introduced as part of the post-primary training programmes. - Abolition of foreign examinations and the introduction of National Examinations in the formal school system. - Formalisation of continuous assessment at secondary and teacher education levels in the examination system. - Work made an integral part of education. - Primary and secondary education was made terminal and relevant to the needs of the country. - Diversification of secondary schools (Forms 1-4). - Adult literacy and education were given more prominence and financial support. - Voluntary agency schools were nationalised. - Registration and licencing of teachers made mandatory. - The establishment of Regional and District Appeals Boards. - Empowering the Commissioner of National Education to approve fees for public and private schools. - Empowering the Minister for Education to prohibit the use of certain books in schools. - Empowering the Minister for National Education to make regulations for the better carrying out of the provisions and objectives of the Act.
1969	New Education Act: - to eradicate the remnants of the race-based and religious school system by nationalising all private and denominational schools	
1970s-1980s	School and teacher education National Examinations Council of Tanzania (NECTA) in 1973: - to introduce national examinations - to formalise Continuous Assessment - to grant national certificates for school and teacher education.	
	The Institute of Adult Education in 1975: - to provide knowledge and skills to a large population of adults and out-of-school children who did not receive school education.	
	The Institute of Education converted to Tanzania Institute of Education 1975: - to design, develop, test, disseminate, monitor and evaluate, review and revisit curricula at pre-primary, primary, secondary and teacher training levels.	
	Universal Primary Education (UPE) and the Musoma Resolution in 1974. Emphasis on provision of primary education. The objective of UPE was to reach 100% primary enrolment rate for children aged 7 to 13 by 1989. - School fees at the primary level were abolished in 1973. - UPE also contributed to primary school curricula reforms to meet national needs.	
Educational reforms and higher education		
1970s	Establishment of the University of Dar es Salaam: - The government incorporated the university into its central planning and controlled the university's operations, including admission criteria through the Musoma Resolution: entry to university is after one year of national service.	- Low University enrolment due to Musoma Resolution requirement and UPE emphasis. - University VC became a governmental post. - Government pressed for university curriculum review to orient to Tanzanian needs. - Practical field training for professional programmes was initiated.

2.4.1 Schooling reforms

There was no significant achievement in education until 1967, when the philosophy of Education for Self-Reliance (ESR) was introduced to guide the planning and practice of education (URT. MoEC, 1995). This philosophy emphasised the need for curriculum reform in order to integrate theory with the acquisition of practical life skills. It also advocated coordination between education plans and practices and national socio-economic development, the world of work (OECD, 2002; URT. MoEC, 1995). Reviewing school education was also aimed at reducing regional, ethnic and racial inequalities (Vavrus et al., 2013). ESR sought to direct education to inculcate socialist attitudes and the values of cooperation and the sharing of appropriate skills, to enhance rural community affinities and economic productivity. The curriculum was changed to include and integrate theory and practical skills (Omari, 2002). In this context, economic activities intended to promote self-reliance were introduced at the primary school level. All pupils had to participate in school activities (e.g. agriculture, brick making) designed to promote the acquisition of skills relevant for self-employment in both the rural and the urban sector (Al-Samarrai & Peasgood, 1998).

The practice-based primary curriculum, which was introduced following the Arusha Declaration of 1967 and the promulgation of ESR policy, encouraged each school to contribute to its own upkeep through income-raising activities on the farms and in the workshops where practical skills were taught (Al-Samarrai & Peasgood, 1998). This indeed turned out to be a way for schools to generate badly needed income (OECD, 2002).

In an attempt to eradicate what survived of the race- and religion-based school system, the government introduced the 1969 Education Act that nationalised all denominational schools, placing them under the Ministry of National Education. This empowered the Minister to make regulations for the easier carrying out of the provisions and objectives of the Act. With these powers, the government managed to nationalise private schools, establish a national system of education for all schools at all levels to operate under centralised education system, and developed a quota system that helped challenge inequality geographically (URT. MoEC, 1995; Omari, 2002; Vavrus et al., 2013). The government also centralised the training of teachers at government teacher colleges, and combined education courses with socialist policies (Vavrus et al., 2013).

Between 1970 and 1978, the government took several steps and enacted several laws to legalise its actions. These laws and steps included the establishment of the National Examinations Council of Tanzania (NECTA) under Act No. 21 of 1973, Universal Primary Education (UPE) and the Musoma Resolution in 1974, the Institute of Adult Education Act No. 12 of 1975, and the Institute of Education Act No. 13 of 1975 (URT. MoEC, 1995; Omari, 2002).

The function of NECTA was to abolish foreign examinations and introduce national examinations in the formal school system, as well as formalising Continuous Assessment at secondary and teacher education levels (Bartlett & Vavrus, 2013). NECTA is also responsible for granting certificates for primary and secondary education, and certificates and diplomas for teacher education in teacher colleges.

The Institute of Adult Education was established to provide knowledge and skills to a large population of adults who had not attended school, and to out-of-school children for their self-fulfilment and active participation in the socio-economic and political life of their communities. Adult literacy and education were given more prominence, with financial support to run on-going, non-formal education programmes for adults, with a special emphasis on rural communities (UN Chronicle, 2007).

The Institute of Education was first founded in 1963 by Act of Parliament, under control of the University College of Dar es Salaam which was then still an affiliate college of the University of London and a constituent of the University of East Africa. In 1975, parliament legally disengaged the Institute from the University of Dar es Salaam and made the Tanzania Institute of Education (TIE) a state corporation. TIE is now a parastatal organisation under the Ministry of Education, charged with responsibility for ensuring the quality of education in Tanzania at the pre-school, primary, secondary and teacher training levels. It is also responsible for interpreting government policy on education and turning it into programmes to provide quality education at pre-primary, primary, secondary and teacher education levels. As part of this, the Institute is responsible for designing, developing, testing, disseminating, monitoring and evaluating, reviewing and/or revising curricula at pre-primary, primary, secondary, special education and teacher training levels.

By introducing Universal Primary Education (UPE) in 1974, the government aimed to place more emphasis on the provision of primary education (UN Chronicle, 2007). The objective of UPE was to reach 100% primary enrolment rate for children aged 7-13 by 1989 (OECD, 2002). Primary schooling was to expand gradually to achieve the UPE objective, a policy supported by the decision to abolish school fees at primary level in 1973.

Other changes in schools and in the education system generally included reforms in school curricula in order to meet national needs: that is, primary and secondary education was made appropriate and relevant to the needs of the country. Other changes included the prohibition by the Minister for National Education of the use of certain books in schools, especially those that were not related to perceived national needs. Other changes included the establishment of Post-Primary Technical Centres (PPTCs) and multi-purpose Folk Development Colleges (FDCs) to offer post-primary training programmes, the expansion of teacher training programmes, and making mandatory the registration and licencing of teachers (URT. MoEC, 1995).

2.4.2 Educational reform and higher education

After the establishment of the University College of Dar es Salaam, the second higher education growth phase came about in 1970 when the college was transformed into an autonomous university, the University of Dar es Salaam. This followed a decision by the three East African countries to establish a national university in each country by dissolving the regional university, the University of East Africa. The University of Dar es Salaam (UDSM) was established through the parliamentary Act no. 12 of 1970 as the first national university (UDSM. Background, n.d.).

The government incorporated the university into its central planning, persuaded by the idea that higher education ensures the development of a highly educated population and contributes to the fight against poverty, ignorance and disease (OECD, 2002; Mkude et al., 2003). Government influence on the university included controlling its admission criteria through the Musoma Resolution. This involved abolishing direct entry from school into university in an attempt to orient secondary school leavers to national service and to the world of work for several years (Omari, 2002; Mkude et al., 2003). Thus university entry through the Musoma Resolution for secondary school leavers involved one year of national service followed by a minimum of two years of work before admission (Mkude et al., 2003). Together with the Musoma Resolution, the

government's power over the university was extended to include the appointment of the former executive secretary of the ruling party to the Vice-Chancellor post (Mkude et al., 2003; see also TCU, 2016). The government also directed the university to transform the Commonwealth-oriented curriculum into a curriculum that spoke to the need of Tanzanian people, and introduced practical field training for professional programmes such as education and engineering (Mkude et al., 2003).

2.4.3 Successes and challenges

The educational reforms implemented by the government from 1967 had both positive and negative repercussions for the education and training system of the country, a system severely affected by the economic instability the country faced in the 1980s. In the following sections, I discuss the successes – such as enhanced educational access and equity – that resulted from the implementation of the reforms, as well as the challenges of enrolment and quality of education services and provision. These are summarised in Table 2.3, below.

Table 2.3 Summary of successes and challenges experienced in school and higher education provision, 1970s-1980s

Educational reforms 1970s to 1980s	Success	Challenges
• UPE • Musoma Resolution	• Access of education to all, regardless of race, sex, and ethnic or religious affiliation at all level of education • Achievement of UPE objective of increasing enrolment by 93% in 1978	• Failure of UPE to retain the huge primary enrolment and to maintain standards and quality of primary education due to economy deterioration • Primary school enrolment dropped to 51% in 1991 • School dropout rate increased due to the poor quality of the primary school leavers • Secondary school enrolment dropped • No significant increase in university enrolment due to Musoma Resolution requirement • Long period of higher education stagnation
• Structural adjustment programme	**School education:** • Introduction of cost-sharing including school fees from the primary level onward • Adoption of less costly theory-based assessments in schools and national exams • Reduction of expenditure on education and teacher recruitment, which led to: - shortage school teaching and learning materials - shortage of teachers • Extensive privatisation including the establishment of private primary and secondary schools, which led to: - rising fees at primary and secondary levels - low enrolment - increase in dropout rate • Continued decline primary school enrolment as a result of poor quality education services **Higher education:** • Reducing the length of coursework and practical field training for university student teachers • Little practical experience for university graduates	

2.4.3.1 Access and equity to school and higher education

Table 2.3 above shows that one of the successes of Tanzanian education is its achievement of equity. Boys and girls, poor and rich, Muslims, Christians and children of every ethnicity are in the same schools and institutions at all levels of education (Omari, 2002). Likewise, making education more accessible to girls by increasing the number of girls at almost all levels of education and training was commendable, especially in primary and secondary schools where girls comprised over forty-five percent of enrolment (see also Vavrus et al., 2013).

The increase in access to education, especially at primary level, was a remarkable achievement of Universal Primary Education (UPE) in the 1970s. While the actual enrolment in 1970 was 33%, even by 1974 Tanzania had the capacity to enrol only 55% of the total number of school-age children. The 1974 Musoma Resolution declared primary education compulsory, universal and terminal. By 1978, 93% of eligible children were enrolled in Standard One (URT. MoEC, 1995; Omari, 2002). Tanzania had one of the highest literacy rates in Africa, reaching 98% by the mid-1980s (UN Chronicle, 2007). In an attempt to maintain this creditable situation, in 1978 the government passed an Education Act that made primary enrolment and attendance between the ages of 7 and 13 compulsory. Failure to obey this Act led to some parents being fined and even imprisoned (Al-Samarrai & Peasgood, 1998).

2.4.3.2 Enrolment and quality of school and higher education provision

The Universal Primary Education initiative was particularly commendable as the country achieved enrolment of over 90% in the late 1970s. The UPE objective of increasing the number of students enrolled in primary education required a commensurate increase in the number of educational facilities. The concern was then to retain the huge enrolment and to maintain standards. However, political and economic conditions in the country did not support the aspirations of UPE (Vavrus et al., 2013). The ability of the state to build additional classrooms, to train and pay additional teachers, and to provide adequate learning material was limited, especially as the general economic situation in the country started to deteriorate. The economic problems were triggered by increased oil prices, high levels of debt servicing, drought and overall poor economic performance (UN Chronicle, 2007). The issue of quality in primary schooling became a major concern (Al-Samarrai & Peasgood, 1998). After the early achievements, enrolment rates in primary schools suffered during the 1980s financial crisis (Al-

Samarrai & Peasgood, 1998; OECD, 2002; Vavrus et al., 2013). Enrolment began declining in 1981, reaching its lowest in absolute numbers in 1987. The net enrolment rate was only 51% in 1991 (Al-Samarrai & Peasgood, 1998).

At the same time, the country faced the challenge of attempting a similar expansion at secondary level, but this was not achieved. Despite a small rise in the absolute numbers of secondary school enrolees, the percentage of Standard 7 leavers continuing to secondary school fell from 19% in 1967 to 7% in 1980 and to only 3% in the early 1980s (Knight & Sabot, 1990; Vavrus et al., 2013). This was caused by the increase in dropout rates in primary schools (OECD, 2002).

According to Chandra and Sharma (2004), Tanzania saw the advantages of formal education, in that it can be provided scientifically and consistently to a large number of children simultaneously. The dramatic and rapid expansion at primary level, however, combined with declining national economic performance and constrained government finance had detrimental consequences in terms of education quality (Al-Samarrai & Peasgood, 1998; OECD, 2002; see also Dennis & Stahley, 2012). Formal education has the advantage of being uniformly available to a large number of people, but it also has the downside that it can become so isolated from reality that it hinders rather than helps the children to realise their goals (Chandra & Sharma, 2004). This was in fact what happened in Tanzanian education: parents began to complain of illiterate primary graduates, the benefits of schooling were questioned, enrolment rates declined and dropout rates increased.

In the case of higher education, the University of Dar es Salaam (UDSM), although the only university in Tanzania then, was able to satisfy the higher level human resource training needs of the country due to a low demand for higher education throughout the 1970s and early 1980s. The minimal growth in higher education during that period was the result of the policy of Universal Primary Education (UPE), which put more emphasis on developing primary education. Growth in higher education was hampered even further by the Musoma Resolution requirement. The condition that secondary school leavers spend at least two years in employment before entering university education wasted valuable time for the youths and de-motivated them. The result was that enrolment at UDSM increased only slightly, and in subsequent years higher education in Tanzania was virtually stagnant. UDSM was the only university in Tanzania for over 20 years.

In an effort to address the economic crisis, the government in 1985 turned towards more free market policies, adopting a structural adjustment programme (Al-Samarrai & Peasgood, 1998; UN Chronicle, 2007; Vavrus et al., 2013). This programme had a negative impact on the country's school and higher education systems, as well as on the social and economic systems, as described below.

2.4.3.3 Structural adjustment programme and its consequences

Measures adopted in terms of this programme included limiting government expenditure, freezing the recruitment of teachers, reducing overall spending on education, retrenchments in the civil service, and the introduction of a user fee for civil services, or cost sharing, which included school fees from the primary level onward (Vavrus et al., 2013). A system of less costly theory-based assessments in schools and national exams was also adopted (Vavrus et al., 2013). These measures had a number of consequences for the country's political, economic, and educational systems, including major currency deflation, a shortage of teaching and learning materials, non-maintenance of schools' infrastructure, discontinued classroom construction, low performance in national examinations, dilapidated buildings, an uncomfortable learning environment, as well as a shortage of teachers (UN Chronicle, 2007). Cost sharing affected the education system, especially by denying education to orphans and children from low-income families, who could not afford to pay school fees and other mandatory contributions (ibid.).

The structural adjustment programme also involved extensive privatisation. In 1986, the government allowed communities, religious organisations and Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs) to establish private secondary schools (OECD, 2002; Omari, 2002). In 1993, pre-primary schools and teachers' education were also liberalised. Until 1995, no for-profit organisation was allowed to run a primary school. This ban was lifted by the 1995 Act that introduced for-profit private primary schools (OECD, 2002).

New private schools accounted for a very small share of primary education provision in Tanzania. In 1998, there were only 33 out of the 11, 339 primary schools in the country (OECD, 2002). In contrast, at the secondary level, about half of the schools were privately owned (OECD, 2002). The proportion of secondary school enrolees rose to about 15% by the early 1990s, following a change in policy regarding restrictions on the private/NGO sector in the mid-

1980s. In consequence, the percentage of Form 1 pupils in non-government secondary schools rose from 43% in 1980s to 60% in 1992 (Al-Samarrai & Peasgood, 1998). Geo-Jaja (2004) claims that "the private sector lacks both the ability and the motivation to subsidise the costs of education, thus denying education to children from low-income families and blocking their inter-generational mobility socially, economically and politically" (p. 309). As could have been expected, parents in Tanzania faced rising costs at both primary and secondary levels of schooling. The drop in primary school attendance from the 93% peak of the late 1970s was continuing. Low enrolments, high dropouts and a decline in completion rates continue to characterise the primary education system (Al-Samarrai & Peasgood, 1998; UN Chronicle, 2007). The net enrolment rates declined to 67.6% in 1985 (UN Chronicle, 2007). In addition, a large section of the population could not afford the cost of private secondary education (OECD, 2002). Secondary school enrolments had been increasing in absolute numbers but remained below 7% of the population (ibid.). As enrolment declined, the introduction of school fees, which aimed to satisfy the funding needs of schools, left many of them without adequate financial resources (Vavrus et al., 2013).

The emphasis of the structural adjustment programme on allocating resources to productive economic enterprises also forced the government to reduce and limit the financial resources allocated to higher education. This affected higher education institutions' ability to sustain the academic standards and cater for students' welfare (TCU, 2016). For example, it included reducing the length of time spent in coursework and practical field training for student teachers at the University of Dar es Salaam. In turn, this meant that graduates had little pedagogical content knowledge or practical experience, hence affecting the quality of their teaching (Mkude et al., 2003; Vavrus et al., 2013).

2.4.4 Synthesis of the key emergent issues, successes and challenges

All the government reforms, policies, declarations and Acts from after independence to 1995 were aimed at expanding the education system, improving the quality of education and strengthening the link between education provided at all levels and social and economic development in Tanzania (URT. MoEC, 1995). Because of these reforms, the education system in the country exhibited significant improvements during the 1970s in terms of adult literacy and the expansion of the education system at primary and secondary levels. However, these

achievements were not sustained due to the economic crises experienced in the 1980s and the implementation of the structural adjustment programme. Consequently, there has been a rapid deterioration in the delivery of education services, leading to poor quality and low levels of academic achievement and literacy, and a declining gross enrolment rate for primary school pupils. The consequences and criticisms of the structural adjustment programme's impact on access to and the quality of primary and secondary education pressed the government to take significant action to adjust the education system (UN Chronicle, 2007; Vavrus et al., 2013).

In 1990, the government constituted a National Task Force on Education to review the existing education system and recommend a suitable alternative (URT. MoEC, 1995). The recommendations of the report, the Tanzania Education System for the 21st Century, were taken into consideration in the formulation of the Tanzania Education and Training Policy (TETP) in 1995 (ibid.; UN Chronicle, 2007). The TETP has been the country's education policy from that year onwards.

2.5 Tanzania Education (1995-2012): Significant events and development

The scope and focus of this study prevents me from giving a comprehensive review of the development and expansion of the whole Tanzanian education and training system. I shall rather concentrate on the growth of higher education in Tanzania, and the issues that have shaped it, including the challenge of quality in university education and, more specifically, university teacher education. The discussion in this section focuses on the formulation of the 1995 Tanzania Education and Training Policy.

The TET policy was geared towards improving access to education at all levels, and providing quality and equitable education to both boys and girls, as well as improving the management and financing of education (UN Chronicle, 2007). Specifically the policy intended to:

- Decentralise education and training by empowering regions, districts, communities and educational institutions to manage and administer education and training;
- Improve the quality of education and training through strengthening in-service teacher training programmes; the supply of teaching and learning materials; rehabilitation of school/college physical facilities; teacher trainers programmes; research in education and training, and streamlining the curriculum, examinations and certifications;
- Expand the provision of education and training through liberalisation of the provision of education and training, and the promotion and strengthening of formal and non-formal, distance and out-of-school education programmes;

- Promote science and technology through intensification of vocational education and training; rationalisation of tertiary institutions, including the establishment of polytechnics; strengthening science and technical education, and development of formal and non-formal programmes for the training of technologists;
- Promote access and equity through making access to basic education available to all citizens as a basic right; encouraging equitable distribution of educational institutions and resources; expanding and improving girls' education; screening for talented, gifted and disabled children so that they are given appropriate education and training, and development programmes to ensure access to education to disadvantaged groups;
- Broaden the base for the financing of education and training through cost sharing measures involving individuals, communities, NGOs, parents and end-users, and through the inclusion of education as an area of investment in the Investment Promotion Act. (URT. MoEC, 1995, unpaged).

The TET policy attempted to be more responsive to the popular demand for secondary education. The policy continued to embrace the ESR philosophy, which stresses the relationship between education and development and encourages self-reliance among Tanzanian citizens, while gradually shifting its focus to academic subjects, including the development of science and technological education skills, with an emphasis on agricultural and industrial development.

2.5.1 School (and teacher) education

As noted above, it is not possible to provide a comprehensive review of school education and training after the 1995 TETP. Nevertheless I present a brief overview of plans and programmes that the government put forward in the process of implementing its policy, and of the successes and shortcomings of this implementation.

As the primary school enrolment rate continued to decline (it reached 57% in 2000), the government revised its cost-sharing policy that had been implemented in terms of the structural adjustment programme and eliminated school fees at the primary level in July 2001, through circular no. 7 of 03/09/2001 (Vavrus et al., 2013.). To assist in the implementation of the policy, the TETP was in 1997 translated into an investment plan, the Education Sector Development Plan (Omari, 2002; UN Chronicle, 2007). The plan called for pooling human, financial and material resources through the involvement of all key stakeholders in education planning, implementation, monitoring and evaluation at all levels of (UN Chronicle, 2007). The government started the plan with primary education, as it was clear that the immediate development of the entire education sector was not feasible. The Primary Education Development Plan was launched in 2002, and was implemented in two five-year phases, 2002 to

2006 and 2007 to 2011. The World Bank sponsored the plan, which focused on quality improvement, classroom construction, enrolment expansion, recruitment of teachers, and supply of textbooks (Omari, 2002; UN Chronicle, 2007; Vavrus et al., 2013).

The implementation of PEDP I led to a number of successes. This included an increase in the net enrolment rate from 58.8% in 2000 to 97.3% in 2007, and an increase in the number of primary schools from 11,873 in 2001 to 15,624 in 2007. There were also increases in the supply of textbooks and other teaching and learning materials, the recruitment of 45,796 teachers for schools with acute shortages, and the construction of 36,641 classrooms and 12,588 good quality houses for teachers (UN Chronicle, 2007). The Government developed PEDP II as the follow-up phase to build on the achievements of PEDP I. PEDP II also focused on quality improvement, enrolment expansion, undertaking educational research, and conducting educational monitoring and evaluation (UN Chronicle, 2007). Due to the shortage of teachers triggered by the implementation of the structural adjustment programme, the ministry of education at one time announced employment opportunities to whoever had a degree in any field prepared to teach in primary schools. PEDP II thus also focused on in-service teacher training to upgrade teachers' professional teaching skills, especially in science, mathematics and languages (ibid.). The review of the new primary school curriculum took place in PEDP II, in 2007 (MoEVT. TIE, 2007a).

A significant increase in enrolment in primary education due to the implementation of PEDP I created a demand for increased access to secondary education (HakiElimu, 2007). In 2004, the government launched the Secondary Education Development Plan (SEDP), consisting of three five-year phases with the first phase lasting from 2004 to 2009. The plan was also sponsored by World Bank, and aimed to refurbish secondary education, specifically by increasing access through expanding the number of schools and teachers, and improving the quality of secondary education (HakiElimu, 2007; Vavrus et al., 2013). On the question of quality, four strategies were taken into consideration: to review and prepare new secondary school curricula (which happened in 2007) (MoEVT. TIE, 2007b); to provide high quality teaching and learning materials; to create a relevant examination structure, and to improve teacher training (HakiElimu, 2007, p. 2; see also World Bank. Projects and Operations, n.d.). The phase two SEPD II spanned 2010 to 2014. Its objective was to improve the quality of secondary education with a focus on underserved areas. This included improving the equitable provision of teachers and the quality of

teaching in mathematics, sciences, and languages (World Bank. Projects and Operations, n.d.). The TET policy and both the PEDPs and the SEDPs emphasised the importance of technology and science education in primary and secondary schools.

New curricula for teacher college certificate and diploma programmes were also developed in 2009 (see MoEVT. TIE, 2009a; 2009b). However, the strategies to update and introduce those curricula to school teachers and tutors were considerably behind schedule. Government provided insufficient information and resources to help school teachers and Teacher College tutors to improve and update their pedagogical skills. As a result, the good intention of improving the quality of school education by developing new school and teacher education curricula did not work out as expected. In sum, despite this and several other challenges that the TETP encountered (see Section 2.5.1.2, below), the school education system in general saw significant improvement, mainly through expansion at primary and other school levels, as well as teacher education. Some of these achievements are presented in the following section.

2.5.1.1 Achievements

Because of the implementation of the policy and several programmes, the education sector registered significant improvements in adult literacy, expansion at all levels and the vocationalisation of secondary education. Other achievements include:

- Increase in access to education and training for students at almost all levels of education and training; for example in primary education, the enrolment increased from 55% in 1995 to 94% in 2011. There were 406 public secondary schools in 1998 as compared to only 193 in 1994, and 375 private ones as compared to 298 in 1994. The number of secondary school enrolments increased from 350,000 in 2003 to 675,000 in 2006. There was a tremendous increase in the number of tertiary and higher education institutions, more than sixty of these institutions offering degree programmes;
- Officiate pre-primary education for children from 5 years;
- Balancing of the ratio of the number of girls to that of boys at almost all levels of education and training;
- Establishment of other educational organisations TCU;
- Establishment of relationship between educational NGOs with education and training provision;
- Increase in technology in the provision of education and training;
- Increase of responsibilities to the regions, districts and communities in the continuation of the process of decentralisation of education (MoEVT, 2012).

2.5.1.2 Challenges

The successes listed above were not unchallenged by problems with policy implementation, which meant that there was little change to the country's tradition of poor quality school education. The low levels of achievement and literacy and the underperformance of primary education continued to affect both the lower and higher secondary school performance, leading to a declining enrolment rate for higher education undergraduate programmes (as discussed in Chapter One, Sections 1.2 and 1.3). Some of the challenges that the education and training system faced in the implementation of the 1995 TETP policy included:

- Lack of action plan for the implementation of the policy.
- Lack of effective action plan in the ministry and in some of its educational and training organisations. For example, an examination research unit responsible for creating a more relevant examination structure was supposed to established by 2006, but it is unclear whether there was any progress on this by 2007 (HakiElimu, 2007. p. 2).
- Insufficient competence on the part of some educational workers in managing and operating education and training duties.
- Existence of curricula education and training programmes that did not fulfil the societal and employment needs.
- Low enrolment in pre-primary education.
- Low enrolment in the remote regions of the country.
- Increase in children, youth and adults who do not know how to read or write.
- Increase in student drop outs.
- Inadequate number of teachers in science and mathematics subjects.
- Lack of awareness of the importance of education for girls and disabled children in some communities.
- Insufficient educational infrastructure for students with special needs.
- Shortage of recruits for the teacher profession and unwillingness to work in remote areas.
- Insufficient teacher-student ratio at almost all levels of education and training.
- Insufficient and poor condition educational and training working tools.
- Low number of qualified students for universities and technical institutions (tertiary education and training system).
- Education and training system with few entries to education and training.
- Lack of modern technological tools and instruments for the teaching and learning process in the higher education and training institutions.
- Lack of human resources in different sectors of education.
- Low income for workers at almost all educational and training levels (MoEVT, 2012).

2.5.1.3 Synthesis of the key issues and the current situation of school education

The on-going problem with the quality of education in Tanzania is the weakest feature in its education system (Omari, 2002). The quality of school education has continued to deteriorate over the years (MoEVT, 2012). The expansion of access to primary education has been a significant achievement of PEDP to date, but this increase has led to lower quality of education

at all other levels of school education. Many students from primary schools enter secondary schools with insufficient literacy and numeracy skills: they cannot read, write or do arithmetic, and their numbers have increased from 40.4% in 2009 to 53% in 2012 (HakiElimu, 2012; MoEVT, 2012). Poor results for students who sit for lower secondary school exams are continuing; for instance, in 2011 about 47% of the students scored zero (fail) division, while 60% got zero division in 2012 (reported by MoEVT, 2012; HakiElimu, 2011). Many higher secondary school leavers do not qualify to be enrolled in Bachelor programmes: in 2012 for example, 24.8% got fourth and zero divisions in their final exams (reported by NECTA, 2012), which led to few students entering universities and other higher education institutions (TCU, 2012a; TCU, 2013). Table 2-4, below, shows how enrolments in the year 2010 peak in primary school and drop dramatically by the end of higher secondary education. The Table represents a situation of school enrolment virtually unchanging over the decades since independence.

Table 2.4 Enrolment data from Primary to Advanced Secondary Education, 2010

Categories	Male students	Female students	Total
Primary	4,203,269	4,216,036	8,419,305
Lower secondary (completed Form 4)	177,176	149,639	326,815
Higher secondary (completed Form 6)	20,381	13,299	33,680

Source: MoEVT (2010)

The low levels of achievement in school education have been associated with, among other things, poor quality of teaching staff, inadequate learning and teaching materials, and poor infrastructure (Omari, 2002; HakiElimu, 2009; HakiElimu, 2012; Vavrus et al., 2013).

2.5.1.4 Policy review

It is obvious that the implementation of the TETP has given more attention to expansion and access to education than the issue of quality. Due to this and many other challenges facing the system of education and training in the country, the Tanzanian government, in 2012, decided to review the policy, with the aim of improving the quality of education through, among other measures, improving the curricula and programmes. The review also aimed to strengthen the links between educational NGOs and education and training, and improve technical, vocational and life skills training for social and economic development in Tanzania. The initiative to review the policy also came about because of the failure of certain circulars and ministry directives designed to fix weaknesses in the policy (Omari, 2002).

In the foregoing sections, I have discussed in brief the developments and challenges that shaped the quality of the school and teacher education and training system after the establishment of the 1995 education policy. In the following sections, I concentrate on developments in higher education slightly before and after the 1995 policy, and discuss the historical issues that influence the current state of higher education in Tanzania, and university education in particular. I start the discussion with the establishment of higher education quality assurance organs right after the 1995 TETP.

2.5.2 Development of higher education after the 1995 TETP

As noted earlier, after the establishment of the University of Dar es Salaam in 1970, growth in higher education in Tanzania was slow due to low demand. In addition to the fact that more emphasis was placed on developing primary education through the Universal Primary Education policy, the low demand for higher education during that period was also due to existing policies that did not permit the establishment of private higher education institutions in the country. Additionally, the Musoma Resolution admission requirement that secondary school leavers spend at least two years in employment before beginning university further hindered growth in higher education.

The situation changed in the 1980s with the socio-political policy reforms. Coupled with reforms specifically in the education sector, this led to a surge in the number of candidates qualifying for university education. The third higher education growth phase came about in 1984, when the Sokoine University of Agriculture (SUA) was established.

2.5.2.1 Higher education and the socio-economic reforms: The establishment of HEAC

As noted in Section 2.4.3.3, starting from the late 1980s and continuing into the mid-1990s, Tanzania worked at liberalising its political and socio-economic policies. The liberal reforms were expected to lead to a greater demand for social services, including higher education. Based on that anticipation, in 1992 the government decided to establish the Open University of Tanzania (OUT). Private universities were still not permitted. This meant that higher education was exclusively in the public sector, which unfortunately lacked the financial resources to facilitate growth.

In the early 1990s, further expansion of the political and socio-economic reforms took place, enabling the private sector to play a major role not only in economic activities, but also in the provision of higher education. The complexity of the educational system increased greatly in 1995 with the amendment of the Education Act of 1978 into the 1995 Tanzania Education and Training Policy (TETP), which paved the way for the establishment of private universities and opened up opportunities for more qualified people to access higher-level education and training. Thus from 1996 private university institutions began to emerge in Tanzania for the first time. In 1996 alone, six private universities were established, in the process bringing about an erratic expansion of higher education in the country (TCU, 2009).

It has to be noted that from independence, when the country established the first higher education institution, to the time when the 1995 education policy was introduced, there was no body authorised to coordinate the establishment of higher education institutions and their programmes (URT. MoSTHE, 1999). This led to the uncoordinated establishment of institutions which met the needs of neither society nor the labour market, a lack of consumer protection, unstandardised and confusing designations for academic and other staff, inadequate information for employers and students, as well as a proliferation of academic awards (p. 25).

According to Hénard (2010), "where higher education is expanding, the country must often cope with the explosion of private entities whose quality must be appraised to protect consumers and prevent rogue universities from harming the reputation and quality of the whole higher education system" (p. 30). A separate body was duly set up in 1995 to regulate and monitor the development of private universities, the Higher Education Accreditation Council (HEAC). The HEAC was established under Section 64 of the Education (Amendment) Act of 1995 to oversee and promote the quality assurance of higher education institutions, programmes, staff, students and awards. Specifically, the HEAC was established in order to:

- Oversee the promotion of the objectives of higher education;
- Process applications for permission to establish and manage higher education institutions;
- Coordinate and ensure fair play in the selection and enrolment of students, and
- Monitor the quality of higher education by evaluating, comparing and equating academic programmes and awards obtained from inside and outside the country. (TCU, 2009)

Since the council did not deal with non-university tertiary and higher education institutions, another quality assurance organ, the National Council for Technical Education (NACTE), was established in 1997 to coordinate and regulate non-university tertiary and higher education institutions. The role of NACTE also included delivering courses at technician, semi-professional and professional levels leading to the award of certificates, diplomas, and degrees.

Even with the existence of HEAC and NACTE as higher education quality assurance bodies, higher education institutions in Tanzania still needed legislation to guide their systems and management. This came in the form of the National Higher Education Policy (NHEP) in 1999. The policy was supposed to guide the provision and processes of higher education with regard to a delineation of missions, levels of institutions, curricula orientations and concentration, financing, governance, coordination and linkage with the external world of international education (URT. MoSTHE, 1999, p. 2).

2.5.2.2 Drawbacks of HEAC and their consequences for the quality of university education

Although the main mandate of HEAC was to regulate the establishment and management of higher education in the country (URT. MoEC, 1995; URT. MoSTHE, 1999), in practice, the council did not deal with public universities. This was mainly because the public universities still operated under the provisions of their founding Acts (see for example the 1970 University of Dar es Salaam Act). These Acts gave public universities considerable latitude and autonomy, which the council was not mandated to challenge. Public universities, therefore, had full control over the education they delivered. Programmes were approved by their own university senates (University of Dar es Salaam, 1970). This situation was not experienced by private universities, which were supposed to send their programmes to HEAC for approval. In other words, public universities have for a long time been self-designing and self-approving their programmes, while private universities, since the year they started up, are accustomed to having their programme approved and accredited by a university regulatory body.

For this reason, it can be argued that public universities' self-regulated programmes might be questioned in terms of standards and quality. However, private universities tended to use public university programmes as templates for the design of their own programmes (URT. MoSTHE, 1999; TCU, 2016). Hence it can be argued that it is partly the lack of a quality assurance system

in public university programmes that has given rise to a proliferation of poor quality programmes in private universities and in the country as a whole.

2.5.2.3 Replacement of HEAC

As pointed out above, HEAC had the legal mandate to regulate the establishment and subsequent accreditation of private university institutions in the country. In practical terms, this mandate ended up being considered unfavourable for the promotion of a viable public-private partnership in higher education, such as is stipulated in the National Higher Education Policy of 1999.

The problems experienced by the council in dealing only with private universities were exacerbated by the rapid increase in the number of new universities. The need to establish a harmonised higher education system in the country required a review of the status of HEAC, with a view to launching a more powerful organ to regulate standards and oversee the quality of education offered in both public and private universities. This eventually resulted in the enactment of Act No. 7 of 2005, which repealed the HEAC amendment along with all the enabling Acts of individual public universities and established the Tanzania Commission of Universities (TCU).

2.5.3 Tanzania Commission for Universities (TCU)

TCU was established as a governmental body mandated to recognise, approve, register and accredit universities operating in Tanzania, and local or foreign university level programmes being offered by non-TCU registered higher education institutions. TCU also coordinates the proper functioning of all university institutions in Tanzania. The University Act prohibits any institution or person in the United Republic of Tanzania to commence or carry on university education operations, activities or functions without being granted TCU approval, or having been granted a charter by a statutory authority after TCU scrutiny. Furthermore, the Act mandates TCU to oversee institutional management processes at all universities in Tanzania, so as to foster a harmonised higher education management system. In order to ensure that such a system did not compromise institutional peculiarities and autonomy, each university has the legal right to operate under its own charter, granted by the President of the United Republic of Tanzania, after being processed through TCU.

2.5.3.1 TCU Roles and mandates

Prior to the establishment of TCU, all public university institutions implemented their mandatory functions as stipulated in their individual Acts of Parliament or constitutions, including the development of internal quality assurance systems. Under the University Act, all Acts of parliament that established public universities and university colleges were repealed, and these and all other similar institutions were required by law to register themselves under TCU. The roles of TCU are clustered into the following main categories:

- **Regulatory:** Conducting periodic evaluation of universities, their systems and programs so as to oversee quality assurance systems at the universities and in the process leading to new institutions to be registered to operate in Tanzania, and the existing institutions to be accredited, and validation of university qualifications attained from local and foreign institutions for use in Tanzania.
- **Supportive:** Ensuring the orderly performance of the universities and the maintenance of the set quality standards, by providing support to universities in terms of coordinating the admission of students, offering training and other sensitisation interventions in key areas like quality assurance, university leadership and management, fund raising and resources mobilisation, gender aspects in university management and gender mainstreaming, etc.
- **Advisory:** Advising government and the general public on matters related to the higher education system in Tanzania, including on program and policy formulation on higher education, and on the international issues pertaining to higher education. (TCU, 2015, pp. 1-2)

2.5.4 University institutions

The National Higher Education Policy defines a university as an institution of higher learning, consisting of an assemblage of colleges united as one corporate organisation and under one government, affording instruction in the arts and science and the learned professions, conferring degrees (URT. MoSTHE, 1999, p. 4). A university institution in Tanzania can comprise a university, university colleges, university centres and institutes, all operating under the Tanzania Commission for Universities (TCU). All university colleges in Tanzania are affiliated colleges of either local or foreign universities.

Currently, Tanzania has 73 full-fledged universities, university colleges, centres and institutes. Of these 14 are public universities and university colleges, and 37 are private universities and university colleges. There are four public and 18 private university centres and institutes (Registered university institutions, n.d.). Some private university institutions are owned by

organisations of Tanzanian citizens, some are owned by people outside Tanzania, and some are religious institutions. These institutions include colleges that originated from universities in Kenya and Uganda, as well as universities from countries outside Africa.

2.5.4.1 Roles of universities

> A good system of education in any country must be effective on two fronts: on the *quantitative level*, to ensure access to education and equity in the distribution and allocation of resources to various segments of the society, and on the *qualitative level*, to ensure that the country produces the skills needed for rapid social and economic development [italics added] (URT. MoEC, 1995, foreword)

The extract above comes from the Minister of Education's Foreword to the Tanzania Education and Training Policy (TETP) in the year 1995. There is no doubt that education is one of the most powerful instruments for reducing poverty and inequality, and a foundation for sustained economic growth (World Bank, 2012b). It is also true that there is a high correlation between investment in higher education and a country's development (OCED, 2012). Higher numbers of higher education graduates among a nation's labour force increase its long-term prospects for economic growth (Hénard, 2010). In other words, the development capacity of a country depends on its human investment in higher education (OECD, 2012). In short, the role of universities is to ensure that the country produces the skills needed for rapid social and economic development. A population including appropriate numbers of key human resources such as engineers and doctors, and technological, industrial and agricultural professionals, is needed to meet the demands of the country's economic development (World Bank, 2012a; World Bank, 2012b).

The primary objective of tertiary education and training, according to TETP, is to promote a higher level of learning, scientific and technological knowledge, and to develop a capacity for research (URT. MoEC, 1995, p. 76; URT. MoSTHE, 1999, p. 3). It is widely agreed that research plays a crucial role in the economic development of a country. TETP appeals to universities to foreground the role of research in promoting national socio-economic development (URT. MoEC, 1995). In order to develop and adapt new technology and skills, universities have to embark on in-country research and apply the results to industries and communities, to ensure the development of services such as the supply of electricity and water using local resources such as rivers, waterfalls, the sea and dams (ibid.).

As mentioned earlier, Tanzania witnessed an increase in private university institutions and a concomitant enrolment of students from all backgrounds. In 2008, there were 48 university institutions. Only 13 were public, one was a public-private partnership (PPP) university, while the rest were privately owned. This increase in the number of university institutions, particularly the private ones, correspondingly led to a 10-fold rise in the national higher education gross enrolment rate from 0.27% in 1997 to 3% in 2008 (TCU, 2009).

It might be argued that the increase in the number of universities is evidence of the importance of the role that the institution plays in society. However, university education in Tanzania faces two critical challenges, which I discuss briefly in the following two sections.

2.5.4.1.1 University quantitative performance

The expansion of higher education to create graduates to spearhead economic development has been a constant theme since 1961. As noted earlier, Tanzania has so far enjoyed some quantitative success in its education and training system. The access and equity at all levels of education and training, including higher education, is an outstanding achievement. University enrolment, in particular, has increased from 13 law students in 1961 to 14,568 in 2001 and to 92,238 students in 2010 in all existing fields of bachelor degree study (Omari, 2002; Mkude et al., 2003; MoEVT, 2010; UDSM. Background, n.d.).

But despite the rapid expansion of the education and training system since independence, Tanzania's human resources remain seriously underdeveloped. Too few of the working population possess the knowledge and skills needed to meet the demands of rapid economic development. With a population of over 44 million people, the country has fewer than four million with tertiary education graduates (TCU, 2016).

Also, the expansion of student numbers has had a negative impact on the provision and quality of universities' infrastructure and resources (Anangisye, 2008). State funding and the supply of resources have not kept pace with the increased number of students, a situation that has affected the quality of university graduates (ibid.). This is part of the findings that are discussed in detail in the analysis presented in Chapter Six.

2.5.4.1.2 University qualitative performance

In *Access and expansion: challenges for higher education in developing countries*, Cantrell (2010) claims that "the challenge of widening access to higher education is the one which the Southern Africa region has been grappling with for the last 30 years" (p. 41). For Tanzania, however, having met this challenge by having more than 70 tertiary and higher education institutions (URT, 2012; MoEVT, 2013; TCU, 2016), the on-going struggle is to produce qualified and competent human resources for its development.

It has been argued that a system of education that does not produce appropriate and effective knowledge and skills that are needed for rapid social and economic development is one that lacks quality (URT. President's Office, Planning Commission [PO, PC], n.d.). The increased access to higher education in Tanzania has had to cope with under-qualified human resources and inadequate physical resources to meet the academic demands of both students and staff. This in turn affects the quality of the programmes that the universities offer and results in less than competent graduates. In most universities, the number of academic and non-academic staff is inadequate, and in some, especially private ones, most of the staff are under-qualified to teach in higher education institutions. Many university leaders are not qualified to be in the university administrative positions they hold (URT. MoSTHE, 1999).

Various forms of national documentation disclose that in most cases there is a lack of relevance in the academic programmes in relation to national goals of education and demand (URT. MoSTHE, 1999). This is because new institutions, especially new private ones, simply adopt or duplicate academic programmes that have not been reviewed for decades, and are hence of doubtful quality and relevance (TCU, 2016, p. 10). The national higher education policy complains of a "tendency among these institutions to distort the levels and real worth of the academic programmes and awards they offer" (URT. MoSTHE, 1999, p. 3).

The policy documents note that as a general rule, part-time employment should be treated as a matter of last resort (TCU, 2014b, p. 40). In contrast, as the study findings show, university institutions – especially private ones – rely on part-time lecturers to teach their programmes (especially PhD holders and professors), often from public universities (refer to Chapter Six, Section 6.5.2.2.5). The findings in this study indicate that this practice tends to affect the quality

of education provision, particularly in terms of time (refer to Chapter Seven, Section 7.5.1.2.3). The findings reveal that part-time lecturers have insufficient time for lecturing, assessment, and practical activities. As a result, it seems that such staff are one of the reasons for poor quality university graduates. These and many other issues, including university autonomy and the quality assurance system of university regulatory bodies, may be linked to the irrelevance of the academic programmes and poor quality of university education in Tanzania. These are discussed in the sections below, and in more detail in Chapter Six.

2.6 University programmes

The 1995 TETP states that:

> - Tertiary and higher education and training institutions shall design and develop their own curriculum which shall be validated by VETA [Vocational Education and Training Authority] and other appropriate organs.
> - Tertiary and higher education and training institutions shall conduct and administer examinations and award appropriate certificates, diplomas and degrees (URT. MoEC, 1995, p. 77).

By virtue of these statements, the policy confers total responsibility for higher education on the university institutions. They have full autonomy to operate under their own charters (URT, 2005b). The policy gives universities the freedom and responsibility to work on their own under the regulations of the former HEAC, now TCU. This includes the whole process of curriculum and programme design, while the TCU processes the approval and accreditation of those programmes (ibid.). Universities define the structure and goals of programmes. They make decisions about the content, allocate time and duration for courses, determine assessment and define outcomes of programmes.

The National Higher Education Policy (NHEP) does however recommend that universities respond to the changing needs of higher education, stating that the "curriculum of higher education institutions' programmes should emphasise and respond to the changing world of science and technology and the corresponding ever-changing needs of the people, their government, industry, commerce and the surrounding environment in general" (URT. MoSTHE, 1999, p. 7). The policy insists that agriculture, as the backbone of the economy, should be given priority (ibid.). One of the findings discussed in Chapter Six is the issue of university

programmes in relation to national needs. Are programmes designed to fulfil national desires or satisfy institutional interests?

2.6.1 The context of the MEd programmes

The study context of this thesis comprises the MA(Ed) programme in the University of Dar es Salaam (UDSM) and MEd programme in the Tumaini University Makumira (TUMA). The MA(Ed) programme at UDSM was chosen because it was the first MEd programme to be established in the country, and the MEd programme at TUMA was chosen because it is the first private MEd programme in the country. Arguments were made in Chapter One, Section 1.5 and in this Chapter, Sections 2.5.2.2 and 2.5.4.1.2, that the (oldest) UDSM MA(Ed) is treated as a template by other universities, especially private ones, for developing their own MEd programmes. Crucially, the MEd at TUMA has not been offered since the 2014/2015 academic year because of a paucity of applicants. This is because its graduates experience a gap between what they expected from the programme and what they actually learned. A more detailed discussion of this is provided in Chapter Seven, and further justification of the programme selection is given in Chapter Five. Section 2.6.1.1 looks briefly at the context of the institutions and programmes.

2.6.1.1 University of Dar es Salaam and the MA(Ed) programme

It has been noted that the University of Dar es salaam (UDSM) is the oldest and the biggest university in Tanzania. It is situated on the western side of the city of Dar es Salaam, and occupies 1,625 acres on Observation Hill, 13 kilometres from the city centre. UDSM's vision is to become a reputable world-class university that is responsive to national, regional and global development needs, through engagement in dynamic knowledge creation and application. Its mission is the "unrelenting pursuit of scholarly and strategic research, education, training and public service directed at attainment of equitable and sustainable socio-economic development of Tanzania and the rest of Africa" (UDSM. Background, n.d.). In the years since 1961, the University of Dar es Salaam has grown in terms of student intake, academic units and academic programmes. UDSM was established through parliamentary Act no. 12 of 1970 with all the enabling legal instruments of the constituent colleges. The university has one institute, the Institute of Marine Science in Zanzibar, and two university colleges, Dar es Salaam University College of Education and Mkwawa University College of Education at Iringa.

The Master of Arts (Education) [MA(Ed)] programme at UDSM is the first postgraduate education programme in the country. It was established in 1974, thirteen years after the opening of UDSM. The programme was located in the Faculty of Arts and Social Science under the Department of Education. The word *Arts* in the programme title, according to the administrator of the School of Education, was meant to indicate that the programme was based in the Faculty of Arts and Social Science. Later the department expanded and became a fully-fledged Faculty of Education (Interview, October 19, 2015 at 12h45).

Following the restructuring of the University of Dar es Salaam in 2008, the university Faculties were dissolved and transformed into either Colleges or Schools. The Faculty of Education was transformed into the School of Education, and the six faculty departments were collapsed into two departments and one unit. These are the Department of Educational Foundations, Management and Lifelong Learning; the Department of Educational Psychology and Curriculum Studies; and the Physical Education and Sport Sciences Unit. The UDSM Master of Arts (Education) [MA(Ed)] programme is not located within any one department or unit, but revolves among them. Chapter Seven provides a discussion of the name of the programme and its departmental disjunction, and how these factors affect the appropriateness of the curriculum content and specialisation.

2.6.1.2 Tumaini University Makumira and the MEd programme

Tumaini University Makumira (TUMA) is located at User-River, Arusha, in northern Tanzania. TUMA is the main campus of Tumaini University institutions, the university institutions of the Evangelical Lutheran Church in Tanzania (ELCT). The university was established in 1997 as the Lutheran Theological College Makumira. In that same year the name of the college changed to Makumira University College and become a constituent college of Tumaini University. The college had three faculties, namely a Faculty of Theology, a Faculty of Law and Humanities, and a Faculty of Social Science. The college was accredited as a fully-fledged university in 2010 and become the main campus of Tumaini University in the same year.

The Master of Education (MEd) programme was established when Tumaini University Makumara was a university college called Makumira University College (MUCo). The programme was established in the Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences. This faculty was

established on January 2004 and consisted of five departments, including a Department of Education where the MEd programme originated.

2.7 Programme approval and accreditation

The task of making recommendations for the accreditation of programmes offered by both private and public institutions has been given to the TCU (URT, 2005b). Accreditation has two stages. The first stage involves the submission of documents to address each of the accreditation focus areas given below. The second stage involves a TCU team visiting the higher education institution site(s). The purpose of the visit is to verify and clarify the documentation, to observe the facilities and to engage in dialogue with senior staff to help gain a fuller understanding of the higher education institution and the graduate programme for which it seeks accreditation.

During and following the site visit, the TCU team provides feedback to the higher education institution to indicate their level of satisfaction with the evidence of compliance with each of the accreditation focus areas, and offers advice regarding any areas for improvement. TCU provides the higher education institution with a written report on their accreditation submission. The decision to accredit a graduate programme rests with the TCU Commission. This decision is essentially the permission needed to start a programme and it is called Provisional Approval of the programme. This approval lasts for one year. After this time, if the higher education institution wishes to continue to offer the programme, it must apply for review and be granted full approval for a period of four years, after which the programme has to be reviewed again.

Two TCU documents, University Qualification Framework (UQF) and the university general regulations aim to assist universities to attain at least benchmarked standards, and encourage them to continue to improve the quality of their programmes. UQF defines competences, knowledge and skills for higher education and professional levels in broad terms, within which a given university is supposed to design its programmes and appropriately allocate resources in accordance with its stated educational goals and learning outcomes.

The guidelines were designed to encourage diversity of approach. They need to be adjusted to fit the distinctive purposes of a particular programme in line with nationally, regionally and internationally recognised practices. The guidelines involve areas such as vision, mission,

educational goals and learning outcomes, curriculum design and delivery, and principles of effective self-assessment.

2.7.1 Consequences of weakness on TCU regulations to the quality of the programmes

The process of reviewing and approving university programmes by TCU, according to the University Act, is to apply only to new programmes (URT, 2005b). This means that self-approved public university programmes during the time of HEAC were not reviewed by TCU. As a result, the curriculum design and structure of programmes in public universities have remained essentially unchanged since after independence, and have moreover been inherited by private universities. The issue of the quality of university programmes becomes more critical in the context of the current trend of using peer reviewers from public universities (Chapter One, Section 1.3) in the process of approval and accreditation of university programmes. This points again to the issue of programme review by universities themselves. How effective, one might ask, is the review process likely to be, if those doing the reviewing are the ones who designed those very programmes many years previously? And if they are not actually reviewing themselves, to what extent are they prepared to accommodate the recommendations proposed by the reviewers? These and other issues that constrain the development of quality teacher educators are discussed briefly in the following section, but in much more detail in Chapters Six and Seven.

2.7.2 Programme review in universities

In spite of the fact that both education policies, the NHEP and TETP, urged tertiary education institutions to review their programmes and courses, this has not happened as regularly as expected. The lack of programmatic review in Tanzanian universities has its roots in the mother university, the University of Dar es Salaam. According to the 1998-89 UDSM audit report, out of the 63 departments that existed in the university, only 15 had reviewed their curricula in the previous 5 years, while 9 departments had reviewed their curricula within the last 5 to 10 years. The remaining 39 departments had not reviewed their curriculum since their establishment (Mkude et al., 2003, p. 38).

In this study, the findings are similar to the observations that Mkude and his colleagues have made (Mkude et al., 2003). For example, documents and the responses from the Head of one of

the Departments in the School of Education revealed that the MA(Ed) programme has not been comprehensively reviewed since it was established in 1974. Although the administrator of the School said that a group of hired reviewers has recently reviewed the programme, she also admitted that of the recommendations made, some were completely rejected by the School of Education while the ones they accepted have yet to be implemented. The findings show that what seems to be happening is that adjustments are being made here and there in the curriculum and the course outlines by individual lecturers.

In case of the MEd programme in TUMA, between the Dean of the Faculty of Education and the Director of Postgraduate Studies no one knows who is responsible for the review, because there was no job description of who was to do what when they were appointed. This means that the programme has never been reviewed, the Dean conceded, despite the fact that students have complaining of its irrelevance (see Chapter Six, Section 6.5.2.1.1). This situation is bound to affect the quality of teacher educators developed from these programmes.

The extent to which the lack of programme review in universities affects the quality of the MEd programmes is discussed in more detail during the data analysis and interpretation in Chapter Six.

2.8 Synthesis of the arguments

The provision of higher education in Tanzania after the 1995 education policy has changed over the years, including the establishment of higher education regulatory bodies and policy, and the creation of private university institutions. The country has witnessed an increase in university institutions, with a commensurate enrolment of students from all backgrounds. It might seem that the increase in the number of universities is evidence of the importance of the role that these institutions play in society. But it is a sad fact that some universities offer lower quality education and poor teaching/learning and support services. The argument has been made that many issues, including inadequate and under-qualified academics, relying on part-time lecturers, and the university quality assurance system and regulations, can be linked with the irrelevance of many academic programmes and hence the poor quality of university education in Tanzania.

2.9 Conclusion

In this chapter, I have described the national context of education and training in Tanzania with a focus on higher education, in which this study is located. I have researched and discussed relevant documents in order to understand key events and developments in schools and higher education before and after independence. I have identified the major forces shaping higher education and noted a number of emergent issues. A key issue was the quality of education. In Chapter Three, I focus on a review of the relevant literature on aspects of quality in university education, and in education for teacher educators in particular.

Chapter Three

Quality in (University) Teacher Education

> Researchers typically review prior literature as part of their studies and incorporate that information in their reports. Previous studies are a source of data, requiring that the researcher rely on the description and interpretation of data rather than having the raw data as a basis for analysis. (Bowen, 2009, p. 28)

3.1 Introduction

This chapter presents a review of literature relevant to the study in order to arrive at an understanding of the issue of quality in respect of university education for teacher educators. I begin by situating the study within the notion of quality in higher education, and go on to discuss the conceptualisation and design of university programmes, specifically teacher education programmes. The quality requirements for teacher educators, the kinds of subject and pedagogy knowledge necessary, the instructional strategies and practices, as well as the process of curriculum design, are comprehensively discussed. I argue that successful conceptualisation and design of postgraduate teacher education programmes, specifically the appropriateness of curriculum content, can be enabling factors in developing quality teacher educators. Lastly, the chapter expands on the rationale for carrying out the study by pointing to the dearth of research on teacher educators preparation programmes in Tanzania.

The chapter starts with discussion on the general view of quality in higher education, and how higher education institutions globally work to meet criteria of quality in higher education.

3.2 Quality in higher education

The widespread recognition that higher education is a major driver of economic advancement has made high-quality tertiary education more important than ever before (Hénard, 2010, p. 28; see also OECD, 2008; McArthur, 2011). If higher education is conceived as the production of highly qualified manpower (Tam, 2001, p. 48), different stakeholders have different interpretations of what this means (Harvey & Green, 1993). Governments, for example, define quality higher education as that which produces competent scientists, engineers, teachers, doctors, nurses, and other high-level skilled personnel in agriculture and other industries (URT. MoEC, 1995). For regulatory bodies, quality in higher education means ensuring that universities provide students with quality and relevant education to make them responsible citizens who can

contribute to the social and economic development of the country (OECD, 2008). Both interpretations represent a valid expectation of higher education and its quality: "Higher education therefore has a social, an economic and an educative role that extends well beyond its walls and its own students" (McArthur, 2011, p. 746). Higher education needs to contribute to the social, cultural, economic and political enrichment of the entire society (ibid.).

3.2.1 Indicators of quality in higher education

There are several key indicators associated with quality in higher education that measure the extent to which it serves its designated social and economic purposes (Harvey & Green, 1993; Tam, 2001; Ogbodo & Nwaoku, 2007). These include:

3.2.1.1 Students

Students are a necessary part of the concept of quality in higher education (Tam, 2001). In university institutions, the quality of students is measured by what knowledge and abilities they possess, the 'value added' between the time the students commence their studies and the time they graduate (Nordvall & Braxton, 1996; Tam, 2001). Higher education therefore has to enable students to develop (McArthur, 2011). According to Tam (2001, p. 53), the central activity of higher education is that of maximising the student's educational development. Thus Nordvall and Braxton (1996) persuasively conclude that "the greater the impact an institution has on its students in the desired direction, the higher the quality of the institution" (p. 485).

There is a necessary assumption that students have learned what they were supposed to learn at the earlier levels of education. A concern (that I shall not pursue here) is that if they did not acquire certain necessary skills, then the insufficiencies might persist throughout their university careers, and become apparent when they later seek employment. According to Nordvall and Braxton (1996), the institution that admits students with low scores but improves their skills is doing a better job than an institution which attracts high ability students but does not change them during their studies. What counts as quality is the contribution of higher education to change in students (Tam, 2001, p. 52).

3.2.1.2 Academic staff

The quality of lecturers in university institutions determines to a large extent the quality of those whom they educate. The assumption that traditional structures and the professionalism of academics will ensure good teaching has been interrogated (Quinn, 2012). In Europe, for example, concern with the teaching of academic staff has resulted in the establishment of a series of new national and international measures to ensure the quality of teaching in higher education institutions. Some European states encourage competition amongst institutions, with a view to fostering emulation, which would ultimately enhance quality teaching and learning (Hénard, 2010). In the Netherlands, all universities signed an agreement at the beginning of 2008, whereby new teaching staff are required to demonstrate professional teaching skills. To acquire these basic skills, each newly appointed teacher attends a 200-hour professional course (p. 30). At the University of Antwerp, novice teachers appointed as lecturers or assistant lecturers during the last seven years participate in a one-year instructional development programme on a voluntary basis. This aims to raise professional standards with regard to classroom practice and to gear instructors' teaching more closely to the concept of competence-based and student-centred teaching (Stes, De Maeyer, Gijbels & van Petegem, 2012).

3.2.1.3 Teaching knowledge

Many academic staff in tertiary institutions possess extensive knowledge of their fields, such as Chemistry, Pharmacy or Law but know little or nothing about teaching methods. Quality teaching involves not only possession of knowledge but also the ability to transfer it to students, along with appropriate skills and attitudes. This situation calls for training in teaching methods and techniques for all lecturers, including senior lecturers and professors, in higher education institutions (Ogbodo & Nwaoku, 2007). Faculties of Education are not excepted, because lecturers are recruited for their expertise in disciplinary fields like Philosophy, Environment, and Sociology (ibid.).

In Mexico, an institutional programme of pedagogic training is offered in the University of Yucatán to strengthen the quality and success of the teaching process (Hénard, 2010). This is also evident in South Africa, where academic staff development has become a priority for the higher education sector (Quinn, 2012). Institutional structures such as teaching and learning units and centres, quality assurance committees and policies, as well as Deans of Teaching and

Learning, have been established to ensure quality teaching and learning (ibid.). At Rhodes University specifically, a Postgraduate Diploma in Higher Education is offered to lecturers to contribute to their professional development, by building their knowledge of higher education and relating this knowledge to their practice as lecturers and their students' learning (Vorster & Quinn, 2012). As quality in higher education lies not only in teaching, institutions are called upon to ensure the quality of the learning environment, for example, the availability of equipment, and the coherence of the curriculum within each programme (Hénard, 2010).

3.2.1.4 Evaluation

The whole process of student assessment is also a quality issue in higher education. The way in which students' work is assessed provides criteria for educational evaluation. Universities have to define clearly the objectives and learning outcomes of courses and the goals of programmes, and define appropriate ways of evaluating the achievement of these at individual and group levels (Ogbodo & Nwaoku, 2007). The assignments given to students for grading portray the course or programme evaluation practices. Examinations, term papers and other written or practical exercises embody the evaluation criteria of a course or programme.

The type of evaluation criteria should depend on the objectives of the course. Evaluation criteria are the means to determine whether and to what degree the objectives of the curriculum have been achieved. This calls for suitable ways of assessing the defined learning outcomes such as knowledge, attitudes and skills (the application of the knowledge) in all courses within the curriculum and the programme as a whole.

3.2.1.5 Learning environment

A learning environment includes not only the physical structures – buildings and teaching and learning equipment – but also administrative measures such as curriculum and review policies, an ICT policy, and an academic staff development policy, all of which promote good academic practices (Ogbodo & Nwaoku, 2007). Teaching and learning equipment includes power point devices and software tools, workshops, laboratories, and libraries with satisfactory ICT services and appropriate resource materials. The role of the institution, therefore, is to provide an optimal environment for students to learn in (Tam, 2001, p. 53).

3.2.1.6 Programmes and curricula

The ability of higher education to be a major driver of economic advancement (OECD, 2008) is dependent on the quality of its programmes. Internationally, universities are being required to be more responsive to the needs of society and the economy (see also Hénard, 2010, p. 28). This suggests that if there is a continuing mismatch between what is offered in the universities and what society needs, then regardless of the nature of what is offered, it would be of poor quality (Ogbodo & Nwaoku, 2007).

Curriculum remains one of the most important elements in higher education (Barnett, Parry & Coate, 2001). In many countries, universities are responsible for the design of their curriculum. The countries' educational policies urge universities to design the curriculum in a way that responds to national requirements. If the university has good quality learners and teachers but offers low quality programmes that are unlikely to meet the needs of either the society or of the students, then its role as a driver of the country's economy becomes uncertain (Barnett et al., 2001).

The following sections discuss the university's mandate and role in the conceptualisation and design of its programmes, specifically teacher education programmes that are the unit of analysis of this thesis.

3.2.2 Conceptualisation and design of university teacher education programmes

Globally, university teacher education systems are influenced and shaped by forces operating at three levels: the macro (governmental regulations); the meso (the organisation of teacher education within university institutions), and the micro (the actual classroom interactions) (OECD, 2005; Snoek & Zogla, 2009). The role played by government at the macro level varies from country to country. Snoek and Zogla (2009) observe that in some countries, the government can influence the system of teacher education in terms of the 'what', that is, the content of teacher education courses, including the selection and organisation of knowledge and skills. They can also influence the 'how' of teacher education, that is, the pedagogy and instructional strategies to be used, and the way in which the outcomes are to be achieved (Snoek & Zogla, 2009). Conversely, in other countries, governments restrict themselves to the 'what' of teacher

education, defining the outcomes and leaving it up to teacher education institutes to conceptualise and design the 'how' of teacher education.

Some countries such as the Netherlands and the United States have established teacher education organisations – VELON, the Dutch Association of teacher educators, and the Association of Teacher Educators (ATE) in the US – which set standards for teacher educators (Koster & Dengerink, 2001; Murray, Swennen & Shagrir, 2009). In Israel, the MOFET is a unique institute in the world, which is entirely devoted to the professional development of teacher educators (Ben-Peretz et al., 2010; Swennen & Bates, 2010). In other countries like the United Kingdom, standards for teacher educators' professional knowledge are not nationally promulgated, but the general expectations have been well defined (Murray & Male, 2005). Developing learning and teaching strategies, which used to be an activity undertaken by individual academics behind closed doors, is now required by regulatory bodies to be open for discussion. Subject Review and Benchmarking in the UK are quality assurance mechanisms that conduce to transparency and accountability in curriculum design and delivery in higher education institutions (Barnett et al., 2001).

3.2.2.1 University autonomy and teacher education in Tanzania

Whereas a teacher education department within the Ministry of Education manages teacher education in Teacher Colleges (refer to Chapter One, Section 1.4.1), university teacher education is part of higher education, and Departments, Faculties and Schools of Education in university institutions are subject to the universities' authority. The universities have full autonomy to operate under their own charters (URT, 2005b).

Two education policies, the 1995 Tanzanian Education and Training Policy (TETP) and the 1999 National Higher Education Policy (NHEP), define the general aims, objectives and functions of higher education institutions (URT. MoEC, 1995; URT. MoSTHE, 1999). Both policies grant universities the authority to design and implement their own programmes, and TETP specifically states that "teacher education degree programmes are to be designed and offered by higher education institutions" (URT. MoEC, 1995, p. 45).

There is no university teacher education professional board or quality committee in Tanzania; correspondingly, there is no national content, pedagogy or instructional strategies for university teacher education. Universities have full control over their teacher education programmes. They control the conceptualisation, design and selection of the course components of teacher education programmes (URT. MoEC, 1995). They define the general goals and objectives and the way in which the programmes are structured. They develop the 'what' of teacher education (the content of the courses in terms of selection and organisation of knowledge and skills), the 'how' of teacher education (the pedagogy and instructional strategies that are used), and the way in which the outcomes are to be achieved. They make decisions about discipline specialisations, the time allocated to courses and programmes, the content weighting of the courses, and about which courses will be core or elective within the programme. The universities also define assessment procedures and programme outcomes for students to demonstrate upon completion of a programme.

A detailed discussion of the professional preparation of teacher educators and the process of quality curriculum design, which form a central part of the second and the first research questions in this thesis, respectively, is provided in Sections 3.4 and 3.5. Section 3.3 discusses the requirements for quality teacher educators – standards, competences, roles, functions and needs – which also form part of the discussion of the findings in Chapter Six.

3.3 Quality requirements for teacher educators

In the design of a curriculum, the initial phase is the conceptualisation stage where a draft is produced with its overall shape and orientation. This stage should be guided by the quality features and requirements desired for the particular profession that the curriculum is intending to develop.

Even though teacher educators are considered important influences on the quality of teachers "very little is known about the professional quality of teacher educators" (Koster, Brekelmans, Korthagen & Wubbels, 2005 p. 157, 174). Koster et al. (2005) claim that it is important to study the quality requirements for teacher educators – the standards, roles, functions, needs and competences – precisely because of the impact that teacher educators have on the quality of teacher education. Increasing our knowledge of what teacher educators need to know and do

contributes towards strengthening the position of the profession and the possibilities for quality professional development (Koster et al., 2005).

3.3.1 Teacher educators' standards

In general terms, Ozer (as cited in Smith, 2005, p. 179) defines standards as a stock of knowledge that needs to be acquired by experts within a specific profession. Smith (2005) expands the definition by describing standards as a requested level of professionalism, translated into actions and performances and serving as guidelines for training and evaluation. Thus teacher educators' standards are defined in a way that presents what teacher educators are expected to know and be able to do (Koster et al., 2005, p. 159). The standards outline the contributions that teacher educators are expected to make in their professional lives (Zhu, 2010), and indicate that good teacher educators are expert teachers of teachers involved in producing various forms of new knowledge in their field (Murray et al., 2009).

Developed countries such as the US and the Netherlands have explicit standards for teacher educators. Appendices B and C feature the standards for teacher educators developed by Dutch Association of Teacher Educators (VELON) and Association of Teacher Educators (ATE) respectively (Murray et al., 2009, see also Koster & Dengerink, 2001; Lunenberg, 2002; Smith, 2005). The US Association of Teacher Educators (ATE) describes the standards as the product of agreement about what teacher educators should think about, know, and be able to do (ATE. Why the standards, n.d.). Swennen and van der Klink (2009) maintained that these standards and the process of developing them may be taken as examples by other countries in developing their own, or as a template to apply in the accreditation and evaluation of the professional development of teacher educators. In Israel, while there are no explicitly stated professional standards for teacher educators, the MOFET institute applies the ATE standards (Murray et al., 2009). Tanzania, as will be discussed in detail in Section 3.3.4, below, has no officially sanctioned standards for teacher educators. The Tanzania Commission for Universities (TCU) only provides general standards for all master's programmes.

Researchers have criticised the development of standards on the ground that they are often produced by people outside the profession (Koster, et al., 2005). Another criticism is that lists of standards do not take into account the complexity and unpredictability of teaching and learning

(Koster et al., 2005, p. 159). The ATE standards, for example, are said to "focus on more implicit aspects of teacher educators' work related to behaviour, actions, beliefs and thinking, much of which can only be self-documented by teacher educators themselves" (Smith, 2005, p. 180). Another concern (Murray, 2001), is overreliance on standards when there is little consensus about what the explicit standards for teacher educators should be.

However, it has been argued that teaching that does not comply with professional standards may detrimentally affect the beliefs and capabilities of student teachers (Shagrir, 2010). Teacher educators can develop their own standards and as such define the quality of their own profession. This may also serve as a means of empowering them (Swennen & van der Klink, 2009). Besides, if standards are directed towards supporting the development of teacher educators and teacher education institutes, and not towards the creation of an assessment system, then they might lead to an improvement in the quality of teacher education (Koster et al., 2005; ATE. Why the standards, n.d.).

3.3.1.1 Purposes of standards

Ingvarson (as cited in Koster, et al., 2005, p. 160) states that in a standards-based professional development system, standards can provide a guide and a reference point for personal professional development planning. According to ATE, standards serve as a catalyst to spark debate and discussion about the definition, roles, and expectations of teacher educators (see Chapter Six). Standards also promote research on teacher educators, including self-study and action research on issues such as teacher educators' practices, perceptions and experiences. Furthermore, those who employ teacher educators such as universities and teacher colleges can benefit from having an external set of benchmarks for the quality level of teacher education, as well as teacher educators' working conditions, performance and expectations (ATE. Why the standards, n.d.).

3.3.2 Teacher educators' competences

According to Koster et al. (2005, p. 159), "a competence is a combination of knowledge, skills, attitudes, motivation and personal characteristics allowing an individual to act effectively in a particular situation". Research on Dutch teacher educators listed four areas of competence –

content or subject-oriented, pedagogical, communicative/reflective, and organisational – as necessary for teacher educators (pp. 168-169; see also Koster & Dengerink, 2001).

According to Lunenberg (2002), to formulate the competences that beginning teacher educators need to acquire during their preparation requires the existence of professional standards for teacher educators as a point of reference. The curriculum design team has to discuss those standards in relation to the competences that are expected of beginning teacher educators, and adjust those that are expected for expert teacher educators to fit beginning teacher educators' future roles. More competences may be added, depending on the specialisation of the teacher educators and the type of training and instructional strategies they need to master. Conducting a literature review and consulting other expert designers and teacher educators is an important phase in substantiating the feasibility of the competences (see also Koster & Dengerink, 2001). As is the case with standards, Tanzania does not have specific defined competences for teacher educators. Again, TCU only specifies general competences for all master's degree students (see Section 3.3.4 for a more detailed discussion).

3.3.3 Teacher educators' role and needs

Teacher educators are people in teacher colleges or university education faculties who educate students enrolled in initial and in-service teacher education programmes (Murray et al., 2009; Swennen et al., 2010; Ben-Peretz et al., 2010; Loughran, 2014; ATE. Why the standards, n.d.).

Typically, teacher educators have had a career as school teachers (Murray & Male, 2005; Swennen & van der Klink, 2009; Field, 2012), and there is an assumption that teaching teachers is not substantially different from teaching in a school (Ben-Peretz et al., 2010, p. 113). But according to Zeichner (2005), anyone who has ever worked with prospective teachers knows that although there are some similarities between teaching children and teaching teachers, there are many important ways in which the two kinds of teaching differ (see also Ritter, 2007; Williams & Ritter, 2010). School teaching experience alone cannot be the sole basis for a career in teacher teaching; one's expertise as a teacher does not necessarily translate into expertise as a teacher of teachers (Kosnik, 2007; Berry, 2009; Goodwin & Kosnik, 2013). New teacher educators may be 'expert' teachers, but they are nevertheless beginners in their new profession as teacher educators (Swennen et al., 2009).

The transition from school teaching to educating teachers can be both stressful and challenging due to the nature, demands and expectations of teacher education institutions (Dinkelman et al., 2006; Williams et al., 2012; Loughran, 2014). These include heavy teaching loads, large classes, teaching for long hours, pressure to engage in research, collaboration with other faculties, and working with adult learners (Swennen et al., 2009; Boyd & Harris, 2010; Loughran, 2014). The transition is made more difficult when beginning teacher educators lack the specific knowledge and skills to be good teachers of teachers (Swennen et al., 2009, p. 93). Swennen and her colleagues add that:

> The work of teacher educator demands new and different types of professional knowledge and understanding, including more extended pedagogical skills, than those required of classroom teachers. This means that teacher educators not only need the knowledge and skills to teach their subject, they also need knowledge and skills about the education of teachers. (2009, pp. 92-93)

The work of teacher educators is seen as 'socially complex' because teacher educators are responsible not only for teaching teachers, but also, indirectly, for the teaching of their future pupils, the "unseen children" (Swennen et al., 2009, p. 93; see also Guilfoyle et al., 1997; see also Ben-Peretz et al., 2010). Indeed, this complex dual role of teacher educators is unique to their profession, differing for example from that of doctors, who when they teach medicine do not also treat their students. "Teacher educators, conversely, whether intentionally or not, teach their students as well as teach about teaching" (Korthagen, Loughran & Lunenberg, 2005, p. 111). Thus formal preparation appears to be necessary if a teacher educator is to acquire the necessary knowledge, understanding and ability to perform (Koster et al., 2005).

Since teacher educators are entrusted with the responsibility of preparing novice teachers, their quality influences the quality of future teachers and the students of those teachers (Swennen & van der Klink, 2009; Goodwin & Kosnik, 2013; Goodwin, et al., 2014). Cochran-Smith (2001) stresses that it is necessary to pay careful attention to what teacher educators need to know and what institutional supports need to be in place in order to enable them to meet the complex demands of preparing teachers. Mosha (2004) emphasises the need for designing quality and relevant teacher education programmes as a prerequisite for achieving quality education in both teacher education and school systems. Thus, formal teacher education programmes, shaped by

knowledge and understanding specific to being a teacher educator, may influence the nature and improve the quality of teacher educators' performance.

3.3.3.1 Teacher educators' functions

Besides teaching student teachers in teacher colleges and higher education institutions, the teacher educator's functions include curriculum design, supervising student teachers, engaging in research (including writing for publications), and creating new knowledge in and about teaching (Koster, Korthagen & Wubbels, 1998; Smith, 2005; Wilson, 2006; Murray et al., 2009). Teacher educators create new knowledge of two types: practical, in the form of new curricula for teacher education and for schools; and theoretical, generated from research. The development of new curricula and learning programmes and the responsibility for creating new knowledge both ultimately flow from research, and rely on the availability of time and facilities, including a good library and an office with a computer and internet access (Smith, 2005). Teacher educators are equally responsible for the improvement of the quality of (parts of) the existing programme (Koster et al., 1998).

To be able to support their student teachers' learning, teacher educators themselves need to be good models of the kind of teaching they are trying to promote (Swennen, Lunenberg & Korthagen, 2008, p. 531, see also Loughran & Berry, 2005; Zeichner, 2005). They have to demonstrate the ability to cope simultaneously with teaching and training student teachers to teach (Ben-Peretz et al., 2010, p. 113). That is, while they are supporting student teachers' learning about teaching, they model the role of teaching about teaching. In addition, they have to be aware that students might use them as a model for their future teaching (see also Berry, 2009). That is, they consciously or unconscious develop reflection in student teachers, a skill which in turn helps them to learn from their own practical experience (Koster et al., 1998; Bullock, 2007; Korthagen & Verkuyl, 2007; Senese, 2007) (see Section 3.9.1 for a more detailed discussion).

Assessment might be a challenging function to teacher educators as it involves both supporting and judging student teachers' performance in the teaching field (Smith, 2005). Evaluative criteria range from formative assessment, which enhances learning, to summative assessment, which obliges teacher educators to take on the role of gatekeepers, deciding who can and cannot enter the professional community (Ben-Peretz et al., p. 179).

3.3.4 Teacher educators' quality requirements in Tanzania

Among the roles of the Tanzania Commission for Universities (TCU) (as described in Chapter Two, Section 2.5.3.1) is that of evaluating and accrediting university programmes, including all university teacher education programmes, using general university regulations and the University Qualification Framework (UQF). The standards in the UQF are stipulated in terms of purpose, knowledge, skills and competences, based on the level of the qualifications and not on field specialisation. In other words, there are no specific standards for university teacher education. Universities design and develop teacher education programmes using UQF general standards and guidelines that apply to designing and developing all other university programmes.

The Tanzania Institute of Education (TIE) and TCU describe qualifications and specify duties and responsibilities for teacher educators, i.e. the tutors and Assistant Lecturers who are to teach school teachers (MoEVT. TIE, 2009b; TCU, 2012b). However, there are no specific standards and competences for teacher educators, and the country does not have a teacher educators' professional board to define these requirements. Universities generally lack the indicators for quality and performance requirements for teacher educators and thus have no point of reference for determining teacher educators' competences. The extent to which this affects the quality preparation of teacher educators is an important issue that will be taken up in the data analysis in Chapter Six.

3.4 Teacher educators' professional preparation

In spite of the fact that teacher educators are responsible for teaching teachers how to teach, preparing them and developing their knowledge of teaching teachers is an area that receives scant attention in teacher education. A statement such as *teacher educators have learned teaching in their bachelor degree* is not uncommon; and descriptions by school teachers of the experience of being thrown in the deep end of becoming teacher educators suggests that this is a situation that has been going on for decades. Hamilton quoted by Guilfoyle, Hamilton, Pinnegar & Placier (1995) speaking about her experiences in the US admits that "no class at the university discussed the process of becoming a teacher educator" (p. 40). Kane (2007) remarks:

> As others have described, it was assumed that I could transfer the skills of a classroom teacher to those required to be an effective teacher educator.... I still

> view as a fundamental misconception of teacher education this assumption that expertise in teaching will seamlessly transfer to the new role of teaching teachers. I found it doubly problematic, for I had demonstrated neither excellence nor leadership as a teacher, I was still quite novice, having taught for less than five years. (pp. 65-66)

One reason to account for this situation is that knowledge of teaching teachers has not been regarded as a form of specialised expertise within academia compared with other disciplinary fields such as psychology and management – a situation perhaps suggesting that teaching teachers is not valued (Korthagen et al., 2005; Murray et al., 2009). Considering the effect of this situation in the United States as context, Hamilton confesses that:

> There are instances when I feel that I am devalued when I identify as a teacher educator…. There is a fallacy in academia, and perhaps beyond, that teacher educators have less knowledge, or less intelligence, or less something, and their work is devalued. (Lunenberg & Hamilton, 2008, p. 186)

Researchers who have published accounts of the way in which they became expert teacher educators do not think that the knowledge and practice of teaching teachers is not challenging (see Dinkelman et al., 2006; Ritter, 2007; Wood & Borg, 2010). They argue there is a need for teacher educators to be able to theorise practice through the very experience of teaching and learning about teaching (see also Kane, 2007; Loughran, 2007; Williams et al., 2012).

A growing body of empirical evidence suggests that the extent and quality of teacher education impact on teachers' effectiveness (Darling-Hammond, 2000; Liston et al., 2008; Moon, 2013). Darling-Hammond (2000) finds that teachers who have had more preparation for teaching are more confident and successful with students than those who have had little or none. She concludes that fully prepared teachers are generally better rated and more successful with students than teachers without this preparation. Likewise, for teacher educators, their success and that of their student teachers will be compromised if they are insufficiently equipped with the knowledge they need. Based on these arguments and findings, one could theorise that just as preparing quality teachers requires more than covering a defined set of requirements or demonstrating specific know-how, so too with preparing quality teacher educators (Phelps & Spitzer, 2012; Goodwin et al., 2014). Chapter Seven provides a detailed analysis of MEd

curricula and course content in order to identify to what extent that curricular knowledge is appropriate for the preparation of quality teacher educators.

3.5 Curriculum design

Table 3.2, below, provides a summary of issues relevant to curriculum design, and in this section those issues will subsequently be discussed in some detail. The issues include principles that underlie the design process and how to organise this process. The section also discusses curriculum components and provides outlines of the components with a detailed discussion on the selection of curriculum knowledge. The section also considers the extent to which MEd curriculum design in Tanzania needs to emulate that which is elaborated in the literature.

Table 3.1 Issues to consider before and during the curriculum design process

Preparation for curriculum design	Curriculum design process

• Principles guiding curriculum design: recontextualising rules
• Needs assessment: National and learners' needs
• Organising for curriculum design
  o Forming curriculum design team
  o Justifying the necessity of the curriculum
  o Curriculum parameters
  o Design and implementation constraints
  o Curriculum feasibility
	• Curriculum components
	  o Curriculum rationale
	  o Aims of education
	  - Aims of university education and customer demands
	  o Selecting knowledge
	  - University curriculum knowledge selection and customer demands

3.5.1 Curriculum meaning and presentation

In the literature on curriculum studies, curriculum experts and stakeholders define and use the term 'curriculum' in different ways. Taba defines a curriculum simply as a plan for learning (Taba, as cited in McKenney, Nieveen & van den Akker, 2006); Marsh and Willis (2007) prefer "an interrelated set of plans and experiences that a student undertakes under the guidance of school" (p. 15). Given the objectives of this study, definitions of this kind are not sufficiently explicit.

Kelly (2009) argues that a definition of curriculum need to involve several elements: "the intentions of the planners, the procedure adopted for the implementation of those intentions, the actual experiences of the pupils resulting from the teachers' direct attempts to carry out their or the planners' intentions, and the hidden learning that occurs as a by-product of the organisation of the curriculum and of the school" (p. 13). The intentions, according to Pratt (1980), include what learning is to be fostered, the means of evaluation to be used to assess learners, the criteria

for admission of students to the programme, the materials and equipment to be used, and the qualities required in instructors (p. 4). These two accounts of the term are relevant to this study as they specify the importance of intentions in curriculum component selection.

According to van den Akker (2003), the subject of curriculum can be approached at three levels: intended, implemented and attained curriculum (p. 3). The intended, which is also known as the formal or official curriculum, is a written document (see also Posner, 2004). The implemented or operational curriculum is the curriculum as interpreted by its users. It comprises the actual process of teaching, learning and tests. The attained curriculum is the resulting learning outcomes for learners. The focus of this research is on the MEd intended curriculum, the level of the curriculum at which intentions are specified in the curriculum document (van den Akker, 2003).

3.5.2 Curriculum design preparation and process

Design is defined as a "deliberate process of devising, planning, and selecting the elements, technique and procedures that constitute some object or endeavour" (Pratt, 1980, p. 5). It signifies a maximum degree of purposefulness and accuracy, resulting in a high chance of success (ibid.). Tyler proposed four fundamental questions to be answered in designing any curriculum or plan of instruction. These are:

1. What educational purposes should the school [university, in the case of this research] seek to attain?
2. What educational experiences can be provided that are likely to attain these purposes?
3. How can these educational experiences be effectively organised?
4. How can we determine whether these purposes are being attained?
   (Tyler (1949), as quoted by Posner, 2004, p. 15; Schiro, 2008, pp. 51-52; Kelly, 2009, p. 20).

These questions, According to Kelly (2009), provide a model for curriculum planning, which requires identifying the objectives of the curriculum, selecting the content and methods to achieve those objectives, and finding the tool to measure this achievement. Tyler's emphasis in curriculum planning was on the purposes or objectives of the curriculum (Kelly, 2009, p. 21). While other curriculum experts placed questions of content or organisation at the centre of

curriculum planning and development, Tyler insisted that content and organisation are contingent on the objectives of the curriculum. Evaluation should aim to assess how far the objectives have been achieved (ibid.). Kelly (2009) added that a curriculum should not be planned without reference to the national economy and or the national need for a specific career (p. 89). This means that a careful analysis of policies and career practice needs to be conducted (p. 90).

3.5.3 Principles guiding curriculum design: Recontextualising rules

Making decisions about a curriculum includes considering what the curriculum should include, how it can be enacted, and how students might experience it (Marsh & Willis, 2007). The process of curriculum design is guided by the principles or values informing the planning, decision, selection and modification to be made in the curriculum (Kelly, 2009). These principles are to be defined prior the commencement of the curriculum design process; indeed, they should be in place before the objectives of the curriculum are specified (ibid.).

Bernstein calls these principles recontextualising *rules* (Bernstein, 2000, p. 33). These rules, according to Bernstein, regulate the field of recontextualization, the site where curriculum design takes place. It is where knowledge is selectively appropriated, relocated and transformed into curriculum. Recontextualising rules guide the recontextualisation process in the recontextualisation field.

In theorising the pedagogy of a formal programme for university lecturers, Vorster and Quinn (2012) stipulate four principles which they argue "should be the *sine qua non* of all courses for academic staff" (p. 55). The four principles are:

- the formal programme is to contribute to participating lecturers developing informed understanding, knowledge and practices to design curricula and teach in ways which will support epistemological access for a diverse student body in South Africa;
- to recognise and respect the disciplinary background and identities of different lecturers, which results in discipline-specific curricula and pedagogy for the programme;
- to encourage participants to critically embrace their dual roles of knowledge producer and teacher; and
- to disrupt participants' common-sense understandings about teaching and learning (Vorster & Quinn, 2012, pp. 55-57).

These principles are supposed to guide staff development programmes and are "strongly informed by the field of academic development in South Africa" (Vorster & Quinn, 2012, p. 55). On the other hand, Korthagen, Loughran & Russell (2006), in their paper *Developing fundamental principles for teacher education programs and practices*, analysed effective features of teacher education programmes and developed a framework of fundamental principles to guide the development of responsive teacher education programmes. The paper's research question was: "what central principles shape teacher education programs and practices in ways that are responsive to the expectations, needs and practices of teacher educators and student teachers?" From this research question and the professional experience of authors from teacher education programmes in three very different locations (Australia, Canada, and the Netherlands), seven principles were formulated. These are:

1. Learning about teaching involves continuously conflicting and competing demands.
2. Learning about teaching requires a view of knowledge as a subject to be created rather than as a created subject.
3. Learning about teaching requires a shift in focus from the curriculum to the learner.
4. Learning about teaching is enhanced through (student) teacher research.
5. Learning about teaching requires an emphasis on those learning to teach working closely with their peers.
6. Learning about teaching requires meaningful relationships between schools, universities and student teachers.
7. Learning about teaching is enhanced when the teaching and learning approaches advocated in the programme are modelled by the teacher educators in their own practice (Korthagen et al., 2006, pp. 1025-1036).

These principles, according to the article authors, offer ways to develop guidelines to shape the nature of teaching teacher educators across contexts (Korthagen et al., 2006). The aim is to develop an effective pedagogy for teacher education in which theory and practice are linked efficiently. In addition, the principles offer new understandings of the pedagogy of teacher education that might be built on and extended in teacher education programmes and practices.

One of the concerns of this research is to identify the principles or recontextualising rules that guided the development of the MEd curricula. The research seeks to establish what principles

were in place and whether they were used to guide the curriculum design process for the MEd programme.

3.5.4 Needs assessment: National and learners' needs

Needs assessment is a collection of "procedures for identifying and validating curriculum needs and establishing priorities among them" (Pratt, 1980, p. 79). Performing a needs assessment directs designers to specific problems that the programme is intended to address. Identification of the general need follows the specific needs assessment. Wenger (1998) argues that as designers develop curricula and programmes, the implications of their perspectives, theories and beliefs should extend further. To put it another way, consideration of society's needs may lead curriculum designers to downgrade other needs, such as institutional needs, for the betterment of the nation. After all, education institutions such as universities, according to Posner (2004) (though there are of course other perspectives on this matter) are among a society's most significant institutions and might therefore be expected to contribute towards the achievement of that society's goals.

While "social needs are not always reducible to individual learners needs", Pratt (1980) maintains that valuing learners' needs involves placing them at the heart of the curriculum (p. 53; see also Kelly, 2009). Thus, a curriculum that ignores a learner's economic future and contribution to society "may leave the graduate vulnerable in many areas" (p. 68). A MEd programme, for example, which aims simply to confer any old qualification on its students, will not be of much help to a society that has a problem with the quality of its education system, including a scarcity of teachers and teacher educators. In this situation, where both learners and social needs have to be considered, the solution is to "identify the clients and develop the curriculum to meet their needs" (Pratt, 1980, p. 53). Importantly, in MEd programmes, the clients are not only the future teacher educators but also school teachers and the children they will teach (Pratt, 1980; Guilfoyle et al., 1997; Ben-Peretz et al., 2010; Swennen et al., 2009).

3.5.5 Organising for curriculum design

The identification of curriculum needs does not automatically establish the nature or feasibility of the curriculum design process and implementation (Pratt, 1980). What follows are some observations on the organisation of the curriculum design process. This involves several issues,

including forming a team of curriculum designers, justifying the necessity of the curriculum, considering curriculum parameters, design and implementation constraints, and overall curriculum feasibility.

3.5.5.1 Forming curriculum design team

Forming a curriculum design team of experts is necessary before the designing process can begin. This is a central issue in this thesis and is discussed in the analysis in Chapter Six. The size of the team and the expertise and personal qualities of its members must be decided upon for effective and quality performance. Five to seven experts in subject matter, pedagogy, curriculum design, measurement and other disciplines, depending on the field of the curriculum, can form a productive and professionally enriched designer team (Pratt, 1980). On the other hand, selecting the wrong people, such as traditional experts resistant to change or an institutional administrator with power over the other team members, might impede the effectiveness of the team and affect the quality of the curriculum.

According to Schiro (2008) the crucial task of the curriculum design team is the construction of the curriculum discipline (see also Pratt, 1980, p. 70). Thus, before embarking on the curriculum design task, the team first needs to study the discipline in a detailed manner to allow them to characterise the forms of knowledge within the discipline (Connelly, as cited in Schiro, 2008, p. 19). This is done to ensure that the team is able to define the nature of the discipline of which the courses in the curriculum are part (Kind & Brownell, as cited in Schiro, 2008). The task is accomplished through several steps. These include establishing the roles and functions that the professionals in the discipline perform, describing the skills that those professionals need to acquire, identifying the knowledge domain of the discipline, determining the core areas of the discipline in relation to the professional field of practice, and elucidating instructional strategies for the discipline (p. 19). Indeed all these steps are important to ensure that "*only* the knowledge contained in the discipline is appropriate to the curriculum" (Phenix, as quoted by Schiro, 2008, p. 20). If the field of practice of the discipline is poorly defined, an attempt to develop a knowledge base for the discipline may be weakened (Hordern, 2016). It should also be noted that the choice of instructional strategies depends on the nature of the disciplinary knowledge and hence can only be made after the discipline has been specified (Schiro, 2008).

Thus to ensure that professionals have access to appropriate disciplinary knowledge for future practice, the team of curriculum designers must have the capacity to recognise and validate appropriate forms of knowledge for that profession (Hordern, 2016). It has been observed, however, that many educators working in schools, faculties or departments of education have neither the resources nor the training to accomplish this task (Schiro, 2008). Most of them consult their memories of courses taken during their academic training, or borrow from programmes at other academic institutions accessible to them (p. 19). Whether the team is made up of experts in the discipline or not, its first task remains: "to consult and gain understanding of the discipline that the curriculum is to elaborate" (Schiro, p. 20).

3.5.5.2 Justifying the necessity of the curriculum

Before curriculum development decisions are made, it is necessary to find out how successfully curriculum needs will be met. Justifying the curriculum in terms of its actual value to its intended learners is a necessary endeavour for curriculum designers. It is the duty of the curriculum designer to develop curriculum topics or courses and select assignments that achieve the learning that will be of greatest value to students, and to make sure that this learning is enabled by competent teachers/lecturers.

3.5.5.3 Curriculum parameters

Parameters such as institutional context, target population, cost and time are to be considered before the development of the curriculum commences (Pratt, 1980). Institutional costs include payments of lecturers' salaries and purchasing programme resources. Consideration of time, in the case of a programme such as the MEd, involves the duration of the whole programme, as well as the time allocated to the delivery of each course and related activity, and for research.

The accessibility of the programme for learners, the target population, is a parameter to be deliberated before the design of the programme has begun. A programme designed without considering the availability of students can collapse even if it has a quality curriculum that reflects students' needs.

3.5.5.4 Design and implementation constraints

Design and implementation constraints include adequate qualified teaching staff, students' ability, background and motivation, and financial and material constraints. Other possible

constraints include administrators' attitudes, policy constraints (such as the lack of curriculum standards and competences), as well as constraints of time. Physical environmental constraints might include small lecture rooms, little space for reading in the library, and shortages of other teaching and learning resources such as software, up-to-date books, e-resources and internet connectivity.

3.5.5.5 Curriculum feasibility

The other organising issue is curriculum feasibility, i.e. whether the curriculum can actually be delivered to meet the educational and training needs within specified parameters (Pratt, 1980). Formulating curriculum objectives in relation to implementation constraints may reveal what a programme can and cannot do.

3.5.6 Curriculum components

Authorities on curriculum design identify various components that a formal curriculum document needs to encompass. Walker reduced these to three: content, purpose and organisation of learning (Walker, as cited in van den Akker, 2003, p. 4). Beane, Toepfer & Alessi (1986) cite five components to be included in the intended curriculum document: a statement of learning objectives or planned outcomes, content, activities, resources, and measuring devices (p. 70). However, van den Akker (2003) argues the curriculum designers need explicitly to define and elaborate more curriculum components. He proposes a spider web visual model composed of ten curriculum components, as shown in Figure 3.1, below.

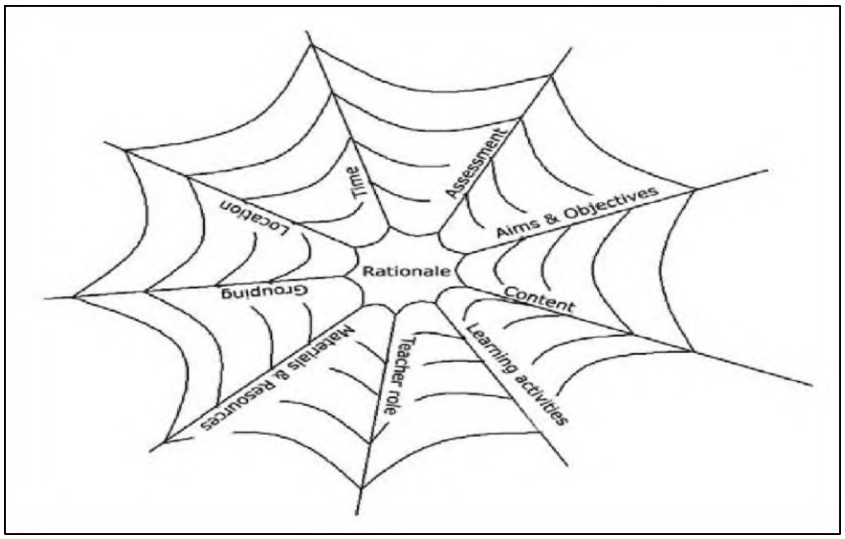

Figure 3.1 Spider web model of curriculum components (van der Akker, 2003, p. 6)

The rationale is at the core of the web. It connects together the other components: aims and objectives, content, learning activities, teacher role, materials and resources, grouping, location, time and assessment (van den Akker, 2003, p. 5). All ten components are essential, in one way or the other, in the written curriculum document at all levels of education and hence need to be addressed coherently for successful curriculum implementation (van den Akker, 2003). The spider web model aims to illustrate the interconnectedness of the curriculum components. The web also presents the vulnerability of the curriculum (see also McKenney et al., 2006) and its need to be *flexible* to allow for changes in any of its components whenever these are deemed necessary to maintain the alignment and coherence of the programme and its objectives (p. 5). The model also demonstrates that "every chain is as strong as its weakest link" (van den Akker, 2003, p. 5), meaning that every component must be respected to ensure that the curriculum is designed in "a balanced, consistent and sustainable manner" (see also McKenney et al., 2006).

The following sections discuss the curriculum components including curriculum rationale, aims and selection of knowledge reference to teacher educators' curriculum.

3.5.6.1 Curriculum rationale

According to the literature, the rationale for the curriculum needs to be given priority during curriculum design. The rationale refers to the overall, central mission of the curriculum. It justifies the necessity of the curriculum, explaining why it has to be developed and implemented. It is an argument that justifies the pursuit of the aim of the curriculum.

3.5.6.2 Aims of education

In approaching the process of developing teacher education programmes, we need to begin with a careful consideration of the aims of education. The aims of education are general statements attempting to give direction to a set of more detailed intentions for the future (Davies, 1976, p. 12). Although general in nature, the aims of education are explicit in identifying activities that are regarded as educationally valuable and worthwhile. However formulated, such aims will tend to be broadly philosophical (p. 13). A successful process of curriculum design thus requires the designers to recall, re-examine and re-affirm a philosophy of education. There is a danger that this philosophy may be buried deep in the subconscious or pushed to the back of the mind as

something immutable. It is important, for that reason, to keep in mind that programmes are inevitably hostage to specific philosophies and perspectives (Wenger, 1998).

When educators hold different philosophies, each enters a lecture theatre with different aims in mind. Explicitly linking their philosophies to the determination of educational aims may help to solve this problem. The implication is that a curriculum in teacher education, or indeed in anything, needs to be planned as a whole programme and not on a unit-by-unit basis. A programme needs to be orientated as a coherent whole towards its own ultimate aims. This leads to a discussion of content: what should a lecturer, for example, teach beginning teacher educators so that they can train school teachers effectively to transmit quality school education for better school achievements? What to teach has to be finalised after a clear consideration of the intended outcomes. Therefore, a starting point for the discussion of appropriate content is an examination of educational aims.

3.5.6.2.1 Aims of university education and customer demands

Different people, institutions and policy documents have differing beliefs about and commitments to education (Posner, 2004). The Tanzania Institute of Education states that curriculum in the contemporary outlook is viewed as a mirror reflecting the society's philosophy and culture, including its agreed sources of knowledge and its education goals (MoEVT. TIE, 2009b, p. vii). A well-educated person, according to the Tanzanian philosophy of Education for Self-Reliance, apart from being individually self-sufficient, is supposed to increase productivity in the work place and thus benefit the entire nation. However, educators in the higher education sector come across students whose only reason for undertaking, for instance, a MEd programme, is to acquire a qualification to increase their salary. In their paper discussing the marketisation of British higher education, Molesworth, Nixon & Scullion (2009) contend that higher education marketing is a discourse that has led to the provision of limited pedagogy to students. It has created a situation in which students seek to have a degree rather than be learners. This situation leads to universities aiming for programmes with students as *customers* in the education market place, and neglecting *demand-driven* fields, such as the production of teachers and teacher educators.

Some literature argues that the only demands that should be allowed to influence university programmes are the intellectual demands embodied within the academic disciplines, concerned solely with the development of the intellect through the pursuit of knowledge and/or gaining skills for a particular profession (Schiro, 2008; Beck & Young, 2005; Hordern, 2016). Whether one accepts this view or not, universities need to restrain themselves from allowing their programmes to be influenced by applicant-interest pressure from those who want a qualification only to increase their income or achieve promotion. One of the issues investigated in this research was whether the courses in the MEd programmes were driven by customer demand, and to what extent this might affect the development of quality teacher educators.

3.5.6.3 Selecting knowledge

Curriculum content present knowledge that learners are expected to learn. It involves important facts, principles, concepts and understandings related to the objectives and organising centre, the rationale of the curriculum (Beane et al., 1986, p. 70).

The content of a particular programme needs to be grounded within distinct disciplinary knowledge that the programme aims to develop. The designers need to construct the curriculum so that the knowledge it presents reflects the nature of the discipline involved in such a way that students coming into contact with the curriculum will be exposed to the essence of the discipline themselves (Schiro, 2008, p. 19).

Curriculum designers need to make suitable choices concerning the knowledge to be included in the programme(s). Concerning the question of what needs to be considered when selecting the knowledge to be included, van den Akker (2003) mentioned three sources:

- Knowledge: what is the academic and cultural heritage that seems essential for learning and future development?
- Society: which problems and issues seem relevant for inclusion from the perspective of social trends and needs?
- Learners: which elements seem of vital importance for learning from the personal and educational needs and interests of the learners themselves? (p. 6; see also McKenney et al., 2006, p. 68)

This formula emphasises the coherence and relatedness of the knowledge to the learners' and society's needs, and stresses the essence of the curriculum by placing disciplinary knowledge prior to consideration of the society's and learners' needs (Schiro, 2008). That is to say "curriculum concerns other than those embodied within the discipline itself are excluded from contributing to the development of the essence of the curriculum" (p. 20). Hence, "*all* curriculum knowledge should be drawn from the discipline" (Phenix, as quoted by Schiro, 2008, p. 20).

Selecting curriculum knowledge for a programme is a challenging process in an academic field such as education. This is because the field embraces more than one discipline, including as it does school teachers, teacher educators, educational administrators, managers and others. On top of that, there are different views as to which knowledge and which discipline has greater value (Schiro, 2008). Taking the case of the MEd programme for teacher educator preparation, one should identify the various types of knowledge germane to the discipline; determine the nature of each type of knowledge, its essence and value to the discipline, and make decisions based on the relationship among them in respect of the roles and functions of teacher educators. This is where the real challenge begins. The solution is to determine suitable proportional representation of knowledge types for this particular discipline and omit knowledge identified as belonging to other disciplines. This is only possible, as noted in section 3.5.5.1, if the curriculum design team studies the discipline in a detailed manner that allows them to identify the forms of knowledge characteristic of the discipline (Schiro, 2008).

3.5.6.3.1 University curriculum knowledge selection and customer demands

Curriculum design is a process influenced by a wide variety of stakeholders. The process has been said to be inherently problematic as it involves conflicts of interests and values between these different stakeholders. While professionalism is a distinct logic based upon notions of specialisation and beliefs that professional practice "cannot be standardised" (Freidson, as quoted by Hordern, 2016, p. 441), different people hold different beliefs about what students need to learn (Posner, 2004). Beck and Young (2005) talk of university programme design being invaded by market interests that erase the principle of institutional autonomy (see also Evetts, 2011), while Hordern (2016) warns that when business interests are prominent in programme design, this conduces to accumulating "greater volumes of knowledge for consumer satisfaction" rather than pure disciplinary knowledge (p. 7).

Van den Akker argues that when designers select curriculum knowledge, the implications of academic beliefs, theories and perspectives, and the interests of the institution, need to be kept far behind the need to foreground disciplinary knowledge, learners' needs, and the needs of society (van den Akker, 2003). That is, a programme needs to be designed in such a way that it serves the needs of a particular profession, resisting external influences so as to maintain disciplinary stability (Hordern, 2016).

The discussion now moves on to professional knowledge and identity. This thesis is centrally concerned with the investigation of the professional knowledge embodied in MEd programmes that a school teacher should acquire for the development of a teacher educator professional identity. Sections 3.6 to 3.8, below, provide a detailed review of literature on teacher educator professional knowledge. The *what* and the *how* of teacher teaching and the way this knowledge helps an individual to acquire a teacher educator identity is discussed. Other curriculum components, including instructional strategies and activities, are discussed in Section 3.9.

3.6 Professional knowledge and identity

A discussion of professional knowledge and professional identity becomes relevant in this research because the analysis of the Master of Education programmes aims to understand whether the professional knowledge in these programmes facilitates the transition of their students' identity from that of school teacher to that of teacher educator in tertiary and higher education institutions.

Professional knowledge can be defined as a "body of knowledge and skills which is needed in order to function successfully in a particular profession" (Tamir, as quoted by Smith, 2005, p. 178). Recent research reveals that becoming a professional involves more than just acquiring specific knowledge and skills; it is also about acquiring new ways of conducting and constituting oneself in a professional manner (Dall'Alba & Barnacle, 2007). Thus in learning to become a teacher educator a beginning teacher educator needs not only to acquire the knowledge and skills for professional practice, but also new ways of defining himself or herself as a professional (Ben-Peretz et al., 2010; Sutherland & Markauskaite, 2012).

Professional identity comprises a set of attributes that are used to differentiate one group from another (Ben-Peretz et al., 2010, p. 114). Beginning teacher educators have identities derived from being school teachers, identities that necessarily form the starting point of their development as teacher educators (Murray & Male, 2005; McKeon & Harrison, 2010; Swennen et al., 2010). They need to change and expand their identity from school teachers working with school children to teacher educators working with adult learners (Swennen et al., 2009). This move into the world of higher education is described by Hamilton, Loughran and Marcondes as a shift, "to (the) more expansive academic expectations as teacher educators for the development, communication and critique of knowledge of practice in scholarly ways" (2009, p. 210). This particular professional identity obliges teacher educators to be committed to the field as well as to the academy (Ben-Peretz et al., 2010, p. 119).

The development of teacher educators' professional identities is achieved through facilitating the building of a strong knowledge base of the field of teaching and learning, in order to enable teacher educators to teach teachers in ways that make their practice of their discipline explicit. It is a process that must include the requisite training and building of a body of specific knowledge to grant teacher educators an understanding of teaching that goes beyond that of being a good teacher, and involves knowing and being able to articulate the 'what', the 'how' and the 'why' of teaching (McKeon & Harrison, 2010, p. 26). The preparation programmes for teacher educators have to be constructed on a strong knowledge base with an awareness of the kind of professionals the programmes intend to develop (Shagrir, 2010).

3.7 Professional knowledge and identity: Singulars and regions

Education and training in the academic world consists of many different disciplines, such as psychology, management, sociology and leadership. Each of these disciplines is autonomous, determining the nature of its own knowledge and ways of knowing (instructional strategies for knowledge transmission) (Schiro, 2008, p. 23). Schiro (2008) contends that:

> It [a discipline] can be judged only according to its own criteria. Each is self-governing, and none is responsible to any authority outside or beyond itself… Each consists of a variety of distinct and organised knowledge and ways of knowing specific to a particular discipline. (p. 23)

Schiro (2008) maintains that "no extra-disciplinary authority legislates behaviours appropriate for representatives of the discipline to engage in while designers create curriculum" (p. 24).

Basil Bernstein talks of disciplines such as sociology as singulars and programmes such as architecture and medicine as regions (Bernstein, 2000). He defines singulars as disciplines constituting specialised, distinct forms of knowledge with strong boundaries that are mostly orientated inwards towards their own disciplinary specialisations (p. 9). For Bernstein, a region faces both inwards towards its disciplinary singulars and outwards to the professional field of practice. It joins disciplinary singulars of related professional knowledge into the bigger unit of a field of practice for a specific professional identity. Thus a strong region is composed of a *particular stable organisation* or configuration of singulars, with a specific series of spatial and morphological relationships between them (see Elder-Vass, 2005, p. 321; see also Emmeche, Koppe & Stjernfelt, as cited in Elder-Vass, 2005, p. 320).

Disciplinary knowledge in higher education is not only a source of academic identity, but also a means of structuring curricula (Barnett et al., 2001). To acquire the specialised skills of a particular professional identity depends on the prior attainment of a specialised disciplinary knowledge of that profession. According to Muller and Young (2014), professional identity rests largely on what the professional can do. Muller (2009) observes that regions without disciplinary knowledge might be weak, and might consequently inculcate weak academic identities. The knowledge base of a region will be weak without a disciplinary core necessary for professional tasks. This explains why regions with strong disciplinary knowledge such as engineering and medicine are themselves strong and produce people with strong academic identities, while regions with weak or non-existent disciplinary foundations, like tourism, do not (Muller, 2009). Disciplinary professional knowledge is, therefore, the key to strengthening the professional identity of a region. To put it another way, strong regions construct strong professional identities by combining singulars with related professional knowledge for that field of practice. The concepts of singulars and regions, together with other Bernstein theoretical concepts, are discussed further in Chapter Four.

Section 3.8 below is about teacher educators' knowledge which is a central concern of this thesis. The sub-sections discuss teacher educators' academic and pedagogical knowledge, which are of particular relevance for the analysis in answering the second research question.

3.8 Teacher educators' knowledge: The 'what' and the 'how' of teacher education

Researchers who focus on the knowledge demands of teaching argue that teaching requires a great deal of knowledge that is specific to the work of teaching (Grossman, Hammerness & McDonald, 2009). As noted above, the literature on knowledge demands indicates that teachers with a greater knowledge of teaching and learning are more highly rated and are more effective with students (Darling-Hammond, 2000; Liston et al., 2008; Grossman et al., 2009; Malm, 2009). Teachers who are dissatisfied with their training admitted to getting inadequate preparation and experiencing difficulties in planning a curriculum, teaching, managing the classroom, and diagnosing students' learning needs; as well as being less able to adapt their mode of instruction to promote student learning (Darling-Hammond, 2000, p. 167). Such teachers are less confident and less successful with students than those who have had more preparation for teaching. Similarly, for teacher educators, a narrowly focused teacher educators' preparation programme, with a limited range of structural and implementation practices, is not likely to foster deep understanding and competent practices in beginning teacher educators (Hollins, Luna & Lopez, 2014, p. 122).

Smith (2005) argues that if teacher educators are to establish a strong foundation for teaching prospective teachers, they need to develop two types of knowledge: practical, in the form of new curricula for teacher education and for schools, and theoretical, generated from research. Zeichner (2005) takes a more expansive view. He contends that teacher educators who work with prospective teachers need to take: at least a basic course that deals with conceptual issues and policy debates in teacher education; research literature on learning to teach, the nature and efficacy of different instructional strategies; and a module on mentoring and assessing teaching (p. 122). These are in keeping with Goodwin and Kosnik's (2013) five knowledge domains of teaching for teacher educators – *personal knowledge*, *contextual knowledge*, *pedagogical knowledge, sociological knowledge* and *social knowledge* – which they argue are all essential in teacher educator preparation programmes (2013, p. 338).

This research focuses on the 'what' of teacher education, that is, the theoretical content of MEd courses, and the 'how' of teacher education, the way the content is transmitted and assessed (refer to Section 3.2.2). The five knowledge domains and the other knowledge of teaching for teacher educators discussed constitute theoretical knowledge of the 'what', the academic content knowledge, plus the pedagogical knowledge of 'how' to know. The sections that follow provide a detailed discussion of each and describe how they relate to teacher educators' roles and functions in tertiary education institutions.

3.8.1 The 'what' of teacher education: The academic content knowledge of teaching

Academic content knowledge or the theoretical knowledge of teaching, which includes *personal knowledge*, *contextual knowledge*, *sociological knowledge, social knowledge* and *research knowledge,* forms the 'what' of teacher education (Goodwin & Kosnik, 2013, p. 338). In terms of *personal knowledge,* Murray and Male (2005) argue that teacher educators enter the profession with many implicit theories about what it means to teach. They bring particular knowledge, experience, beliefs and values to their new role, developed primarily through their interactions in schools (Berry, 2009). Owing to that, teacher educators require formal preparation which includes "restructuring their cognitive maps with reformed and/or new understandings" (Richardson, as quoted by Goodwin & Kosnik, 2013, p. 339) through "a process of re-constructing a professional identity" (Bullock & Christou, as quoted by Goodwin & Kosnik, 2013, p. 339). Through self-study, self-analysis and self-reflection, beginning teacher educators can critically unearth the beliefs, (mis)conceptions, attitudes, assumptions and biases embedded in their personal histories (Goodwin & Kosnik, 2013, p. 339; see also Senese, 2007; Hamilton et al., 2009).

Sociological knowledge equips teacher educators with knowledge of social diversity, cultural relevance, and social justice. These are essential for teacher educators if they are to prepare prospective teachers to deal with equity and diversity issues in their classrooms (Goodwin & Kosnik, 2013). Furthermore, if teachers are expected to create classroom environments in which cooperation, democratic group processes and conflict resolution are valued, then teacher educators need *social knowledge* to understand and model these processes in teacher education programmes (p. 343).

Teacher educators also need *contextual knowledge* for understanding students, schools, and society. This includes knowledge of the physical environments of schools and classrooms as well as the student teachers, including for example, who they are as adult learners and how their histories and personal narratives shape the ways in which they perceive, define and do teaching (Goodwin & Kosnik, 2013). It also includes knowledge gained through research, which presumes knowledge of how to do research (p. 340). Zeichner (2005) offers a caution about the lack of research knowledge in the education of teacher educators. He contends that this inhibits them from seeing their practice in new ways that challenge their prevailing perceptions. It also impedes them from knowing what has been learned by teacher educators in other programmes about particular aspects of teacher education, such as instructional strategies (pp. 122-123). In short, theoretical knowledge helps teacher educators perform better in their profession when it is based on knowledge of research.

One of the roles of teacher educators in higher education identified by the Association of Teacher Educators in the US (ATE) is to conduct research (ATE. Why the standards, n.d.). A number of other studies on teacher educators indicate that research is important for teacher educators and teacher education (Wilson, 2006; Livingston, McCall & Morgado, 2009; Cochran-Smith, 2012). These studies focus on the professional learning outcomes for teacher educators in relation to the practice of research and the professional learning associated with teacher educators' work (Kosnik, 2007; Jasman, 2010; Patrizio, Ballock & McNary, 2011).

As indicated earlier, many beginning teacher educators are former school teachers, or tutors in teacher colleges. In both cases, they have to be acquainted with the demands of higher education, including research (Cochran-Smith, 2005; Kane, 2007; Swennen & van der Klink, 2009; Loughran, 2014). Research courses in education programmes for teacher educators are supposed to equip them with three areas of knowledge and skills: knowledge of research approaches, theories, methods and methodology; the skills of designing and doing research, including using software in analysis and current tools in data collection; and the skills of supervising student teachers' research papers and independent studies (see also Wilson, 2006).

In order to make this happen, expert teacher educators who teach these courses need themselves to engage creatively in research to update their research knowledge and practices (Lunenberg &

Hamilton, 2008). Engagement in the formal study of research on teaching provides opportunities for expert teacher educators to illuminate perspectives on their own practice (Kosnik, 2007). In order to be able not only to teach, but also to supervise future teachers, beginning teacher educators need appropriate skills and knowledge (Khan, 2011).

Research knowledge is also related to the quality of the education system. Lotz-Sisitka (2012) contends that if we are to meet the challenges of achieving quality education in the local context, instead of relying on research from the large multinational research organisations, we should strengthen local research capacity (p. 34). This is particularly relevant to the research capacity of the classroom teacher, who needs to develop the skills and competences to understand how he or she is approaching educational quality matters in schools.

Research knowledge is thus important for both beginner and expert teacher educators, as it assists them in attempts to improve the quality of the educational process, including existing teacher education programmes (Livingston et al., 2009). They gain new insights and understandings through research, engaging in an on-going dialogue to enhance the quality of education (Iliško, Ignatjeva & Mičule, 2011). Research also helps them to question 'taken for granted' assumptions and preconceptions (Iliško et al., 2011, p. 89), and to determine how teacher education programmes and policies affect learning. It furnishes them with perspectives in which to interrogate the link between teacher education programmes and quality teacher educators (Wiens, 2012). It increases their awareness of new viewpoints and actions that can contribute to the transformation of old educational structures, practices and meanings (Iliško et al., 2011).

3.8.2 The 'how' of teacher education: Pedagogical knowledge

Equally important is the 'how' of teacher education. The lack of pedagogical knowledge associated with the education of teacher educators lies at the heart of the debate on *teacher education* and the school *teaching experience* of future teacher educators. It is partly a result of the assumption that *a good teacher will also make a good teacher educator* (Korthagen et al., 2005, p. 110; see also Swennen et al., 2009), and that a pedagogical knowledge of school teaching will flawlessly be transmuted into the pedagogy of teaching teachers (Zeichner, 2005; see also Murray & Male, 2005).

Buchberger et al. analyse the recruitment and training of teacher educators in European countries and conclude that "most teacher educators have never received education and training in methodologies of teaching, cooperation and learning appropriate for adult learners" (Buchberger et al, as quoted by Korthagen et al., 2005, p. 110). This is a consequence of the assumption that teaching methodologies learned from school teacher education will be enough to prepare a candidate for the role of teacher educator. However, as Berry (2009) concedes: "as a beginning teacher educator, I soon came to learn that the professional knowledge I had developed in my former role as a high school teacher was limited in terms of enacting a pedagogy of teacher education" (p. 310). Such confessions are common in the reflective self-studies of teachers in the process of becoming a teacher educator (Kitchen, 2005; Ritter, 2007; Williams et al., 2012), a process that is generally taken for granted as non-problematic (Korthagen et al., 2005; Kane, 2007; Kosnik, 2007; Murray et al., 2009).

As "teacher education involves teaching about pedagogy" (McKeon & Harrison, 2010, p. 26), it has been argued that teacher educators are in need of a more comprehensive understanding of pedagogy (Swennen & van der Klink, 2009; Ritter, 2007). Loughran (2007) adds that "doing teaching to student teachers requires a deep and well-conceptualised understanding of pedagogy that is developed, articulated, critiqued and refined in the crucible of practice itself" (p. 14). Berry (2009) concurs, adding that:

> The knowledge required by teacher educators is, in many ways, far more extensive than that required of schoolteachers, since teacher educators must know not only about their subject discipline, school aged learners and schooling, but also about how student teachers learn and develop and strategies for assisting student teachers in the processes of their professional growth. (p. 306)

Goodwin and Kosnik (2013) speak of the *pedagogical knowledge* of teacher educators as comprising the knowledge and skills involved in organising instructional activities, pedagogical content knowledge, curriculum design and subject matter or content knowledge for teaching, all of which must be included in their preparation programmes (p. 340). The work on teachers' subject matter knowledge has tried to differentiate the kind of knowledge a well-educated person might have about a subject from the specialised knowledge of a subject required for teaching.

Here, the knowledge of content for teacher teaching must embrace pedagogical knowledge (Shulman, 1986).

The overarching problem for teacher education, as identified by Ball (2000), is the fact that the prevalent conceptualisation and organisation of teacher educator programmes tends to fragment practice. This presents a challenge to individual teacher educators in terms of incorporating academic content knowledge and pedagogy into their work. Yet pedagogical knowledge, including pedagogical content knowledge, has a more direct bearing on teaching and learning than theoretical knowledge and is more frequently found to influence teaching performance (Ball, 2000).

Shulman (1987) describes pedagogical content knowledge as a special knowledge because "it identifies the distinctive bodies of knowledge for teaching. It represents the blending of content and pedagogy into an understanding of how particular topics, problems, or issues are organised, represented, and adapted to the diverse interests and abilities of learners, and presented for instruction" (p. 8). To focus on pedagogical content knowledge is to make pedagogical content knowledge understandable to students (Shulman, 1986; see also Tamir, 1988; Gess-Newsome, 1999; van Driel & Berry, 2010).

Talking as a lecturer and an expert teacher educator, Loughran argues that the pedagogy of teacher education is based on two complementary aspects of knowledge and practice: teaching about teaching and learning about teaching (Loughran, as cited in Loughran, 2014, p. 275). Pedagogical knowledge and the practice of learning about teaching is concerned with how teachers come to learn from, and then develop as a consequence of, their teacher education experiences (Loughran, 2014, p. 275). Teacher educators not only have the role of supporting student teachers' learning about teaching, but through their own teaching, they are modelling the role of the teacher (Korthagen et al., 2005).

For Loughran, teaching about teaching means that teacher educators do not only transfer knowledge like a school teacher to children. In his words, "[pedagogical] knowledge and practice of teaching [about] teaching requires much more than the simple delivery of information about teaching" (Loughran, as quoted by Loughran, 2014, p. 275). It is about exposing one's own practice of pedagogy in supporting the learning of teachers (Loughran & Berry, 2005;

Wilson, 2006; Loughran, 2014), and developing novice teachers' understanding of how to exercise judgment about when and how to use a particular instructional strategy (Zeichner, 2005).

3.9 Instructional strategies

Instructional strategies, also known as teaching approaches or methods of instruction or mode of delivery, are techniques used for the transmission and acquisition of knowledge. Pascarella and Terenzini (1991, 2005) (as cited in Braxton, 2008, p. 183) outline teaching skills for university lecturers, such as having a good command of the subject matter, clarity in the explanation of course material, structuring the course and using course time well, and using examples to identify key points, all of which can positively influence student subject matter learning. Lecturers are believed to teach well if they acquire and apply such teaching skills and methods of instruction. However, these approaches require considerable planning.

In contrast, active learning such as class discussions, debates and pair and group work which requires much less effort and time to implement, can also be applied. The suitability of these active learning instructional strategies to universities is that they are not restricted to courses with small numbers of students. Instead of lecturers teaching courses with large classes using only the lecture method, such courses can be taught by adopting an "enhanced lectures" method, which involves short mini-lectures followed by active learning activities (Bonwell, as quoted by Braxton, 2008, p. 184). Grossman, Valencia, Evans, Thompson, Martin & Place (2000) found that "teachers drew on pedagogical tools introduced during teacher education to develop their classroom practice". They contend that "conceptual tools that are reinforced with practical strategies proved to be more influential" (p. 631).

3.9.1 Teacher educators' instructional strategy: Modelling

One of the functions of teacher educators, as discussed in Section 3.3.3.1, is to be a model. Teacher educators can serve as models for their student teachers through their teaching about teaching and, indeed, are expected to be good models of the kind of teaching they are trying to promote (Loughran & Berry, 2005; Swennen et al., 2008; Ben-Peretz et al., 2010). Swennen and van der Klink (2009) caution, that modelling is a complex skill that requires both a deep understanding of teaching and of oneself as a teacher educator (p. 221; see Berry, 2009). This

means that, for beginning teacher educators to be able to model teaching and learning about teaching, expert educators have to model this for them.

Finding ways to help beginning teacher educators to acquire the knowledge, skills, and attitudes for the effective teaching of teachers is an on-going challenge, but it must be remembered that continuing learning is central to the professions of teaching and teacher education (Jasman, 2010). Even expert teacher educators are required to be updated in recent developments, including new teaching and learning methods, so as to improve their own teaching (Smith, 2005).

Professional development activities such as courses, workshops, familiarisation with updated professional literature and engagement in self-study research, often feature rich descriptions of the problems that expert educators encounter in their practice (Wood & Borg, 2010; Hollins et al., 2014). Numbers of these self-studies show a variety of learning effects concerning the higher level of consciousness perceived to be important in teaching about teaching (Kane, 2007; Kosnik, 2007; Berry, 2009).

Expert teacher educators are also to keep in mind that beginning teacher educators are not the only group to be taken into account in their teaching and modelling. They also have an obligation to student teachers, the future students of the beginning teacher educators. Expert teacher educators, therefore, need to update their practices, including developing effective modelling practices, while teaching beginners to be critical of those very practices.

3.9.2 Linking and integrating theory into practice

Traditional approaches to teacher education are increasingly critiqued for making insufficient impact on practice (Korthagen et al., 2006). It is not difficult to find research reports that illustrate that traditional teacher education programmes generally consist of a collection of separate courses in which theory is presented without much connection to practice (Korthagen et al., 2005). Several authors claim that the effects of teacher education on the actual practices of teachers are generally scanty. A gap between theory and practice seems to persist across different times and contexts (Brouwer & Korthagen, 2005). Subject matter and pedagogy have been peculiarly and persistently divided in the conceptualisation and curriculum of teacher education

and learning to teach (Ball, 2000). This fragmentation leaves teacher educators on their own to face the challenge of integrating subject matter knowledge and pedagogy in the contexts of their work (p. 242). The assumption is that integrating theory into practice is simple and happens in the course of experience.

For Brouwer and Korthagen (2005, integration refers to (a) arranging competence acquisition as a gradual process in which each step forms a preparation for the next; (b) coordinating the acquisition of theoretical knowledge with practice in teaching skills; and (c) arranging learning as an inquiry into one's own actions (p. 158). Murray and Male (2005) explain that teacher education involves identifying the interrelationships between what is taught ('the content') and how the various 'pedagogical modes' are used. They argue that "knowledge of the *discipline* or *subject* of education and the pedagogical knowledge of how to teach that *subject* in higher education are inseparable for teacher education" (p. 126).

Findings from the study by Darling-Hammond (2000) indicate that reforms in teacher education, resulting in more tightly integrated programmes with extended practical preparation interwoven with coursework on learning and teaching, produce teachers who are both more effective and more likely to enter and stay in teaching (p. 166). Cavanaugh proposes several guidelines for closing the gap between theory and practice (as quoted by Ben-Peretz et al., 2010, p. 116). These include:

- Professional education must help students develop an effective system for learning that will facilitate their transition into practice.
- Professional education must integrate problem-solving experiences with knowledge acquisition in order to emphasise the continuous need to utilise and apply knowledge in practice.
- Professional education should embrace pluralism in research paradigms and seek to integrate research activities with professional education and practice concerns.

(Cavanaugh, as quoted by Ben-Peretz et al., 2010, p. 117)

Both the findings from Darling-Hammond (2000) and these three guidelines are aimed at the education of teachers, but I believe they apply equally to the education of teacher educators. In this research I relate the insights gained from interviews on the lack of sufficient and appropriate time for practical activities and skill applications to the absence of teaching practice in MEd programmes, and the impact of this on the quality of teacher educators.

3.9.3 Teaching practice

Research shows that preconceptions and traditions have a remarkable resistance to any attempts to change them, which in this context can in part be explained by their firm roots in the many years of experience that professors and senior lecturers have had as students and teachers within the same educational system (Korthagen & Kessels, 1999). The absence of teaching practice in the postgraduate teacher education programmes is a traditional arrangement that everyone has passed through and hence sees no need for change. However, as was argued earlier, teaching teachers involves more than "sharing tips and tricks that have been 'picked up' or accumulated through school teaching experience" (Loughran, as cited in Loughran, 2014, p. 275). Berry (2009) maintains that "many new teacher educators quickly learn that the knowledge they bring typically in the form of stories, activities and classroom routines cannot 'simply' be transferred into the thinking and actions of their student teachers" (p. 306). She describes this as a challenging situation for beginning teacher educators trying to build a new identity as competent professionals (see also Ritter, 2007; Wood & Borg, 2010; Williams, et al., 2012).

The literature agrees that teacher educators need to pay careful attention to teaching practices to experiment with how best to help novice student teachers develop skilled practice (Murray & Male, 2005; Grossman et al., 2009). Taking these practices seriously requires teacher educators to add the former school teachers' pedagogies for teaching children to the teaching about teaching and learning pedagogies of being a teacher educator (Kane, 2007; Kosnik, 2007). For this to happen, programme designers need to reboot a number of aspects that underlie the education of teacher educators. Teacher education has to be organised around a core of professional knowledge and practices, in which skills and professional identity are developed in the process of learning to practise during professional education (Grossman et al., 2009, p. 274). The professional identity of teacher educators has to be defined before their professional development can seriously be considered (Cochran-Smith, 2003).

3.10 Synthesis of the argument

One of the criteria that account for quality in higher education is the quality of the graduates. The role of universities is to produce competent graduates who are able to serve their nation effectively. Among the arguments made in this chapter is that the roles and functions of teacher educators need to go hand-in-hand with their needs, that is, the knowledge and skills that they

require to become competent teachers of teachers. These needs should lie at the heart of curriculum design, which means that designers should focus their attention on what teacher educators need to know and do above their own interests and those of their institutions.

The literature expounds various views on quality in teacher education. One view is that preparing quality teachers requires more than covering a defined set of requirements or demonstrating specific know-how, and that this also applies to preparing quality teacher educators (Goodwin et al., 2014). Teacher educators not only require the defined set of 'what' and 'how' of teacher education, but also the instructional strategies of linking and integrating theories into their practice of teaching teachers. Teaching practice, it is argued, is one of the best ways for teacher educators to experience how best they can help novice teachers develop the knowledge and skills necessary for teaching.

Chapters Six and Seven provide a detailed analysis of how the MEd curricula were designed and on what basis the curriculum components of these programmes were selected. Chapter Six examines the underlying structural and agential mechanisms shaping the preparation, process and final design of the MEd curricula. Together the analysis chapters offer a detailed investigation of the rationale of the programme, content knowledge in the courses, how the knowledge was selected, the instructional strategies and existing practices for teacher educators. The following section examines the existing studies on the analysis of university postgraduate teacher education programmes to extend the rational for this research.

3.11 The need for research on university postgraduate teacher education in Tanzania

The assertion that education for teacher educators is under-researched is true of many countries, including Tanzania (Smith, 2005; Swennen, Jones & Volman, 2010; Goodwin et al., 2014). "Teachers of teachers – what they are like, what they do, what they think – are systematically overlooked in studies of teacher education" (Lanier & Little, as quoted by Korthagen et al., 2005, p. 111; Lunenberg et al., 2007, p. 588). In Tanzania, even the lecturers who train teacher educators are not sure who exactly teacher educators are, or even what the term teacher educator means.

On the other hand, there are numerous studies on the education of school teachers in Tanzania (see for example, Towse, Kent, Osaki, & Kirua, 2002; Mosha, 2004; HakiElimu, 2007, HakiElimu, 2008; Mkumbo, 2011; Hardman, Abd-Kadir & Tibuhinda, 2012). Perhaps the reason could be that researchers tend to study groups other than themselves; that teacher educators as researchers tend to study teachers more than teacher educators (Koster et al., 2005, p. 160).

As far as research on the education of teacher educators in countries other than Tanzania is concerned, there are two empirical studies that evaluate teacher educators' preparation programmes: O'Sullivan (2010) on a Diploma in Teacher Education (DTE) for preparing primary school teacher educators in Uganda, and Abell (1997) on the doctoral programmes for Science teacher educators in the US. The studies reveal that the content of the programmes tends to focus on subject knowledge that is mostly unrelated to the content that student educators require to teach teachers. The programmes were also found to be inadequate in terms of preparing teacher educators to use a variety of teacher education strategies, which is regarded as critical knowledge for the development of effective teacher educators (Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 1999; Murray & Male, 2005; O'Sullivan, 2010).

Turning to research in Tanzania, as indicated above, there are several studies examining the professional learning of teachers and the processes involved in the construction of their professional identities (Chipa, 1983; Ssekasanke, 1996; Zephania, 2004; HakiElimu, 2009; Kanisi, 2012; Fidelis, 2013). Research on teacher education includes literature on the curriculum and the pedagogy of school teachers, but next to nothing about the people who teach these teachers, teacher educators.

A study by Chambulila (2013), on *Quality enhancement in teacher education*, which investigated the quality of the Bachelor of Education programmes that prepare and develop secondary school teachers in Tanzania, raised concerns about the effectiveness of the professional development of the teacher educators who teach these programmes. Of significance to my research is the finding that the teacher education of school teachers has "under-qualified personnel and ineffective professional development strategies in terms of its teacher educators" (p. 114). He argues that deficiency in appropriate and necessary knowledge and skill, resulting from inadequate professional courses, was common among teacher educators. Chambulila maintains that quality

teacher education might be achieved by making teacher education research-based, but notes that teacher educators in Tanzania have not taken this up. He concludes that appropriate programmes are a prerequisite for quality. The way teacher education is organised might enable or constrain opportunities for interaction between academic content knowledge [theoretical knowledge] and pedagogical knowledge and practice. He calls for teacher educators to establish a structure for teacher education that ensures a reasonable balance between these two categories (p. 146). Although focused on BEd programmes, Chambulila's study raises questions pertinent to the MEd programmes, such as how the knowledge requirements for teacher educators in Tanzania are determined, and what and whose standards and principles are used in designing these programmes.

In his study, Chambulila interviewed teacher educators to examine their conceptions and experiences on the quality of their students, school teachers, with regard to their own quality in relation to their teaching of Bachelor of Education courses. Chambulila's study indicated that the nature of teacher educators' preparation programmes is crucial to their quality as educators and to the quality of the teachers they teach. Yet no research has been conducted into how these programmes were conceptualised and designed. The current study seeks to address this lacuna. In this study I analysed the MEd curricula and course outlines to understand the nature of the knowledge the MEd courses with regard to teacher educators professional roles and practices. I also analysed education policies and university regulations to comprehend teacher educators' qualifications, duties and responsibilities in relation to what constitute MEd curricula. I also interviewed programme lecturers, designers and administrators to explore their actions and experiences pertaining to what led to the MEd establishment, conceptualisation and design, as well as the selection of curriculum components. The aim was to uncover, identify and explain the conditions enabling and/or constraining the MEd programmes' development of quality teacher educators.

3.12 Conclusion

While this chapter has discussed the available literature on teacher educators' knowledge and practices, and has positioned the present study in relation to this literature, Chapter Four explains how teacher educators' knowledge is theoretically framed in the study. The chapter discusses

critical realist perspectives and explains why they are useful in this context. It also discusses Bernstein's concepts and theories that provide a fruitful language for describing knowledge fields, principles and professional practices, the 'what' and 'how' of teacher education.

Chapter Four

Theoretical Frameworks

> Empirical social research is more effective in yielding good descriptions and explanation of the social world when its design deliberately follows realist principles (Carter & New, 2004, p. 1).

4.1 Introduction

This chapter describes and discusses the theoretical and analytical frameworks that the study works with to achieve the research goal, namely to uncover, identify and explain the conditions enabling and/or constraining selected Master of Education programmes' development of quality teacher educators. First, the chapter explains how I worked with the layered ontology of critical realism and concepts of structure and agency, as well as the concept of emergence and causal mechanisms underpinning the social world, to generate the insights needed. Secondly, the chapter gives an account of why and how Bernstein's theory and concepts were used as analytical tools to make sense of and interpret what emerged in the data. I end the chapter by giving a synthesis of what these two theoretical frameworks mean to my research.

4.2 Why critical realism?

In respect of both epistemology and ontology, critical realism is the philosophical meta-theory in which this study is located. I selected to work with critical realism because it enabled me to answer my research questions, that is, to identify conditions underlying the establishment, conceptualisation and design of the selected MEd programmes. Critical realism enabled me to discover unnoticed, even hidden events that underlie the selection of the MEd curriculum components (Wikgren, 2005). Furthermore, critical realism proved to be useful in this context because it gave me a perspective in which to interrogate my own assumptions and investigate the reality of what I aimed to understand about these programmes (Hesketh & Fleetwood, 2006). An outline of the critical realist concepts relevant to the research is provided in the following section.

4.3 Critical realism

The realist paradigm is characterised by different perceptions and standpoints (Carter & New, 2004; Maxwell, 2012; Elder-Vass, 2013). I subscribe to the concepts of critical realism that are closely associated with Roy Bhaskar's first generation of critical realism (basic critical realism)

which I found appropriate to this study (Bhaskar, 1978, 2008, 2016). These concepts were further developed and elaborated by Andrew Sayer; Berth Danermark, Mats Ekstrom, Liselotte Jakobsen and Joan Karlsson; and Margaret Archer (Sayer, 2000; Danermark et al., 2002; Carter & New, 2004; Elder-Vass, 2013). I first discuss critical realist assumptions about the nature of reality and its stratification into the levels of the *empirical,* the *actual* and the *real*, together with the open systems and *emergence* perspectives. I then discuss causes and causal mechanisms, the concepts of structure and agency in relation to the three levels, and *emergence* and emergent properties. The discussion involves an account of how all these critical realist concepts speak to the research.

4.3.1 The nature of reality

Critical realism proposes the view that "entities exist independently of being perceived or independently of our theories about them" (Yeung, 1997; Sayer, 2000; Shipway, 2011; Phillips, as cited in Maxwell, 2012; Bhaskar, 2016). It is a philosophical meta-theory which criticizes the 'epistemic fallacy' of conflating ontology with epistemology. According to Bhaskar (the founder of critical realism), the epistemic fallacy is a mistake of analysing questions of being, ontology, in terms of the knowledge of being, epistemology (1978, p. 16; see also Yeung, 1997; Sayer, 2000; Bhaskar, 2016). It means treating reality (ontology) as identical to empirical observation or conceptions (epistemology) (Danermark, Ekstrom, Jakobsen & Karlsson, 2002, p. 205). The epistemic fallacy is to relate the nature of objects, realism as ontology, to the social knowledge of them, realism as epistemology (Yeung, 1997, p. 54). It is to agree that the world is without structure or depth, difference and context, and has no possibility of emergence, change or development (Bhaskar, 2016, pp. 6, 24). It is evident that this is not the case (see also Yeung, 1997).

Critical realism claims that epistemology – the theory of knowledge or knowing (what we know) – is clearly distinct from ontology – the theory of existence or reality (what there is) (Danermark et al., 2002; Wikgren, 2005; Bhaskar, 2016). Critical realist perspectives on epistemology accept the relativist assumption that our understanding of this world is inevitably a construction from our own perceptions and standpoint (Maxwell, 2012, p. 5; Bhaskar, 2016, p. 23). Critical realists therefore base their epistemological explanations on how people experience a phenomenon.

Critical realism is based on an ontological realist assumption that there is an external world that exists independently of our perceptions and experiences of it (Bhaskar, 1978, 2008, 2016). It is a philosophy that *celebrates* the realist ontology that the existence of reality is independent of human consciousness (Yeung, 1997, p. 52).

Critical realists argue that the surface appearance of things may, however, be misleading (Mingers, 2000). Critical realism rejects the idea that the appearance of things corresponds directly with the way they are. This non-reductionist conception separates what happens and what is experienced from what is (Bhaskar, 1978). The purpose of critical realism is to understand and explain the world that lies behind (misleading) appearances (Mingers, 2000). Critical realists thus base their description of the social world on deep and relatively stable knowledge (Sayer, 2000, Danermark et al., 2002).

Working with critical realist perspectives enabled me to do more than just analyse the Master of Education curriculum components (curriculum goals and objectives, curriculum courses and their objectives, instructional strategies, assessment or evaluation criteria, teaching and learning resources, and learning outcomes) (Posner, 2004). I needed to look more deeply at how and under what conditions these programmes were conceptualised and designed, how the course objectives and their knowledge were selected, and whether or not they are coherent and congruent with the curriculum goals and outcomes. The aim is to discover "the non-actual" (Bhaskar, 2016, p. 79) and the "hidden, or not readily observable, structures and objects that have causal powers to produce effects" (Wikgren, 2005, p. 12; see also Posner, 2004, p. 23). I opted for critical realism because its philosophical perspectives promise ontological depth to unearth conditions that operate at deeper levels of reality.

4.3.2 Reality as differentiated and stratified

Following this understanding that what we see and experience is not all there is to know about the world, critical realism is grounded on the concept of an open and stratified system of objects with causal powers (Yeung, 1997; Danermark et al., 2002). Stratification, the concept developed by Bhaskar, takes two forms (Mingers, 2000). The first relates to the belief that social reality is differentiated and layered into three levels: the *empirical,* the *actual* and the *real.* The second

relates to the concept of *emergence*, the notion that one layer is emergent from the one below it (ibid.; Bhaskar, 1975; 1978; 2008; 2016).

4.3.2.1 Three levels

The *empirical* level is subjective (most accessible to us), and it indicates our experience, our observations and perceptions of events in the world. In the case of my study, *empirical* knowledge entailed programme designers' and administrators' accounts of how the Master of Education programmes were established, together with the philosophical principles and orientations that underlay their conceptualisation of the programmes. The administrators and designers' accounts described the rationale and the reasoning that went into the original design of the programmes and the selection of curriculum components. This included the appropriateness of the selected knowledge for teacher educators, the balance among theoretical knowledge, pedagogical knowledge and practical activities, the coherence of the course topics with the course objectives and programme goals, and the consideration of the identified needs of the future teacher educators on the programmes. The accounts also involved lecturers' views on the relevance of the courses they were teaching to teacher educators' needs, course objectives, instructional strategies, resources (references, computers and internet services, analysis software, etc.), and evaluative criteria in relation to building teacher educators' professional knowledge and practice.

The *empirical* level consists of knowledge that is unstable and thus fallible. Critical realists thus reject a total dependence on only *empirical* knowledge, as it does not account for the reality that exists independently of human knowledge (Bhaskar, 1975). Critical realism is concerned with transfactual rather than empirical generalisation (Bhaskar, 2016, p. 79). Hence, empirical knowledge has to be explored further to uncover what is responsible for peoples' experiences and observations of the world. This necessitates exploring the *actual* layer of reality.

The *actual* level designates existing events or phenomena, whether we observe them or not (Danermark et al., 2002). It is the objective world of events, and is made up of all the things that happen even if we do not experience them (Bhaskar, 1975). Knowledge about this level of reality in the context of this study involved analysing the MEd curriculum documents, references and textbooks, course outlines and students' dissertations, as well as observing teaching and learning

facilities and services in the universities where the two programmes are offered. The analysis also involved reviewing relevant policy documents and university regulations from the Ministry of Education and from the Tanzania Commission for Universities (TCU). I took the contents of these documents to be the *actual* level because they give accounts of what people in the Ministry, TCU and in universities have planned and have done in their institutions. University infrastructure observation reveals the actual environment within which these programmes are being offered.

Bhaskar emphasises that while critical realists regard social reality as dependent upon concepts and as socially constructed, they also assert that we must not reduce social reality to just language and people (Bhaskar in Harré, 2001). He adds:

> Of course social reality is concept dependent, of course it is people dependent; but it is not concept exhaustive; it is not people exhaustive; it is not exhausted by human beings as powerful particulars; it is not exhausted by discourse or the text (p. 28)

This implies that the *empirical* and *actual* levels have to be further explored. For Bhaskar, the *empirical* and *actual* are the layers that generate unstable and unreliable knowledge which he calls *transitive* knowledge (Bhaskar, 1975, 1978). It is the knowledge that is most accessible to us (Bhaskar, 1978) and depends upon the senses (Bhaskar, 2016, p. 24; see also Danermark et al., 2002; Sayer, 2000). It comprises fallible claims to knowledge that are socially produced and changeable (pp. 7, 25). Critical realism, according to Bhaskar (2016), primarily focuses on the level of the *real* (p. 79). Reality at the level of the *real* is stable and enduring and may not be seen immediately. It is the deepest level of reality that exists independent of our knowing. Bhaskar refers to it as the *intransitive* dimension of reality (2016, p. 79). Critical realism's ultimate focus, as indicated, is not the experiences and patterns of events of the *empirical* and *actual* levels, but the structures and mechanisms that are on the level of the *real* (Bhaskar, 2016, p. 79). The discussion on the structures and mechanisms leads me to the second form of stratification, *emergence*.

4.3.2.2 Emergence

The second form of stratification is *emergence*, the notion that one layer is emergent from the one below it (Bhaskar, 1975, 1978, 2008, 2016). This form of stratification indicates that the

level of the *real* is consequential and therefore social reality can be better explained in terms of the *mechanisms* that are at play. According to Bhaskar, "the world consists of mechanisms not events" (2008, p. 47). Mechanisms "combine to generate the flux of phenomena that constitute the actual states and happenings of the world" (p. 47). They are "the ways of acting of things" (p. 14), and can be of many kinds (Danermark et al., 2002; Bhaskar, 2016).

In my study, for example, before the establishment of Tanzania Commission for Universities (TCU) in 2005, the Higher Education Accreditation Council (HEAC) was mandated to regulate only private universities (see Chapter Two, Section 2.5.2.2). This allowed public universities to design and approve their own programmes, including the MEd programmes. That is, the *self-regulatory authority* structure was available to public universities to enable these institutions to approve their own programmes, while private universities were operating under HEAC regulations. In the context of the design of university curricula, the *self-regulatory* structure and other mechanisms such as *programme review deficiency* in universities work together to generate the events and experiences of the *empirical* and the *actual*, while constituting the *real* (see Chapter Six, Sections 6.3.2.1 and 6.6.1).

Thus the two layers of *transitive* knowledge emerge from the *intransitive* domain (Mingers, 2000; see also Bhaskar, 1978, 2008, 2016). That is, the *empirical* emerges from the *actual*, and the *actual* emerges from the *real*; therefore both the *actual* and *empirical* emerge from the *real* as shown in the Table 4.1, below.

Table 4.1 Representation of emergence

	The level of the Real	The level of the Actual	The level of the Empirical
Mechanisms	√		
Events	√	√	
Experiences	√	√	√

Source: Adapted from Bhaskar (1978); (2008, p. 13); see also Bhaskar (2016, p. 7)

This does not mean that reality at all three levels is the same. This is due to the characteristic of emergence. The meaning of the concept emergence gives the irreducible character of emergent properties (Carter & New, 2004; see also Gross, as cited in Mason, Easton & Lenney, 2013, p. 349). The emergent properties "are more than the sum of their constituents; they are a product of their combination", and they are non-reducible (Carter & New, 2004, p. 6). That is to say, the

stratified social world combines mechanisms at different levels, each with emergent properties irreducible to those of the level from which they emerged (Scott, 2010). To put it another way, mechanisms, each with their respective emergent properties, have the power to cause events and experiences at the level of the *actual* and *empirical* (Carter & New, 2004).

Critical realism is interested mostly in explanation rather than prediction (Wikgren, 2005; Scott, 2010; Maxwell, 2012; Bhaskar, 2016), because prediction means to reduce the level of events (*actual*) and experiences (*empirical*) to the level of the *real* (Houston, 2001), while explanation involves description of the mechanisms of events that cause a phenomenon at the level of the *real*. Thus explanation requires causal analysis (Danermark et al., 2002).
Furthermore, for critical realists, social phenomena only occur in open systems in which events are determined by a multiplicity of mechanisms and characterised by emergence (Bhaskar, 2016, p. 80). It is hard to anticipate a direct link between cause and effect in such systems (Houston, 2001), in contrast with a closed system like an experiment in a laboratory where there is an attempt to control all the variables. Thus, emergent properties in open systems require us to understand that mechanisms, of which more than one operates at any point in time, allow us to explain and not to predict (Houston, 2001; Wikgren, 2005; Hesketh & Fleetwood, 2006).

Elder-Vass (2005) talks of *emergence* as the relationship of a 'whole' and its 'parts' at any single instant in time. Whole and parts are *entities*; an emergent property is an essential aspect of an *entity* that can have a causal impact on the social world (p. 317). According to Elder-Vass (2005), not all collections of parts form entities, because an *entity* involves a *significant* structured set of parts with more than merely aggregative relations. An entity is, therefore, a particular combination of parts (Carter & New, 2004) that together have the quality of persistence, in the sense of sustaining its existence over a significant period of time (Elder-Vass, 2005, p. 317). Emergence occurs when an entity possesses one or more emergent properties (Elder-Vass, 2005, p. 317).

Essentially all collections of parts, however arbitrary, have relations or properties between them (see also Carter & New, 2004). But, what differentiates the emergent properties of an entity from an aggregate or a nebulous combination of parts, is that the relations of parts in the entity are

internal and necessary ones to maintain persistence, rather than merely regular co-occurrences of diverse features (Carter & New, 2004, p. 6).

An emergent property of an entity is the one that is not possessed by any of the parts of that entity individually, nor when they are aggregated without a structuring set of relations between them (Elder-Vass, 2005). Entities are more than the sum of their parts, and once in place they develop powers of their own, which enforce a certain understanding of context, place and time (Carter & New, 2004; Elder-Vass, 2005). To emphasise, parts have properties that relate internally with each other, resulting in an entity with one or more new emergent properties. That is, an entity with new emergent properties emerges from the *significant* combination of properties of parts. An example is water, which has emergent properties quite different from the properties of its parts, hydrogen and oxygen (Sayer, 2000; Elder-Vass, 2005), meaning that water also acts as more than just the sum of hydrogen and oxygen. It develops a power characterised by its own emergent properties.

Similarly, a teacher educator programme represents more than just the sum of its courses, but is a particular combination of appropriate disciplinary courses with *significant* relations to each other. Indeed, it is the internal specialised professional relations of these courses that maintain the structure and persistence of the curriculum as a teacher education preparation programme. A corollary is that if the courses are professionally weakly related to each other, the quality of persistence falls away.

4.3.3 Summary of the sections

In the foregoing sections, I explained critical realist assumptions about the nature of reality and how these differentiate between the levels of the *empirical,* the *actual* and the *real*. I presented my understanding of reality as underpinned by the ontological layers of critical realism. I highlighted the implications of these layers for the methodology informing this research. I also discussed a critical realist understanding of emergence, and provided an outline of how emergence and emergent properties relate to the phenomenon investigated in this research. The critical realist understanding of agency and structure will be discussed next.

4.3.4 Structure and agency

Structure-agency relations have been construed in a number of ways. I take the view that has been developed by theorists such as Archer (1995) and Scott (2010), who concur with the critical realists' claim that structure and agency each possess distinct properties and powers in their own right (Carter & New, 2004). Agency refers to the human aspect of social life, that is, who is doing what to whom (Archer, 1995), while structure can be human or nonhuman, but has the power to make events take place in the real world through the agency of mechanisms (Mason et al., 2013). At the same time, agency exerts a causal influence on structures (Bhaskar, 2016). In the following section, I discuss the properties of structure and agency separately and then the characteristics of structure-agency relations and how they manifest in this research.

4.3.4.1 Structure

According to Archer (1995), structures cannot be adequately conceptualised if they are merely seen as part of a parcel of 'social practices', because their relatively *autonomous powers*, the *irreducibility of their influence* and their *pre-existence* means that they need to be acknowledged as, not just part of, but constituting a different stratum of social reality (p. 132). The *autonomous powers* of structures and *the irreducibility of their influence* mean their effects are independent of the interpretations placed on them. In stratified critical realist ontology, structures may have powers emergent from and irreducible to those of their constituents, and different structures can come into a variety of contingent relationships with one another to co-determine the occurrence of events (Archer, 1995, pp. 175-176; Carter & New, 2004). The *pre-existent* character of structures such as universities, programmes and academic practices means they were there to provide means and media for people to act on (Bhaskar, 2016). They are what Bhaskar (2016) called the "presence of the past" where people act, reproduce and transform (p. 69).

Social structures can *enable* and *constrain.* A university's financial situation, for example, can be an influencing structure enabling administrators and academic staff to come up with an idea of establishing a university programme as a source of income. However, a desperate shortage of funds may constrain the quality of the design and provision of that programme. The analysis of structures, therefore, entails the identification of material resources, both physical and human, their relationships, and the powers they have over the actions of people.

4.3.4.2 Agency

Agency is characterised by innovativeness, self-consciousness, reflexivity, intentionality, cognition, emotionality (Archer, 1995; Carter & New, 2004). An agent is someone who can set goals and try to achieve them, i.e., someone who has intentions (Danermark et al., 2002). People, as agents, are conceptualised as the other part of the parcel of social practices (Archer, 1995). The properties of agency point to the necessity of acknowledging that social reality is further stratified and contain a psychological stratum relating to the practical doings of actors in their everyday social lives. The individual autonomous psychological properties of human actions account for their being un-replaceable by structure in social processes (p. 132). Thus, social practices are not just social structures but also a kind of agent that is reproduced and transformed (Bhaskar, 2016, p. 68).

The key to grasping the dynamic possibilities of human agency is to view it as composed of variable and changing orientations within the flow of time (Emirbayer & Mische, 1998). While structures are pre-exiting, agents can orientate toward the past, the future, and the present at any given moment. They adjust their sequential alignments and so become capable of changing their relationship to structure. They can orientate toward one or another of these times (past, present and future) within any one emergent situation (p. 964).

4.3.4.3 Structure-agency relations

According to Archer, for something to exert the power of a constraint or an enablement, it has to stand in a relationship with agents such that it obstructs or aids the achievement of some specific agential enterprise (2003, p. 5). Structures can channel or block the actions of agents, and thus there is always a relationship between structure and agency (Danermark et al., 2002).

Whereas structural systems impose constraints on agency, an obvious difference between structure and agency is that a structure cannot act, only an agent can (Danermark et al., 2002). Structures in education exist independently of the agents they constrain and the agents' conceptions of them (Shipway, 2011, p. 161). Nevertheless, structures and agents each have their own emergent properties. These are Personal Emergent Properties (PEPs) and Structural Emergent Properties (SEPs) (Boughey & Niven, 2012, p. 643).

It is important to understand that PEPs may develop causal power to reinforce, reproduce or transform social structures (Archer, 1995; Carter & New, 2004). Simultaneously, people as agents and actors are influenced (though not determined) by their structural situations (Carter & New, 2004). They make structures but at the same time structures mould people (Hays, 1994). Thus it is not possible to have structure without agency, or agency without structure (ibid.), and they are mutually irreducible (Carter & New, 2004). This means that complete explanations of social events and processes cannot be reduced to the intentions and beliefs of agents without reference to structural forms, or to structural properties without reference to the intentions and beliefs of agents (Archer, 1995, p. 66).

The causal powers of social structures are distinct from those of human individuals, but they are not entirely independent of them (Elder-Vass, 2013). Since persons are the critical causes of everything that occurs in the social world, the generative mechanisms are the actions of persons, agential causal mechanisms, working with influenced materials, structural causal mechanisms, at hand, and no further reduction is either possible or necessary (Manicas, 2006, p. 4). This situation allowed me to take into account both agential and structural causal mechanisms in the educational settings of this research (Scott, 2010; Shipway, 2011), as shown in the Table 4.2, below. The Table illustrates that events as experienced by human actors offer some view of the actual world, but were caused in the *real* world "wherein lie the causal mechanisms – usually unseen – by virtue of which one event causes another" (Gross, as quoted by Mason et al., 2013, p. 349).

Table 4.2 Showing the mechanisms as generated by both structural and agential power

Levels	Structural mechanisms	Agential mechanisms
Real	Conditions influencing the establishment, conceptualisation, design and selection of programme components (e.g. regulatory bodies, university regulations, university autonomy, historical factors, policies, quality assurance system and processes of programme approval, university intentions and interests)	Administrators' autonomy (e.g. decision making, intentions, goals, concerns)
Actual	MEd programmes curricula, course outline, students' dissertations, text and reference books, as well as education policies and regulations. Authors' events, actions, thoughts, feelings, what they know, believe and value.	
Empirical	Experiences of administrators, programme designers and lecturers on the MEd programmes	

4.3.5 Synthesis of the argument: Causes and causal mechanisms

According to Easton (2010), researchers have reason to believe that the institutions that they study have powers to cause events to occur (p. 120). That is, institutions make things happen (ibid.). For example, universities in Tanzania have the power to design the Master of Education programmes in any number of ways.

Realists' explanation of what causes something to happen depends on identifying causal mechanisms and how they work. Critical realists propose that causes and causal mechanisms are real and have influence on structures. Critical realists perceive causal mechanisms as dependent on the context to generate events and experience, and tend to exist in different systems at different levels in a society (Sayer, 2000; Danermark et al., 2002; Maxwell, 2012). This implies that forces or powers influencing key actors at different levels in the university institution context may affect the process of programme establishment, conceptualisation and design. Power in a structure, in a person, or in an object may be inactive or dormant. Researchers become aware of their existence by observing or experiencing their effects or the absence of their effects (Sayer, 2000; Danermark et al., 2002). This study, therefore, involves universities' agents at the *empirical* and national documentation level in its search for causal mechanisms to explain why these programmes are the way they are.

Critical realism assumes open systems and a generative model of causation in which the outcomes of the activation of mechanisms, in this study the MEd programmes, always depend on specific contexts (Sayer, 2000). The governmental education policies, for example, always work through actors' perceptions and choices. However, critical realist causal analysis cannot depend on perception alone. Therefore, whether universities respond appropriately to these policies depends on many possible circumstances that are likely to vary within and between the institutions. This will be discussed further in Chapters Six and Seven.

4.3.6 Critical realism and the research questions guiding the study

In Chapter One, I presented the research goals and formulated the research questions. By working with critical realist philosophical perspectives, I was able to refine the research questions, using critical realist language:

1. What are the contextual power structures and the underlying causal mechanisms that generate and shape the establishment, conceptualisation and design of MEd programmes in Tanzania?
2. What are the generative mechanisms underlying the selection of the curriculum components of MEd programmes in Tanzania?

4.4 Limitations of critical realism

Critical realism is an "under-labourer" that offers a rigorous perspective on the world and the way it works, but by itself, it does not explain or resolve any of the problems that researchers are confronted with (Easton, as cited in Matthyssens, Vandenbempt & Van Bockhaven, 2013, p. 406). In this research, critical realism helped to identify the mechanisms responsible for the establishment, conceptualisation and design of MEd programmes, but it does not provide the means to analyse the curriculum components of these programmes. Maton and Chen (2016) argue that "philosophies of social science are typically silent on the practical questions" (p. 27). Thus critical realism has limited analytical tools to actually solve a research problem (Matthyssens et al., 2013). It addresses ontology and epistemology and may offer meta-theoretical tenets for research, but rarely demonstrates their implication for substantive studies (Maton & Chen 2016, p. 27; see also Yeung, 1997). It makes a substantial contribution to the philosophy of the social sciences, but leaves the theoretical and methodological work to substantive social science (Yeung, 1997). It requires specific theories to act as "flashlights" (Ferraro, as quoted by Matthyssens et al., 2013, p. 406) illuminating the significance of experiences and events.

Bernstein's theories and concepts, on the other hand, provide both an internal language of description – accounting for how his theoretical concepts are interrelated with the phenomenon of the study – and an external language of description, an analytical language for interpreting the research data (Maton & Chen, 2016). Bernstein's analytical tools were used in this research to analyse the curriculum components of the two selected MEd programmes, and the establishment, conceptualisation and curriculum design process of these programmes. In the sections below, I argue for this choice of Bernsteinian theory, and provide an overview of how it works with critical realism.

4.5 Why Bernstein's theory, and how it works with critical realism

Bernstein's theory and critical realism were employed in this study as philosophical and analytical tools to investigate the MEd programmes and explain the underlying causal mechanisms at work at various levels of their social worlds. Bernstein's theory and critical realism complement each other in establishing an approach that yields insights into the content of knowledge, the structure of knowledge, the conditions and mechanisms underlying the selection of knowledge, and the extent to which these processes are mediated by power (Wheelahan, 2007). Using Bernstein's analytical tools, I conducted an in-depth analysis of participant accounts (*empirical)* and textual (*actual*) forms of data, which together with site observations retain the chronological and contextual connections of experience and events (Maxwell, 2012). While critical realism is not a substantive tool, Bernstein's analytical language makes it possible to use critical realist philosophical perspectives to uncover the power structure and underlying causal mechanisms informing the establishment and design of the MEd programmes.

In the sections below, I discuss Bernstein's three key theoretical concepts – pedagogic device, *classification* and *framing* – on which this research is based. I first offer a theoretical description of these concepts and discuss how features of the MEd programmes relate to them, and then explain how the conceptual tools worked in the analysis of my data. I start with Bernstein's pedagogic device and its applicability to the study, and then turn to Bernstein's concepts of *classification* and *framing*.

4.5.1 Bernstein's pedagogic device

In understanding educational practice, Bernstein developed the notion of a pedagogic device, a mechanism by means of which the relationship between the fields of production, recontextualisation, and reproduction are represented (2000; see also Singh, 2002). The three fields together offer a structural description of how knowledge is transformed into pedagogic communication. That is, they describe the process of the transformation of knowledge from the field of production of knowledge, to the field of recontextualisation, to the field of reproduction in the classroom (Hoadley & Muller, 2009).

The field of production consist of institutions of higher education and private research organisations. The activities or processes taking place in this field are those of knowledge

production. It is a field where decisions are made regarding how knowledge can be produced in a field or discipline, what kind of knowledge can be produced and by whom (Bernstein, 2000). New ideas and specialised discourses are selectively created, modified and changed.

In the recontextualisation field, the knowledge from the field of production is transferred into a specific field/curriculum. The field of recontextualisation consists of state departments of education and training, education agencies and agents from various cognate fields, curriculum authorities and teacher education institutions, including university education departments, schools, colleges and faculties. This field recontextualises the *what* but also the *how* of the field of production; that is, *the theory of instruction* (Bernstein, 2000, p. 34). It is concerned with the appropriate selection of knowledge and practices from the field of production, and their transformation and relocation in the field of reproduction. The knowledge is altered and changes its position in relation to other knowledge and practices.

The field of reproduction comprises primary and secondary schooling, and tertiary and higher education institutions. It refers to actual pedagogic practice and is concerned with the transmission and acquisition of knowledge and practices. It thus involves the transformation of knowledge through pedagogical processes involving agents (teachers, lecturers, etc.) working within the field of reproduction and acquisition.

Three rules regulate the three pedagogic device fields. Distributive rules regulate the field of production, recontextualising rules regulate the field of recontextualisation, and evaluative rules regulate the field of reproduction. Bernstein's pedagogic device is summarised below (Table 4.3).

Table 4.3 A representation of the pedagogic device

Field of practice	Form of regulation	Typical sites
Production	Distributive rules	Institutions of higher education and private research organisations.
Recontextualisation	Recontextualising rules	State departments of education and training, curriculum authorities, specialist education journals, and teacher education institutions.
Reproduction	Evaluative rules	Primary, secondary and tertiary schooling institutions.

Source: Adapted from Bernstein (2000)

The distributive rules govern the field of production, distinguishing between different forms of knowledge. These rules are about ensuring that what gets distributed is what counts as acceptable knowledge. The distributive rules authorise who may transmit what to whom and under what conditions (Bernstein, 2000, p. 31). They regulate power relationships by distributing different forms of knowledge, and thus provide directions to different pedagogic identities (Bernstein, 2000, p. 29, see also Singh, 2002). They create a specialised field of discourse production, with specialised rules of access and specialised power relations. The distributive agents are thus expected to actively produce the knowledge and use the distributive rules to gate-keep how such knowledge is made, what knowledge is acceptable and who can make the knowledge. Various methods including the peer reviewing of journal articles are used to enact these rules.

Recontextualising rules (introduced in Chapter Three, Section 3.5.3) that regulate the field of recontextualisation regulate the formation of specific pedagogic discourse. They comprise principles for constructing pedagogic discourse out of existing knowledge, principles for "delocating a discourse, for relocating it, for refocusing it" (Bernstein (1996), as cited in Singh, 2002, p. 573). Through recontextualisation, a discourse is moved from its original site of production to another site, where it is altered as it interacts with other discourses (Singh, 2002). Thus a recontextualised discourse is not exactly the same as the original because it has been pedagogised or converted into pedagogic discourse (p. 573). Pedagogic discourse embeds two discourses, a discourse that creates specialised skills and their relationship to each other, *instructional discourse*, and the moral discourse that creates order, relations and identity, *regulative discourse* (Bernstein, 2000, pp. 31-32). Evaluative rules are concerned with recognising what counts as valid acquisition of instructional texts such as curricula content and regulative texts, such as social conduct, character and manners (Singh, 2002, p. 573). These rules, according Bernstein (2000), are hierarchically inter-related in the sense that "recontextualising rules are derived from the distributive rules, and evaluative rules are derived from recontextualising rules" (p. 28; see also Singh, 2002, p. 573).

4.5.1.1 Universities in Tanzania as the fields of production, recontextualisation and reproduction

Although Bernstein distinguishes the three fields, they can be located in the same place, especially across different social contexts (Sriprakash, 2011). This is the case with universities in

Tanzania, which constitute the site of activity for all these fields. The Tanzania Education and Training Policy (TETP) and the National Higher Education Policy (NHEP), as explained in Chapter Three, Section 3.2.2.1, give universities in Tanzania a mandate to be the site for the production, recontextualisation and reproduction of knowledge and education, including teacher education. The TETP specifically states that "teacher education degree programmes are to be designed and offered by higher education institutions" (URT. MoEC, 1995, p. 45). The universities are supposed to function simultaneously as the site of knowledge making (the field of production), of the transformative act in which this original discourse in the intellectual field is selectively appropriated and transformed into pedagogic discourse (the field of recontextualization), and the site of the transformation and acquisition of knowledge through pedagogical processes (the field of reproduction). Whether Tanzanian university education departments, schools, colleges and faculties of teacher education operate as the field of production, the field of recontextualisation and the field of reproduction, or only function as the fields of recontextualisation and reproduction, will be discussed in the analysis in Chapters Six and Seven.

In case of the field of production, the expectation is that the universities will appoint a team of agents responsible for production. The team will consist of university teacher education department/school/college/faculty administrators, curriculum designers, lecturers and researchers, as well as specialists from the professional boards, government education officials and other intellectual agencies and agents. They will be charged with determining what forms of knowledge are to be transmitted, how, by whom and in what environments. This process involves the original discourse passing through ideological screens as it evolves into its new form, pedagogic discourse. While universities dominate the field, the decision making is supposed to be shared process between university agents of the field of production and other agencies and agents in the team.

The field of recontextualisation, the appropriation and relocation of discourse from the field of production, is expected to be taken care of by university recontextualising agents. These are department/school/faculty administrators, curriculum developers and lecturers, who in addition to choosing the knowledge base for teacher educators' programmes, also oversee the logical

ordering and sequencing of knowledge into course content. University senates or academic committees are involved in the final decision making regarding the content and academic standard of the programme. Like the field of production, the recontextualisation process is also supposed to occur in such a way that the power over decision making is shared equally among university administrators and curriculum designers, teacher education department/school/college/faculty administrators and lecturers. Whether or not this happens in Tanzanian universities will be discussed in both analysis chapters.

University lecturers are agents in the field of reproduction. They transform the recontextualised knowledge through pedagogical processes of transformation and acquisition. They also determine the evaluation criteria to assess what kind of performance is to be valued. Analysis of the instructional strategies the MEd lecturers use, the ways in which they transform the knowledge and practice, as well how they assess knowledge and skills, are featured in Chapter Seven.

In summary, universities in Tanzania are the actors/agencies responsible for determining what knowledge is to constitute the MEd curricula, how this knowledge should be organised and distributed, and what measures are to be used to assess acquisition of the knowledge. These circumstances were central to my undertaking the analysis of these programmes. The section below provides a Bernsteinian theoretical description of determining the forms of knowledge to be included in a programme.

4.5.1.2 Esoteric and mundane knowledge

Bernstein argued that there is a "fundamental similarity in the very structuring of meaning" in a curriculum (2000, p. 29). This similarity refers to a particular order of meanings, that is, the form that abstract meanings take (Singh, 2002, p. 574). The form of abstraction postulates two kinds of knowledge: *mundane* or everyday knowledge that is embedded in a specific context, and *esoteric* context-independent knowledge (Bernstein, 2000). Academic disciplinary knowledge is esoteric knowledge.

In the case of teacher educators, mundane knowledge is knowledge pertaining to skills and craft – expert action without any formalisation, lacking the special legitimacy that is supplied by the

connection of abstractions with general values (Abbott (1988), as cited in Gamble, 2010, p. 26). According to Gamble (2010), craftspeople such as teacher educators cannot explain what they are doing using knowledge principles. This is because the meanings of mundane knowledge are so embedded in their context that they have no reference outside that context and cannot unite anything other than themselves because they are totally consumed by that context (Bernstein, 2000, p. 30). That is the reason why mundane knowledge is difficult to reproduce beyond the context in which it is enacted, except when features of the context and social relations are similar (Wheelahan, 2007). This means that the principle through which knowledge is selected and applied is tied to a particular context where learning of that knowledge takes place (p. 639).

Esoteric disciplinary knowledge means the formalisation of an abstract knowledge base into theories, concepts and principles in the field of specialisation (Bernstein, 2000). The acquisition of esoteric disciplinary knowledge requires the capacity to integrate meanings so that these meanings "are not consumed at the point of their contextual delivery" (Bernstein, 2000, p. 29). This suggests that students need the capacity to integrate knowledge (and underpinning principles) through systems of meaning bounded by the discipline in ways that transcend the *particular* application of *specific* 'products' of disciplinary knowledge in specific contexts (Wheelahan, 2007, p. 640). Bernstein argues that the strength of the insulation demarcating the categories of esoteric and mundane knowledge as well as the form of the knowledge generated within these categories is important (Singh, 2002). This is because "what is actually esoteric in one period can become mundane in another" (Bernstein, 2000, p. 29).

While Bernstein's pedagogical device provide an account of how knowledge is produced, recontextualised and reproduced through pedagogical practices, Bernstein's concepts of classification and framing have extended and developed this account. In the following sections, therefore, I introduce classification and framing as they pertain to this study.

4.5.2 Bernstein's classification and framing

Bernstein's concepts of *classification* and *framing* are especially useful for analysing curriculum structure, together with associated social structures, and power and control relations (Singh, 2002). I draw on these concepts in my analysis of curriculum, pedagogy and assessment in the MEd programmes. The MEd curricula contain both the 'what' *classification* and the 'how'

framing of curriculum, pedagogy and evaluation. The 'what' refers to the knowledge included in the teacher education curriculum. It denotes the decisions made about what to include in the MEd programmes, with reference to the kind of graduates who are to be developed and in relation to the aims and objectives of the programmes. It involves the selection of the specialised educational knowledge to be included in a programme for the graduates to achieve its intended outcomes. The 'how' of the MEd curricula refers to the selection, sequencing and pacing of the educational knowledge within and across the field of study under consideration. Evaluation in the MEd curricula refers to both the 'what' and the 'how' – what is assessed, and how it is assessed.

4.5.2.1 Classification

Bernstein uses the concept of *classification* to describe the basic structure of a curriculum. Classification refers to "the degree of boundary maintenance between contents" (Sadovnik, 1991, p. 52) and is concerned with the insulation or boundaries between curricula categories (areas of knowledge and subjects or courses) (see also Bernstein, 2000). Classification can either be weak (C-) or strong (C+). The strength of the boundary maintains the identity, distinctive voice and specialisation of the category (Bernstein, 2000). Subjects or courses with weak classification have less specialised identities, less specialised voices and less specialised discourses (p. 7). In the Tanzanian context, subjects such as sociology and psychology were once strongly classified disciplines in BA in Sociology and BEd in Psychology programmes. They were then clustered as courses to establish other programmes such as the Master of Education (MEd) programmes.

The 'what' *classification* refers to the degree of separateness of the knowledge within a MEd programme. It is concerned with boundaries between the curriculum courses. A strongly classified programme will have more clearly bounded courses with fewer relationships between different courses, and so maintain the course disciplinary identity and insulation specialisation of the category. Alternatively, a weakly classified programme is one that emphasizes integration, or weak boundaries between courses, and between topics within specific course.

4.5.2.1.1 MEd classification and multiple specialisations

Bernstein further addresses the view that the relationship between the identity and specialisation of the categories (courses) is not simply structural. He contends that the form taken by educational practices – that is, their degree of specificity, the extent to which practices are specialised to categories – depends entirely upon the professional relation between these categories. He maintains that if the categories of either agents or discourses are specialised, then each category necessarily has its own specific identity and its own specific boundaries (Bernstein, 1990, p. 23). In the case of the MEd, the main objective of these programmes is to produce teacher educators, and that constitutes the main category (see Chapter Seven, Section 7.4.1). However, the programmes also aim to produce other categories of agents, for example educational managers, administrators and curriculum developers. In other words, categories in the MEd programmes are agents who are expected to specialise, each with a specific identity. Hence the programmes comprise a collection of disciplinary courses, each with specific specialisation for a specific category of agent to be produced (this is discussed in more detail in Chapter Seven, Section 7.7).

a) Boundaries between courses

Bernstein argues that the specialty of each category such as teacher educator, educational manager, administrator, curriculum developer etc., is created, maintained and reproduced only if the relations between the categories of which a given category is a member are preserved (Bernstein, 1990). It is the insulation between the categories that creates a space in which a category can become specific (ibid.). Essentially, insulation or boundaries constitute the critical point for definition of the courses (Beck & Young, 2005), and hence of the knowledge and practice of a particular specialisation. Courses in a programme can be categorised as strong classified courses (C+) or more strongly classified courses (C++), and can be weak classified courses (C-) or more weakly classified courses (C--) due to the extent of insulation of the knowledge to preserve category identity. The question that arises is: how do the courses in the MEd programmes influence the structuring of teacher educator disciplinary knowledge? This concern was central to my undertaking this thesis, and is discussed in detail in Chapter Seven.

b) Boundaries between topics and modules

Classification of the relationship among the topics and modules in different courses in the MEd programmes is among the issues discussed in this study. A course with topics that have strong boundaries tends to preserve its insulation in its own specialisation, such as Economics and Marketing, clearly intends to develop its own specific category of agent, such as education economist. This represents a strongly classified course, C+, with a weak relation to teacher educator professional practice. The findings of the analysis of the topics and modules in different MEd courses, in terms of how much they relate to the topics of other courses, and specifically how they represent teacher educator professional knowledge and practice, are discussed in Chapter Seven.

4.5.2.1.2 Recontextualising principles/rules: Recontextualisation of singulars into regions

The concept of *classification*, which refers to the 'what' of the programme, the strength and weakness of the boundaries between courses and topics, provides an essential but not exclusive way of analysing features of the Master of Education programmes. Bernstein's concepts also allow for a second useful way of categorising the courses or subjects in the programme, the notions of *singulars* and *regions,* as introduced in Chapter Three, Section 3.7. Bernstein uses singulars as a way of classifying disciplines such as Sociology or subjects such as Chemistry (Bernstein, 2000, p. 9). Singulars, in his words:

> are knowledge structures whose creators have appropriated a space to give themselves a unique name, a specialised discrete discourse with its own intellectual field of texts, practices, rules of entry, examinations, licences to practice, distribution of rewards and punishments. (Bernstein, 2000, p. 52)

Bernstein argues that these singulars are disciplines with strong classification producing a discourse which is only about themselves, or addresses only themselves (see also Beck & Young, 2005). They are protected by strong boundaries and hierarchies, and oriented inwards to their own development (Bernstein, 2000; see also Wheelahan, 2010; Young & Muller, 2014).

Bernstein speaks about the changes undergone by singulars such as Physics and Chemistry or disciplines such as Sociology and Psychology, which have moved from strong classification through a process he calls the "regionalisation of knowledge" in certain professional fields like engineering and teacher education (Bernstein, 2000, p. 9). By regionalisation Bernstein means

the recontextualising of singulars to create a region (ibid.). He argues that a professional field is a region. A region is made up of multiple subjects or disciplines, and faces both inwards towards those disciplines and outwards to the real world of the professional field. A region is created through the recontextualising of singulars as guided by recontextualising principles (Bernstein, 2000).

During the curriculum design of a programme, recontextualising principles guide which singulars are to be selected and what knowledge within the singular is to be reproduced to create an intended professional field of practice. Thus, as described in Section 4.5.1, recontextualisation is a process driven by a set of principles that "electively appropriates, relocates, refocuses and relates" singulars to meet the needs of a field of professional practice (Hordern, 2016, p. 429, see also Beck, 2009; Taylor, 2014).

David Guile (2014) describes three principles of recontextualisation for professional programmes. The first one is the 'purpose' of the programme (p. 80). The purpose of the programme plays a significant role in determining what forms of knowledge are to be included (p. 83). The forms of knowledge embrace theoretical or academic content knowledge as well as practical or pedagogical knowledge. Guile maintains that these forms of knowledge, although separate, enjoy a "mediated relationship" through their mutual involvement in a professional programme (Guile, 2014, p. 80).

The second principle of recontextualisation, according to Guile (2014), is that "all forms of knowledge of human activity (theoretical and practical) occur in a normative context where conceptual and empirical claims are both judged" (pp. 80-81). By this he means that there should be a "space of reasons" to justify the forms of knowledge included in a particular programme (p. 81). These reasons should be formulated according to the roles and functions of the professional.

The third principle, which is associated with the second principle, is that "theoretical and practical reasoning presupposes inferring what follows from different types of concepts or actions and responding accordingly in specific situations" (p. 82). By this Guile (2014) means that, in a particular context, "the theoretical reasoning associated with disciplines sits alongside the practical reasons associated with the professional perceptions and action" (ibid.).

As suggested above, singulars' knowledge emphasises inwardness. It is knowledge that develops singulars' own interests, with no external relations involved (Young & Muller, 2014). In the formation of the region, singulars are brought together to be recontextualised in relation to a field of practice. At the same time, the region recontextualises the real-world practices and processes of a profession, as guided by recontextualising principles (Bernstein, 2000). Engineering is an example of a region. It embraces once strongly classified singulars such as Mathematics and Physics, but now recontextualised in the professional engineering field of practice (see also Hordern, 2016). Another example of a region is medicine. It has recontextualised its related singulars such as Biology and Chemistry to create the medical field of professional practice. According to Muller (2009), professions such as medicine and engineering have developed a stable knowledge base and powerful ways of developing a robust professional habitus and identity in their practitioners (pp. 213-214). They define the boundaries of their own knowledge base (Beck & Young, 2005), and as regions face both inwards towards their singulars and outwards to their field of practice (Bernstein, 2000; see also Young & Muller, 2014). Regions with strong disciplinary knowledge such as engineering produce people with strong academic identities. When regions lose their connection with disciplinary core knowledge, they become weak because of a weak or non-existent disciplinary foundation (Muller, 2009; Hordern, 2016).

In the present context, for the MEd programmes to be regions of professional practice for teacher educators, the regionalisation of knowledge must result from the recontextualising of appropriately selected courses in teacher education. The programmes need to develop sufficiently strong relations between their singulars "in order to construct a form of professional education that enables the development of professional identity and practice" (Hordern, 2016) for teacher educators. They need to weaken the boundaries of their singulars to create relations and integrate the knowledge derived from the singulars (Beck & Young, 2005). They need to face both ways, inward towards their singulars and appropriate teacher education knowledge, and outwards towards the "practice-orientated competences" (Bernstein, 2000; Hordern, 2016) necessary for the professional roles and functions of teacher educators. The literature discussed in Chapter Three contends that teacher educators need well-conceptualised pedagogical knowledge and a deep theoretical base for teaching teachers, which include *personal knowledge, contextual knowledge*, *sociological knowledge*, *social knowledge* and well-developed *research*

knowledge. The region brings together the specialised professional knowledge which is the knowledge base of the profession of that region. This, as discussed above, includes theoretical knowledge as the basis of the content to be selected from the singulars, and practical knowledge that brings the theory into the practical world of the profession. Recontextualisation principles provide a way to strengthen the relations between theoretical and practical professional knowledge (Guile, 2014). In the following two sub-sections, I discuss concepts that relate to the conceptualisation of singulars and regions.

a) Professional jurisdiction

The notion of regionalisation of knowledge resembles that of "professional jurisdiction", as described by Abbott (1988) (as cited in Gamble, 2010, p. 8; see also Hordern, 2016). According to Gamble (2010), what makes professional jurisdiction strong is the formalised nature of a knowledge base, in terms of knowledge elaboration at various levels of abstraction that make connections with the task areas of a profession (p. 8). Hence, professional jurisdiction is weakened when the knowledge base is too diverse in terms of its disciplinary origins (ibid.). Gamble (2010) gives an example of the Masters in Business Administration (MBA). The programme covers a diverse body of abstractions such as psychology, sociology, administration, economics, law, banking and accounting, all claiming some jurisdiction in how work in business management ought to be done (ibid.). Abbott (1988) argues that when task areas are open to jurisdictional claims by so many groups, each extending its own abstractions and claiming to cover the whole field, content is emptied (Abbott (1988), as cited in Gamble, 2010, p. 8). In the same way, when there are weak or non-existent disciplinary singulars in a region, the region itself becomes weak (Muller, 2009; Hordern, 2016).

b) MEd programme as entity and courses as parts

The relation of singulars and regions can also be explained in terms of entities and parts, as discussed in Section 4.3.2.2. Elder-Vass (2005) talks of emergence as the relationship between entities. Emergence occurs when an entity possesses one or more emergent properties. An entity is a collection of parts and its emergent properties are not possessed by any of those parts individually; at the same time, the emergent properties of the entity are more than just the sum of the properties of its parts. Parts within the entity develop a significant set of structural relations

among them, and in the process acquire emergent properties that are not reducible to the properties of parts.

Bernstein's singulars and region strongly resemble parts and entity in this context. Singulars have emergent properties of their own that are only about themselves. But like parts, the collection of singulars into a region is not just a combination. Singulars need to develop a significant structuring set of relations through the recontextualisation process to produce a region (an entity) that possesses emergent properties irreducible to that of individual singulars.

Courses in the MEd curricula could be taken as parts of an entity. Courses initially have properties of their own that are only about their individual specialisation. The assembly of course parts (singulars) into the entity of teacher educator professional practice should not be a mere combination. The assembly needs to involve appropriate courses that can develop a significant structuring set of knowledge relations with each other through the recontextualisation process to produce an entity (region) that possesses teacher education emergent properties irreducible to the properties of the individual courses.

4.5.2.1.3 Classification of course objectives and programme goals

The link between MEd course objectives and the main programme goal is among the issues discussed in this thesis. The objectives of courses were categorised as strongly or weakly classified depending on if they were insulated within the discipline of that course, and hence strongly classified (C+); or related to the main programme goal of developing teacher educators, hence weakly classified (C-). Weak objectives are less bound by the discipline of their course. Bernstein's classification concept also provides an analytical language to categorise the main goal or general objective of the MEd programmes, in terms of whether it signifies clearly the aim to develop teacher educator professionalism, which would be weak classification. On the other hand, if the programme goal applies to several other disciplines or specialisations, then it would be strongly classified.

Having shown how Bernstein's classification concept generates a language of description for an in-depth analysis of the knowledge (the 'what') included in the MEd curricula, I now turn to Bernstein's concept of framing to explore the 'how' of that knowledge.

4.5.2.2 Framing

While classification is concerned with boundaries between knowledge, framing refers to the instructional strategies through which knowledge is transmitted. It is concerned with how meanings are to be put together, the forms by which they are to be made public and the nature of the social relationships that go with them (Bernstein, 2000, p. 12).

Framing regulates two rules: the rules of discursive order, i.e. pacing, selection, sequencing, evaluative or achievement criteria, also called the instructional discourse; and the rules of social order, also called the regulative discourse (p. 13). Framing as a pedagogic practice is thus defined as an instructional discourse (ID) consisting of a number of dimensions, embedded in a regulative discourse (RD) (Hoadley & Muller, 2009).

4.5.2.2.1 MEd Framing of instructional discourse

Instructional discourse here refers to the selection, sequencing, pace and evaluative criteria of the knowledge and skills to be learnt by students from the programme (Bernstein, 2000). Framing of the instructional discourse in the context of this study is about who controls the discourse of the MEd programmes. It has to do with how much control lecturers, faculty heads and other academic staff had over the 'what', the content of the MEd programmes; how it was selected, organised, paced, timed and evaluated. Framing, like classification, can either be weak (F-) or strong (F+). When the instructional discourse is specified, it represents strong framing (F+). In this research, strong framing implies that the lecturers (and other academic staff) have a limited degree of control over the rules of discursive order. That is, university (and programme) administrators control the 'what' of the curriculum and decide who should select that knowledge. When the instructional discourse is more specified and explicit, it is more strongly framed (F++). When instructional discourse is not specified, framing is weak (F-), which means that lecturers and other academic staff have more say on what can be included in the programme. When the instructional discourse is not specified and more implicit, it is more weakly framed (F--).

Instructional discourse also describes strong or weak framing in relation to the explicitness of the 'how', the instructional strategies of the curriculum. Strong framing of the *how* – the sequencing, selection, and pacing – of the curriculum denotes highly specified and explicit instructional strategies. That is, lecturers have limited control of the logic of framing determining the

selection, sequence and pacing of the instructional strategies at classroom level. Where the question of how knowledge is organised for transmission is left open or remains implicit, weak framing prevails, and hence greater opportunities for decision making by lecturers on how to implement the curriculum.

Evaluative criteria refer both to evaluation-what i.e. what knowledge is assessed, and evaluation-how i.e. how it is assessed. In higher education institutions like universities, evaluative criteria need to be agreed upon by designers, lecturers and students, specified and made explicit to all (Bolton, as cited in Hoadley & Muller, 2009, p. 73). In the case of the MEd programmes, when the evaluative criteria are implicit and not specified, it represents weak framing (F-), meaning that lecturers have control over how to assess the curriculum content; and when they are specified and explicit it represents strong framing (F+), meaning that lecturers have little individual leeway regarding evaluation (details are discussed in Chapter Seven, Section 7.10).

4.5.2.2.2 MEd Framing of regulative discourse

Muller and Young (2014) write of two key concepts that underpin the notion of "academic freedom" (p. 129). Of particular relevance to this study is the statement that academic freedom "is not a freedom to do or think anything, as it is sometimes erroneously thought. It is freedom within a particular discipline and its rules". These rules include the moral rules that bind disciplinary specialisations together (Muller & Young, 2014). Regulative discourse regulates or controls the moral order of the teaching environment, and the social norms that underpin the curriculum and the question of who has control over it (Bernstein, 2000). It directs the ways in which knowledge and the means for its transmission are selected. For example, *a university that desires to address a country's shortage of teacher educators* may design a MEd programme with different knowledge from a MEd programme designed by *a university that places a strong emphasis on the programme as a source of funds*. Likewise, *a university which assumes that a teacher educator who was a good school teacher will automatically be a good teacher educator* will focus on the MEd programme as an award, placing less emphasis on the knowledge required to develop quality or good teacher educators. Lack of agreement on shared rules within the programme will invite criticism about the quality of its graduates. The framing of regulative discourse (F+ or F-) in this research is categorised in terms of the social norms that underpin the

MEd curricula, the questions of who has control over what knowledge is selected and how it is organised and transmitted.

Control over the framing of instructional discourses and regulative discourses can vary and they are not always in a complementary relationship; but according to Bernstein (2000), "where there is weak framing over the instructional discourse, there must be weak framing over the regulative discourse" (p. 13).

4.5.2.3 Synthesis of the argument

A central argument in this discussion is that the knowledge structure of the region depends on the relations among singulars' knowledge. The relations signify the extent to which these singulars recontextualise their knowledge into a specific professional field of practice. Thus an attempt to introduce multiple singulars into a professional programme as an easy path towards compound specialisations in that programme may underestimate the significance of how knowledge is structured and combined in professional contexts.

4.5.3 Argument discussion

This study focuses on analysis of MEd programme curricula where universities are the field of production, the field of recontextualisation and the field of reproduction. This renders the pedagogic device particularly relevant to the research. Distributive rules that mediate access to the curriculum, recontextualising rules that are the means by which pedagogic discourse is created, and the evaluation rules that assess the validity of knowledge transmission, are therefore significant theoretical perspectives contributing to our understanding of how the recontextualisation process within the MEd programmes took place.

A region, it is argued, needs to "maintain authority over its knowledge base", without allowing external forces to assume control, which could lead to a resistance to knowledge development from its singulars and a lack of responsiveness to its professional education and practice (Hordern, 2016, p. 443). This implies that selecting appropriate esoteric knowledge and transforming it, that is, recontextualising the knowledge for the benefit of the profession, is a crucial process in curriculum development. In other words, university administrators who take control of the knowledge base of the region as agents in the field of production and

recontextualisation, for whatever reason they claim, may struggle to maintain the validity, relevance and authority of knowledge in response to professional practice needs and developments in that region (Hordern, 2016).

Muller (2009) notes that regions are usually designed to support professional practice (p. 213), creating a professional field of knowledge peculiar to that region. This means that, when recontextualisation takes place by inappropriately esoteric disciplinary singulars, a region might be weak. Thus it is important for agents in the production and recontextualisation fields to take cognisance of the ways in which a region maintains its strength and durability, by recontextualizing appropriate esoteric singulars that determine and count for valid knowledge for professional practice (Hordern, 2016).

Details of Bernstein's translation device and the external language of description developed for the analytical purpose of this research are discussed in Chapter Five.

4.6 How the two theoretical frameworks worked in this study

The causal investigation of the conditions that enable or constrain the Masters of Education programmes to produce quality teacher educators focuses on the accounts of people involved and analysis of the relevant documents. The research examines people's actions in designing and making decisions about programme components, and their experiences and perceptions of these programmes. Government policies and regulations on university programmes in general, and on teacher education in particular, as well as universities' teacher education policies, are among the documents analysed. People's accounts were a crucial starting point for the exploration of the level of the *real*. With the analysed documents, these accounts, using Bernstein's analytical and explanatory tools, in conjunction with data from the literature review, unveil the underlying causal mechanisms that served to answer the research questions of the study.

One of the research questions concerned the underlying causal mechanisms that generate and shape the establishment, conceptualisation and design of MEd programmes. Causes and causal mechanisms are often complex and unobservable; they exist deep in social structures, at the level of the *real*. Adopting a critical realist philosophical viewpoint, the researcher becomes aware of the existence of causes and causal mechanisms by observing or experiencing their effects, or the

absence of their effects (Danermark et al., 2002; Sayer, 2000; Hesketh & Fleetwood, 2006). Analysis of the Masters of Education programmes aims to understanding the causal mechanisms that generate events underpinning the establishment, conceptualisation and design of these programmes, as well as *how* these mechanisms actually generate the events (Danermark et al., 2002, p. 108).

Danermark and colleagues talk about causal mechanisms in critical realism as dependent on the context to generate events and tending to exist in different systems in a society. In other words, forces influencing key players in the region, such as higher education institutions, may affect how knowledge is recontextualised within professional programmes. In this research then, while universities' meso level agents (programme administrators), define the 'what' and the 'how' of teacher education, I also focus the search for causal mechanisms at the macro or national level (policy and other relevant national documents), as well as the micro or lecturers' level.

The research also attempts to illuminate why particular knowledge is privileged in the Masters of Education programmes. The Masters of Education programmes contain both the *what* that is classification and the *how* that is framing. The *what* refers to the knowledge included in the Masters of Education programmes, and the *how* specifies the selection, sequence, and pacing of this knowledge. The data I analysed was used to determine the recontextualising principles and ideologies that underlie the programmes, the regulative and instructional discourses of the programmes, as well as the way the *what* and the *how* of these programmes were designed to serve the requirements of professional teacher educators. Danermark et al. (2002) claim that causal analysis in critical realism deals with *explaining* why what happens actually does happen (p. 52). In this study, causal analysis of the Masters of Education programmes was carried out to establish how the generative mechanisms enabled these programmes to be what they are.

Furthermore, the curriculum components of the MEd programmes were analysed to understand how they were made, by exploring the structuring principles and conditions underpinning their selection. Bernstein's pedagogic device provided a descriptive language to enable understanding of how the universities as the sites for production, recontextualisation and reproduction used the distributive, recontextualising and evaluative rules to come up with the MEd curriculum components. Causal mechanisms conditioning the selection of these components are broadly

explored. Details of the data analysis and discussion of the findings feature in the last three chapters of the thesis.

4.7 Conclusion

In this chapter, I have explicated the theories I have drawn on to achieve the aims of the study. While critical realism provides the ontological base of the study, to analyse the data I employ Bernstein's concepts of classification, framing, and the pedagogic device. In the next chapter, I discuss how I conducted the research.

Chapter Five

Research Methodology

5.1 Introduction

This is a qualitative research study underpinned by a critical realist ontological and epistemological orientation. This chapter starts with a justification for the selection of a qualitative approach, framed by critical realist philosophical perspectives. This is followed by an outline of the case study design and an overview of the two programmes that form the subject of the case study. A critical commentary on how the data was collected, generated and analysed is provided. Issues associated with qualitative case study and critical realist validity are discussed. Ethical considerations are also given attention.

5.2 Research orientation of the study

This study is concerned with analysing MEd programmes in two universities in Tanzania by exploring the power structures and generative mechanism underpinning (1) the establishment, conceptualisation and design of these programmes; and (2), the selection of the components of these programmes. According to Benton and Craib (2011), critical realist researchers attempt to understand what the world must be like to allow for the occurrence of particular events and experiences. In this case, I wanted to understand what conditions in the world of higher education in Tanzania had to have been like for the universities to have designed the MEd programmes in the way they did.

Key to critical realism is the explanation of underlying causal mechanisms that may have been responsible for what has happened, or could happen. The work of critical realist researchers is therefore to discover and study such mechanisms (Benton & Craib, 2011), to see how they work, and to determine if they have in fact been exercised and under what conditions (Sayer, 2000, p. 14; see also Danermark et al., 2002; Hesketh & Fleetwood, 2006). My research questions are aligned to my critical realist ontological and epistemological orientation in this study, so as to allow for detailed analysis of events and experiences in order to identify underlying causal mechanisms at the level of the *real*. The questions explore the causal mechanisms underlying the conceptualisation and structural design of the MEd programmes. The questions also enable me to investigate the nature of the curriculum components of these programmes and the causal

mechanisms underlying their selection. The research questions also examine generative structures and powers beneath the surface appearance of the curricula. The aim of the study is to uncover what enables or constrains the development of quality teacher educators through these programmes.

I used participants' experiences to substantiate my claims about the establishment of these curricula. I also used site observations, events and documents such as university regulations and education policy to show that the surface appearance of the curricula cannot explain what could have or has not happened. This chapter provides details of the methods that I used to help me answer the research questions.

5.3 Qualitative research approach

Research methods and methodology, according to Yeung (1997), are significant as they help to guide the researcher towards finding the answers to the research questions. However, Yeung continues, they "cannot be exercised unless they are supported by strong philosophical claims at the ontological and epistemological levels" (p. 55). In like manner, Braun and Clarke (2006) argue that there is no one ideal philosophical framework for conducting qualitative research, but that "what is important is that the philosophical framework and methods match what the researcher wants to know" (p. 80). While critical realism is essential in understanding the causal powers and generative mechanisms associated with an investigated object (Yeung, 1997), it is also open on the matter of methodology and methods (Carter & New, 2004). Essentially, it offers guidelines for scientific work (Danermark et al., 2002). I therefore used qualitative research methods, framed by critical realist perspectives, to identify and explain the causal and generative mechanisms that enable or constrain the selected Master of Education programmes in developing quality teacher educators.

Qualitative research is an appropriate approach for this study as it emphasises the importance of getting close to people (Patton, 2002; Hancock & Algozzine, 2006; Merriam, 2009; Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2011). The researcher's task is to acquire insights and develop an understanding of the phenomenon being studied (Stake, 1995; Merriam, 2009). The qualitative approach enabled me to gain an intimate understanding of participants' points of view in respect

of the MEd programmes, of their perceptions and experiences, and of the reality and details of events as they occurred in their natural settings (Schwarts-Shea & Yanow, 2012).

In a qualitative approach, researchers do not set out to find data to prove or disprove pre-existing hypotheses. The knowledge is grounded, discovered and justified from the field-based, context-specific methodology of inquiry (Cohen et al., 2011; Schwarts-Shea & Yanow, 2012). It involves an understanding of the perspectives and meanings of those in the setting and the phenomenon being studied. The focus of qualitative research is to give the researcher an opportunity to make sense of the situation without imposing pre-existing expectations upon it (Miles & Huberman, 1984; Patton, 1987; Patton, 2002; Merriam, 2009; Cohen et al., 2011). Hence the mode of inquiry is consonant with the goal of this study, of inductively deriving from the collected data an analytical generalisation about the conditions enabling or constraining the development of the quality teaching of educators through the MEd programmes (Miles & Huberman, 1984; Merriam, 2009; Cohen et al., 2011).

Qualitative methods are designed to capture reality holistically, and this is in keeping with the intensive, focused research required by a realist approach (Merriam, 2009; Cohen et al., 2011). Qualitative methods allow researchers to detect meaning embedded in human activities and to focus on the social process of explanation and description (Schwarts-Shea & Yanow, 2012). The information produced by this qualitative research comprises an understanding of the meanings that administrators, designers and lecturers make of the MEd programmes, and how these meanings are aligned with what the curriculum documents reveal. The data generated also encompasses the reality underlying the surface appearance of the programme, experiences and perceptions of participants, all of which combine to form a holistic portrait of the *real*.

As noted above, critical realism addresses issues of ontology and epistemology and offers "meta-theoretical tenets" for research (Maton & Chen, 2016, p. 27), but it is neither a research method nor does it prescribe a method (Danermark et al, 2002; see also Yeung, 1997). Pawson and Tilley (2000) argue that "research design for realistic … studies … follows exactly the same basic logic of inquiry as that underpinning any other area of social science" (p. 84). Danermark et al. (2002) advise that "the choice of methods should be governed, on the one hand, by what we want to know, and on the other, by what we can learn with the help of different methods" (p. 204). Sayer

(2000) claims that particular choices of methods should depend on the nature of the object of study and what one wants to learn about it. This was the logic behind my choice of a qualitative research design as well as qualitative methods and strategies.

5.4 Case study design

A case study is a description and analysis of a single instance, phenomenon or social unit (Merriam, 2009). In this research, it is a qualitative heuristic strategy that employs the non-reductionist approach of a critical realist perspective to study a phenomenon (Merriam, 2009; Yin, 2009; Yin, 2012). A case study design allows for intensive investigation capable of yielding rich data to facilitate describing and understanding a research problem or situation (see also Crowe, Cresswell, Robertson, Huby, Avery & Sheikh, 2011; Baškarada, 2014). In short, the case study design is a highly appropriate method for critical realist research (Easton, 2010; Yin, 2014).

A case study method fits in well in the study context because it involves intensive study of a single unit for the purpose of understanding a larger class of (similar) units (Baškarada, 2014; see also Gerring, 2007). In this study, I planned to conduct case study research on two Master of Education programmes, with a view to gaining some insight into the thirteen programmes that are on offer in universities in Tanzania. These programmes are the Master of Arts in Education (MA(Ed)) programme at the University of Dar es Salaam (UDSM) and the Master of Education (MEd) programme at the Tumaini University Makumira (TUMA). Opting for a case study research implies choosing to acquire depth and breadth of understanding of these two cases. The type of case study that I engaged in, therefore, was not a single unit case but a *collective* or *multiple-case* study (Yin, 2009; Crowe et al., 2011; Baškarada, 2014).

Yin (2009) describes multiple-case designs as consisting of two or more cases that are researched in order to facilitate an understanding of something. The reason I decided on a multiple case study is because it allowed for cross-case analysis and comparison, and the investigation of a particular phenomenon in different settings (see also Yin, 2014). The aim was to study the two cases (programmes) separately and then generate a broader analytic explanation and generalisation for both (Johnson, 1997; Danermark et al., 2002; Yin, 2009; Crowe et al., 2011, Yin, 2012; Yin, 2014). In the next section, I discuss the basis on which I chose these two cases.

5.4.1 Selecting programmes

According to Yin (2009), a multiple- or collective-case design is preferred over a single-case design because it greatly strengthens the research findings and leads to more robust outcomes than single-case research (see also Gerring, 2007; Crowe et al., 2011; Yin, 2012; Baškarada, 2014). That is, analytical conclusions arising from multiple cases are more powerful than those coming from a single case (Yin, 2014, p. 64). On the other hand, realist social researchers place a considerable emphasis on the context-dependence of causal explanations (Sayer, as cited in Maxwell, 2012, p. 40; Danermark et al., 2002). In this study the two programmes/cases were selected under two contextual conditions. The first was the 'self-designed self-approved programme', as distinct from the 'self-design regulatory-approved programme. I contended that the categories needed to be explored separately. The second selection condition was a time-dependent context.

With regard to the distinction made above, in Chapter Two, Section 2.5.2.2 I explained that before the establishment of the Tanzania Commission for Universities (TCU) in 2005, which is mandated to regulate both public and private universities, the Higher Education Accreditation Council regulated only private universities. This gave self-regulating power to public universities, including the right to design and approve their own programmes. Since 2005, TCU has approved newly established university programmes, that is, universities design the programmes and TCU approves them. The MA(Ed) programme in UDSM, which was established before 2005, is thus a self-designed self-approved programme. The MEd programme at TUMA, which was established in 2009, is a self-design regulatory-approved programme.

Concerning the time-dependent context, Giddens asserts that if we want to understand present practices we must acknowledge that they are historical products (Giddens, as cited in Manicas, 2006, p. 61). The MA(Ed) programme at UDSM was also selected because it was the first Master of Education programme to have been established in Tanzania. The MEd programme in TUMA was selected because it was the first Master of Education programme established after the founding of the TCU.

Danermark et al. (2002) assert that comparison provides an empirical foundation for retroduction, that is, a foundation to sort out contingent differences in order to arrive at a

common and universal explanation (p. 105). Purposive sampling in this multi-case research was intended to enable particular comparisons to illuminate the reasons for differences between settings (Maxwell, 2009, p. 235). While there is no ideal number of cases, two cases suited the research resources available and the time frame of the project (Crowe et al., 2011; Baškarada, 2014).

5.4.2 Description of the programmes

In Chapter Two, Section 2.6.1, I provided background on the UDSM and TUMA and discussed the context of the two MEd programmes. In this section, I present a brief description of the curriculum components of these programmes.

The MA(Ed) at UDSM is a three-semester, 18-month programme. Two semesters are for course work and one for research. The curriculum consists of four core courses and a dissertation; with ten elective courses from which students choose two (see Appendix D, Table D.1 for details). The official, written MA(Ed) curriculum has four main components: the programme goals, evaluation modalities, programme structure and course descriptions (course objectives, modules/topics, assessment and references). Mode of delivery and learning outcomes are specified for only some of the courses. A similar, part-time evening MA(Ed) programme is also offered, over a two-year period.

The MEd programme at TUMA is a two-year programme. Structurally, the programme consists of three course-work semesters and one semester to write a dissertation. The curriculum consists of eleven core and nine elective courses, from which students choose one to study in each of the three course-work semesters (see Appendix D, Table D.2 for details). Students are expected to study four core courses in each of the first two semesters, and three core courses in the third semester (TUMA. MEd curriculum document, 2009, p. 4).

The key components of the curriculum include a programme rationale; general and specific objectives; structure of the programme; admission qualifications; methods of instruction; curriculum courses and their objectives, topics, teaching methods, assessment and references. These and the detail of the components of individual courses in the course outlines for both

MA(Ed) and MEd curricula form part of the documents analysis that was done. This is explained in Chapter Seven. Table 5.1, below, summarises the structure of the two programmes.

Table 5.1 Summary of the structure of MA(Ed) and MEd programmes

	UDSM MA(Ed) programme	TUMA MEd programme
Length	18 months	2 years
Number of semesters	Course work: 2 Dissertation: 1	Course work: 3 Dissertation: 1
Number of courses	Core: 4 Option (elective): 10	Core: 11 Option (elective): 9

Source: TUMA. MEd curriculum document (2009); UDSM. MA(Ed) curriculum document (n.d.)

5.5 Data collection methods

In this research, I employed two main data collection methods, interviews and document analysis. The data collection methods were chosen specifically to generate data that address the two research questions. I applied *multiple ways* of collecting data using these two methods to increase the credibility of the data collected. In case of interviews, I conducted semi-structured individual and unstructured group face-to-face interviews, as well as email interviews. Two groups of documents were analysed. The first group involved education policies, university regulations, guidelines, and university electronic materials. The other group included the two MEd curricula, course outlines, student dissertations, references and textbooks. Together with document analysis, I used observation to examine infrastructures, teaching and learning resources and facilities, including computer labs, lecture theatres and lecture rooms, library and resource centre buildings and services, and other reading spaces available in the universities for MEd students (Merriam, 2009; see also Gillham, 2000). The observation method and the *multiple ways* of conducting interviews and analysing different groups of documents aimed to compensate for the limitations of the two methods (Yin, 2003, 2009, 2014).

Qualitative research attempts to explore a host of factors that may be influencing a situation, and therefore typically makes use of more holistic methods to investigate and display data (Hancock & Algozzine, 2006). The qualitative researcher is expected to draw upon multiple (at least two) sources of evidence, seeking convergence and corroboration using different data sources and methods (Bowen, 2009, p. 28; see also Hancock & Algozzine, 2006). At the same time, case study research does not advocate a particular method for data collection; any and all methods can be used (Gillham, 2000; Gerring, 2007; Merriam, 2009). Furthermore, both case study and

qualitative research approaches involve thick data description in the form of "quotes from the documents, field notes, and participant interviews" (Merriam, 2009, p. 16; see also Hamilton & Corbett-Whittier, 2012).

As already pointed out, critical realism is compatible with a wide range of research methods (Sayer, 2000; Danermark et al., 2002). In fact, it is critical of any ambition to develop a specific method (ibid.). Educational processes take place in open systems (Scott, 2010, p. 6), and the causal mechanisms tend to depend on the context to generate events (Danermark et al., 2002). Hence the aim was to search for rich or 'thick' data on social and agential structures at the macro (the national), meso (institutional) and micro (lecturers') levels, which form the natural setting of the programmes' open system.

Data collection in the critical realist framework relates to the accessing of *transitive* knowledge, the knowledge most accessible to us at the level of the *empirical* and the *actual*. As explained in Chapter Four, Section 4.3.2.1, the *empirical* level consists of accounts from research participants obtained through interviews. As critical realists reject a total dependence on the empirical level, the data collected at this level was analysed to identify some causal determinants of participants' experiences and observations of the world. This involved exploring the *actual* level, the documentary evidence, made up of things and events that objectively exist or that happened.

5.6 Data collection process

During the data collection process, which took place simultaneously with the initial data analysis (Ezzy, 2002; Merriam, 2009; Yin, 2009; Maxwell, 2013), I started with document review and analysis, followed this with observation of infrastructure, resources and facilities, and finally conducted the interviews. The reason for starting with document analysis was its role in methodological and data triangulation (Bowen, 2009, p. 29). The researcher can use data drawn from documents to contextualise data collected, for example, during interviews (Gillham, 2000). Document analysis can also help direct other paths of inquiry such as interviewing and on-site visits for observation (Patton, 2002). Document analysis thus complements other methods in an interactive way (Bowen, 2009, p. 30). Merriam (2009) emphasises that for case study research at the level of an academic programme, it is particularly important to seek out a paper trail for what it can reveal about things that cannot be observed, things that have taken place before the

empirical activities begin. Starting with document analysis helped me to generate interview questions and identify additional situations or matters to be investigated.

5.6.1 Document analysis and observation

Document analysis characterises case study research (Gillham, 2000). It is a systematic procedure for reviewing or evaluating documents, both printed and electronic (computer-based and Internet-transmitted) (Bowen, 2009, p. 27; see also Gillham, 2000). Documents help the researcher to uncover meaning, develop understanding, and discover insights relevant to the research problem (Merriam, 2009).

According to Bowen (2009), documents are the most effective means of gathering data when events can no longer be observed, such as is the case with the MEd programme in TUMA, which is no longer being offered due to a lack of applicants. Document analysis is also essential when informants have forgotten details, such as for the MA(Ed) at UDSM that was established long ago (Bowen, 2009, p. 31).

As documents describe phenomena that can or cannot be observed (Danermark et al., 2002), they can help uncover the causal mechanisms responsible for the experiences and actions of participants and events involved in the phenomena investigated. In this study, documents provided background information and perspectives that helped me understand the historical roots and associated conditions pertaining to the programmes under investigation. They also provided me with the data on the context within which research participants operated (Bowen, 2009; Merriam, 2009). Most importantly, documents contain text and images that have been recorded without the researcher's intervention or influence (Bowen, 2009, p. 27).

Analysis of both printed and electronic university materials provided information about the history of the research sites and the MEd goals, objectives, admission criteria, and course contents. General competences, skills and knowledge for a master's qualification in Tanzania were identified through the analysis of TCU documents and the teacher diploma curriculum. In fact, any and all documents relating to the MEd programmes had to be considered as a source of data and be analysed in their entirety to contribute to the research (Hamilton & Corbett-Whittier, 2012, p. 11). Visiting the universities' libraries to search for information sources that were not

available online such as historical information and archives, students' dissertations, research reports, references and textbooks was necessary for the enrichment of the data. In this I was guided by Merriam's (2009) claim that "locating public records is limited only by the researcher's imagination and industriousness" (p. 140).

The situation that I encountered during library visits suggested more sites to be observed that were relevant to teaching and learning resources and facilities (Bowen, 2009). I employed observation to examine the availability and conditions of services, furniture and resource materials in the library and in the resource centre, the computer labs, lecture rooms and theatres, as well as maintenance of the buildings and availability of other reading spaces at UDSM and TUMA. I observed teaching and learning resources such as computers, overhead projectors, and checked internet availability and access as well as online resources and databases. I also examined the size of the buildings and teaching, learning and reading spaces in relation to the number of MEd students. Table 5.2 below, presents details of the documents analysed and facilities and resources and the type of data that was collected.

Table 5.2 Document analysis

Documents analysed, facilities and resources	Type of data collected
Government education policies and other relevant documents: 1995 Tanzania Education and Training Policy (TETP), 1999 National Higher Education Policy (NHEP), Diploma in teacher education curriculum, Certificate in teacher education curriculum, Teacher Education Development Plan.	Meaning and responsibilities of higher education; Meaning and roles of universities; Aims and objectives of education and training; Aims and objectives of higher education, Tutors' qualifications, duties and responsibilities.
TCU documents: 2005 University Act, the 2007 Universities (General) Regulations, University Qualification Framework (UQF); 2014 Quality assurance guidelines and minimum standards for provision of university education, Rolling strategic plan, Admission reports, 2016 University Act review report, Minimum guidelines and norms for governance units.	Roles and mandates of TCU; Meaning and roles of universities, Programme review and accreditation processes; Purpose, knowledge, skills and competences for Master's degree qualification. Guidelines for university governance units including university programmes mode of delivery; library facilities and resources. Guidelines for university employment, staff performance review and career development, including universities' roles; guidelines for part-time staff appointment and Assistant Lecturers' qualifications, duties and responsibilities.
Universities' electronic and internet material, and other hard copy information sources including prospectus, examination regulations, curriculum of other master of education programmes and undergraduate education courses.	Historical data on the vision, mission and establishment of the universities; Information on university colleges, Schools, Faculties and Department; Events and issues in the institutions relating to teacher education; Advertisement of the programme; Programme goals, objectives and courses.
Two MEd formal/intended written curriculum and course outlines	History of the university and the programme; Curriculum components: Curriculum goals, general and specific objectives; Learning outcomes; Programme rationale; Programme entry qualification; Curriculum structure. Curriculum courses: Course objectives; Instructional strategies; Courses topics and modules; Assessments; References
Library, resource centre, computer lab, theatre and lecture rooms, reading space.	Availability and access of reading space; Quality and size of teaching and learning facilities; Availability of human resources; Availability, access, quality and adequacy of library resource materials: books and journals, e-resources and recent resources, computers, internet; Availability, quality and relevance of resources for MEd students
Student dissertations	Students' competences in research knowledge, skills and application Relationship/alignment of research topics within the course and to students dissertations; Quality, adequacy and relevance of research knowledge; Lecturer's research knowledge and capacity to supervise; Students' research performance.

The information contained in documents suggested further questions to be asked (Bowen, 2009). Bowen (2009), however, warns that documents are not always advantageous. Though they bear a

relation to what the researcher might discover, they cannot be taken as invariably representative of what actually happens (Gillham, 2000). In addition, they may have limitations such as insufficient detail and low retrievability, which make it necessary for the researcher to use other method(s) of data collection (Bowen, 2009). In this study, the other method at the *empirical* level of data collection was interviews. A combination of methods served to strengthen the overall findings of the research (Darlington & Scott, 2002).

5.6.2 Interviews

The qualitative research interview is an occasion to obtain accounts or descriptions from an interviewee. The purpose is to obtain descriptions of the life world of the interviewee, what they know, experience, think, feel, and observe, with a view to interpreting the meaning of the described phenomena. From a critical realist perspective, people are agents and as such, they act with intent and purpose and assign meaning to things (Danermark et al., 2002; Archer, 1995). The qualitative research interview attempts to understand the world from the participants' points of view, to unfold the meaning of people's experiences, to uncover their lived world prior to explanation. People's accounts of the world are thus important in critical realist understandings and serve as a good point of departure for exploring the *real* world.

Given the common concern of qualitative researchers to understand the meaning people make of their lives from their own perspective, in-depth interviewing (which I employed in this research) is the most commonly used data collection approach (Darlington & Scott, 2002).

In-depth interviews are particularly useful when the phenomenon under investigation, like the curriculum design process of the MEd programmes, cannot be observed directly (Taylor & Bogdan, as cited in Darlington & Scott, 2002, p. 50). Thus they are an excellent means of finding out how people think or feel about a given topic (Darlington & Scott, 2002). They also enable the researcher to talk to people about events that happened in the past and those that are yet to happen. They help researchers to obtain information that cannot be obtained from document analysis. They are the only way to access a person's perceptions, thoughts and feelings about events that have already occurred.

5.6.2.1 Selecting research participants

The nature of the research topic and knowledge of the participants about the phenomenon being studied are commonly regarded as essential criteria for the selection of participants in qualitative research interviews (Darlington & Scott, 2002). The participants need to have or be able to develop a significant relationship with the phenomenon. The capacity of the participants to provide full and sensitive descriptions of the phenomenon under investigation is an important consideration in interviewee selection. At the same time, there is no easy answer to the question of how many participants are required for a qualitative study.

Although it is common cause that qualitative researchers are purposive in the selection of research participants (Merriam, 2009; Yin, 2009), I was guided by the advice of Darlington and Scott (2002) in my selection of participants. That is, I chose participants who were most likely to have appropriate information, knowledge, insight and understanding of the programmes being studied. These included programme designers, programme administrators and course lecturers.

Among the lecturers, I selected individuals who taught courses that, in one way or another, were related to teacher educators' knowledge. I also selected those lecturers who had worked in the institution for long time or had been in administrative posts. I also took into consideration the other roles, besides teaching, that lecturers play in the programme.

In the case of administrators, I selected both former and current Faculty and School Deans and Heads of the Education Departments, Directors of postgraduate studies, and coordinators of the programme courses. In total, I invited eleven people to participate in the study. A comprehensive list appears in Tables 5.4 and 5.5, below.

5.6.2.1.1 Participants at UDSM

A total of six in-depth individual interviews were conducted, three of them: one to the former and one to the current Associate Dean, School of Education, and one with the Head of Department of educational psychology and curriculum studies, all are also lecturers in the MA(Ed) courses. The three interviews were conducted to a retired academic staff member who was an employee of the institution when the programme was designed in 1974; a Curriculum and Teaching lecturer who also coordinated two courses in this programme; and a research course

lecturer. In Table 5.3, below, I give a summary information about the participants and the codes that I assigned them.

Table 5.3 Participants' information and their codes at UDSM

Interviewee Codes	Qualification	MA(Ed) course codes and names participant teach	Interview date and time
D1	Doctorate	FE 600 Research Methods in Education	19th Oct 2015 at 12:45
D2	Doctorate	CT 607 Advanced Curriculum Development	19th Oct 2015 at 2:15
D3	Doctorate	FE 600 Research Methods in Education	21st Oct 2015 at 3:35
D4	Doctorate (Professor)	EF 601 Comparative Education	4th Nov 2015 at 8:00
D5	Doctorate	CT 600 Curriculum and Teaching CT 607 Advanced Curriculum Development	4th Nov 2015 at 12:10
D6	Doctorate (Professor)	-	Email interview

5.6.2.1.2 Participants at TUMA

The MEd programme, which is no longer on offer because of a shortage of applicants, had nine lecturers, and it had been established and developed by three designers. One lecturer who was also a designer of the MEd programme had passed away in 2013. Interviews at TUMA involved one group interview and three individual semi-structured interviews. Three lecturers were part-time teaching staff from other universities one of them was a participant in the study. The former Dean of the Faculty of Humanities, who was one of the three MEd programme designers, is now working at another university and was not interviewed.

Hence, the three in-depth individual and one group interview were conducted with participants as follows: one with the former director of postgraduate studies who was also the designer of and a lecturer in the MEd programme; one with the current Dean, Faculty of Education; and one with a part-time lecturer. A group interview was conducted with the former Dean of the Faculty of Education who was also a lecturer in one of the MEd courses, and the current Dean, Faculty of Humanities. The Dean from the Faculty of Humanities was interviewed because at the time when the programme was established, there was no Faculty of Education in TUMA and hence the MEd programme fell under the Faculty of Humanities. Table 5.4, below, summarises participants' information and codes

Table 5.4 Participants' information and codes at TUMA

Interviewee Code	Qualification	MEd course codes and names participant teach	Interview date and time
U1	Doctorate	-	10th February 2015 at 9:54
U2	Masters	EDU 400 Curriculum Planning, Theory, Design and Development	
U3	Masters	-	10th February 2015 at 3:35
U4	Doctorate (Professor)	EDU 403 Test construction, Measurement, Educational Statistics and Evaluation. EDU 409 Educational Psychology, Theories and Principles of Teaching and Learning, EDU 501 Psychology of Human Growth and Development	23rd Oct 2015 at 3:45
U5	Doctorate	EDU 402 Research Methodology EDU 404 Professional Ethics for Educators EDU 407 Management of education and school administration EDU 503 Gender Development and Education	Email interview

5.6.2.2 Interview process and the type of data collected

I conducted individual and group semi-structured in-depth interviews using an interview guide with a list of issues I wanted to raise to the interviewees. The use of an interview guide, which meant that I did not have to follow a specific order of questions, gave me the freedom to probe or ask follow-up questions (Yin, 2009). I used the list of issues as a reminder of what I needed to ask. At the same time, using both individual and group interviews provided me with an opportunity to check the consistency of the data received from multiple sources and methods, to establish the "converging line of evidence" which renders the findings as robust as possible (Yin, 2012, p. 13). Group interviewing is a useful source of information (Gillham, 2000), and when I conducted the group interview, conflict and disagreement associated with the process of designing the MEd programme at TUMA started to emerge. This alerted me to otherwise hidden complexities that had attended the design of the programme (details are discussed in Chapter Six).

The interviews all followed the same pattern. First, prior to the interview I gave the interview questions to the interviewee. This was because I wanted to make sure that they understood the

questions and were ready to answer them when we met. The longer interviews took a maximum of 60 minutes. All were held in the participants' offices. At the start of the interview, I thanked them for their willingness to participate in the study, went through the ethics of anonymity and their right to withdraw at any stage and requested their permission to follow up with further questions after the interview, if the need arose. I went through the same procedure of providing a preliminary introduction and gave them an overview of what I was researching, requesting permission to record the interviews, providing them with the consent form to read and sign, and gave them the opportunity to ask me any questions they wanted to. All these processes helped me to build the sort of rapport that increased the likelihood of obtaining rich and enlightening data (Ezzy, 2002; Yin, 2009; Maxwell, 2012). In addition, being in the interviewees' offices also meant they were in a familiar zone where I was the guest, which I believe encouraged them to answer the questions more confidently.

Broadly speaking, the interviews with university administrators and programme designers followed this pattern: how was the programme conceptualised and designed, what guided the selection of the programme components, what were the goals, objectives and structure of the programme; what kind of knowledge was included; how and why (under what conditions) was that particular knowledge privileged. The discussion extended to: what kind of graduates were to be produced; what kinds of assessments used; what were the reasons for students' choosing or not choosing the programme; what were the bases of specialisation in the programme; what are the perceptions of teacher educators' needs; and how do they consider the roles of teacher educators.

The purpose of conducting interviews with the lecturers was to identify similarities and difference, and to complement the data obtained from the interviews with administrators and programme designers, and from document analysis. The interviews with lecturers probed for more information on sequence, pace, evaluative criteria and students' achievements in addition to what was considered a quality teacher.

More specifically, the semi-structured interviews with lecturers included the following key questions:

- What course(s) do you teach?
- What is the focus of the course(s)?
- How did you introduce the course(s)?
- How do you teach and assess the course(s)?
- How relevant is the course(s) you teach for teacher educators?
- How are the course(s) objectives, teaching approach and evaluation criteria relevant for teacher educators?
- Do you think there is coherence between topics and the course(s) objectives?
- How does the course(s) contribute to building teacher educator professionalism?
- How does the course(s) contribute to building teacher educators competences?
- What exactly do you think you can change, modify, add or subtract to make the course(s) more effective for teacher educators?

Audio tape recording supplied accurate, lasting records of participants' responses. In conjunction with the recordings, I made notes in my research journals that went with me everywhere. This proved to be helpful, especially when participants started to talk informally about the programmes on the day of setting the interview date. I made memoranda of questions that I needed to reflect on, insights, hunches or ideas, documents that I needed to get a copy of; the name of someone I was advised to meet; something I observed; a comment made; or a discussion I heard (Gillham, 2000). I compared and contrasted the data that I collected in the interviews with the data from the documents and site visits, a process known as triangulation.

5.7 The level of the real

The events and experiences from the *empirical* and *actual* levels produce *transitive* knowledge. This is the knowledge that is most accessible (Bhaskar, 1978). The level of the *real* consists of structures and powers that may not be seen immediately. According to Sayer (2000), structures and powers represent the abilities or capacities to behave in certain ways, or to cause things to happen in certain ways. That is, they generate mechanisms that determine the occurrence of events and experiences in the social world. The work of the critical realist researcher, therefore, is to identify the generative mechanisms that are not immediately visible but are functioning at the level of the *real* (Bhaskar, 1975, 1978). They are the hidden *intransitive* knowledge (ibid.). Data analysis in this research means the process of uncovering the generative mechanisms that

may have contributed to shape the way the things are at the level of the *real*. Table 5.5 shows examples of structural (materials) and agential (people) causal mechanisms that were identified at this level of reality. In the sections below I describe how I analysed the data collected at the *empirical* and *actual* levels of reality in order to arrive at a deeper understanding of how the MEd programmes were designed and of how the knowledge informing them was selected.

Table 5.5 Examples of mechanisms revealed at the level of real

Levels	Structural mechanisms	Agential mechanisms
Real	Material conditions influencing the establishment, conceptualisation, design and selection of programme components (e.g. regulatory bodies, university regulations, university autonomy, historical factors, policies, quality assurance system, processes of programme approval, university intentions and interests, university financial issues, curriculum experts)	Administrators' autonomy (e.g. decision making, intentions, goal, concerns)

5.8 Data analysis and causal mechanisms

I analysed data in three phases, the first being thematic analysis. In this phase, emerging themes were identified using data collected at the *empirical* and *actual* levels. The second was the abduction phase. This involved the theoretical reinterpretation of themes by using Bernstein's "translation device" for the external language of description (Maton & Chen, 2016, pp. 31-33). The third was the retroduction phase, where identification of possible causal mechanisms at the *real* level took place. Abductive and retroductive analysis enabled me to connect the level of the *empirical* – the accounts given by people about the programmes, to the *actual* – the analysis of the documents and site observation, and then to the level of the *real* and the generative mechanisms that may have contributed to the events and experiences at the levels of the *actual* and *empirical*.

Table 5.6 Data analysis process

Phases	Goals	Activities
Thematic analysis	Surveying the data	Transcribing reading data, noting down initial ideas;
	Generating initial codes	Coding interesting features of the data, collating data relevant to each code;
	Searching and categorising emergent themes in data	Collating codes into potential emergent themes;
	Reviewing themes	• Reviewing at the level of the coded data extracts, in relation to the entire data set; • Creating a new theme, synthesising similar themes into broader themes, or discarding themes from the analysis if they do not fit; • Identify potential new themes that are relevant;
	Defining, refining and naming themes	• Interrogating data for details to support emergent themes; • Identifying possible causal links to emergent themes; • Generating clear definitions and names for each theme;
	Producing the report/write-up of the analysis report	Writing an analytical description of the data, and making an argument in relation to research questions;
Abduction	Abduction analysis	Engaging in abductive reasoning to reinterpret and recontextualise themes using concepts in Bernstein translation device;
Retroduction	Identify possible causal mechanisms	Engaging in retroduction by seeking answers to transcendental questions.

The process was not linear, as shown in Table 5.6, above. It was iterative, involving several repetitions including movements to and from data to theoretical concepts, refining and naming of the codes and themes. It also involved the initial writing of reports, which eventually became Chapters Six and Seven of this study, with back and forth movements from data (refining and searching for more themes) to theory, and back to writing. The section below provides an outline of how the thematic analysis process took place.

5.8.1 Thematic analysis

Thematic analysis is a method for searching, analysing, and reporting patterns or themes within data (Braun & Clarke, 2006, p. 79). The method involves the identification of themes that are important to the description of the phenomenon through "careful reading and re-reading of the data" (Ezzy, 2002). It also organises and describes the researcher's data set in (rich) detail (Braun & Clarke, 2006).

Thematic analysis has been characterised as not a specific method but a tool to be used across different qualitative methods (Boyatzis, as cited in Braun & Clarke, 2006). It is a flexible technique with few specified procedures, allowing researchers to adapt it to match their own requirements (Braun & Clarke, 2006, p. 78). I conducted a thematic analysis phase incorporating and adapting Braun and Clarke's (2006) six thematic analysis stages: familiarising oneself with the data, generating initial codes, searching for themes, reviewing themes, defining and naming themes, and producing the report; as shown in Table 5.6, above (pp. 87-92). These six stages were accompanied by other steps, including the construction of templates through *template analysis* (King, 2004) (generating organisational categories), testing the constructed templates, generating substantive categories, applying the templates to substantive categories, and generating theoretical categories.

In summary, the thematic analysis process took place as follows. I began analysis as soon as I had collected the initial data. After transcribing two interviews and noting down initial ideas, I defined a priori lists of codes based on Maxwell's (2013) organisational categories. Organisational categories are broad areas and issues that the researcher wants to investigate, decided upon prior to the data generation (p. 107). This is what King (2004) refers to as a priori *template analysis* of codes (p. 256). Template analysis is the building up of a list of key ideas and issues into a template. I generated a list of organisational categories or codes using the literature, previous studies, topics in the interview schedule, and hunches I had about the programmes from the initial document analysis. I established two templates, guided by the research questions (King, 2004; Maxwell, 2013), which worked primarily as 'bins' for sorting the data for further analysis (Maxwell, 2013, p. 107).

After re-listening, reading and re-reading the whole data set and transcribing all the interviews, I summarised each transcript by outlining the key points made by the participants, noting both individual and consensual (group) comments. I also summarised the documents by extracting features and information that appeared to be of interest regarding university programmes and master's programmes in general, and Master of Education programmes in particular. Writing memos was important in keeping track of ideas, hunches, thoughts, speculations, reflections and tentative themes that were emerging during the analysis (Ezzy, 2002; Yin, 2009; Maxwell,

2012). I then coded the transcriptions and documents according to Maxwell's (2013) notion of substantive categories (pp. 107-108). Substantive categories include a description of participants' concepts and beliefs. These categories, similar to organisational categories (the templates) and raw data summaries, stay close to the data categorised and do not imply more abstract theory (p. 108). But while they are not theory-determined, in the sense that they are not explicitly employing theoretical concepts, such categories are nevertheless theory-laden in that they exist in relation to theoretical concepts (Maton & Chen, 2016). This categorisation allowed me to concentrate on the potential meanings emerging from the data rather than attempting to fit the data into theoretical concepts (p. 39).

I applied the generative categories – the codes from the templates – to the substantive categories with the intention of identifying meaningful units. Analysis of the text at this stage was guided by, but not confined to, the template codes. A process of data retrieval organised the codes or clustered codes for each transcript and document across both sets of data.

At this stage, I was able to code the data based on Maxwell's (2013) theoretical categories. Theoretical categories represent more explicitly certain concepts derived from Bernstein's theories (Maxwell, 2013; Maton & Chen, 2016), including recontextualising principles, evaluation criteria, sequencing, pacing etc. These theoretical categories stretch to other phases of analysis, abduction, and interpretation (ibid.). In this way, as indicated above, the analytical process was not sequential or linear, but iterative and yet systematic, in the sense that it involved careful repeated sorting to ensure that all the research material was being considered (Maxwell, 2013).

I connected the codes and identified themes across the two sets of data, clustered under headings relating directly to the research questions. Similarities and differences among separate groups of data were emerging at this stage, indicating areas of consensus and areas of potential conflict in response to the research questions (Maton & Chen, 2016). Themes within each data group were also beginning to cluster, with differences identified between the responses of participants from differing demographics; for example, the responses of lecturers who were also administrators and those who were just lecturers.

The final stage in the process of thematic analysis was reviewing, defining and naming themes. I compared and contrasted the themes that had emerged, synthesising related themes into a single theme. I assigned a name that best captured what the theme was about. Thereafter, I reinterpreted and recontextualised the themes as they emerged in the data through abductive analysis.

5.8.1.1 Thematic and template analysis and the philosophical relation to critical realism

Thematic analysis is flexible in that it depends on the theoretical position of the research. It is a method that works both to reflect reality and unravel the surface of reality (Braun & Clarke, 2006). In critical realism, thematic analysis, which is also sometimes called content analysis, reports on the experiences, meanings and realities of participants. It acknowledges the ways in which individuals make meaning of their experience, and, in turn, the ways in which the broader social context impinges on those meanings, while retaining a focus on the material (Braun & Clarke, 2006). Similarly, according to King (2004), template analysis may be used in conjunction with a range of epistemological positions. It can be employed in the qualitative work of realist research, that is, in research such as this, which is concerned with discovering underlying causes for human action (King, 2004), and which seeks to achieve researcher objectivity and demonstrate coding validity. It is a methodological technique based on realist ontology and grounded by its epistemological approach of uncovering the real beliefs, attitudes and values of the participants in the research (p. 257).

5.8.2 Abduction

Abduction involves an exercise in re-description that serves to explain a process, conditions or happenings (Bhaskar, 2016, p. 79). In the current research, abduction was chosen for its ability to offer opportunities for recontextualising and re-interpreting data within a conceptual framework (Danermark et al., 2002, p. 80), and for its lack of fixed criteria in drawing conclusions about collective knowledge in relation to the studied phenomena (Ezzy 2002, p. 11). Bernstein's theoretical perspectives, as discussed in Chapter Four, provided a useful framework for describing and explaining why the two Master of Education programmes were the way they were. Abductive analysis using Bernstein's theories and concepts enabled me, for example, to describe the organising and structuring logics underpinning the conceptualisation and design of the programmes, the generative mechanisms that underlie the recontextualising principles of selecting the programme components, and the evaluative criteria of the programmes. The

explanatory power of Bernstein's theories provided me with a language for re-describing what I heard in the interviews, at the *empirical* level, and what I reviewed in the documents and on observations on the sites visit, at the *actual* level.

5.8.2.1 Bernstein's translation device

Bernstein's theoretical concepts, like many other educational conceptual frameworks, refer to relations between knowledge practices and actors (Maton & Chen, 2016, p. 33). These relations assume different empirical forms, depending on the research problem or the phenomenon studied. Hence, creating a translation device requires researchers, after developing an "internal language" (descriptions of how theoretical concepts relate to each other, see Chapter Four), to immerse themselves in the data of their study, distancing themselves from the theoretical concepts in order to understand the data on its own. I accomplished this stage through the thematic analysis process. Deep immersion in the data and moving away from theory is necessary because applying the theory too soon will overwhelm the data and limit its potential to say something new (Moss, as quoted by Maton & Chen, 2016, p. 33).

After immersing myself in the data sets and understanding them, I moved slowly towards Bernstein's theoretical concepts via the categories/codes and themes that emerged from the data. Since theoretical concepts often acquire different dimensions in relation to different research problems, following this process enabled the theoretical concepts to be brought into relation with my data through the *external language* of the theory (Maton & Chen, 2016, pp. 32-33). An external language is a descriptive language intended to serve the analysis of the problem with which the research is concerned (Maton & Chen, 2016, p. 45). As a translation device, I used the theoretical concepts of classification, framing and pedagogical device to develop an external language to describe a number of features of the selected Master of Education programmes, as well as across the universities and in the national documentation and university regulations. Tables 5.7 and 5.8 show the developed Bernsteinian translation device as a series of tools for analysing my data.

Table 5.7 Translation device showing MEd classification and framing categorisations

Concept meaning	Concepts and indicators	
Programme - a region	C+ weak region A programme with strong classified singulars with separate knowledge within a programme. The programme is without a strongly defined disciplinary basis and without a clearly specified professional field of practice	C- strong region A programme with weakly classified singulars that have related and integrated disciplinary knowledge with a clearly specified professional world of work
Across-course classification • Boundaries between courses	C+ strongly bounded courses with fewer relationships with other courses (C++) more strongly classified courses	C- Weak boundaries between courses, with strong relations and integration. (C--) more weakly classified courses
Regionalisation of knowledge • Recontextualising of singulars	C+ Knowledge in singulars/courses is too diverse. (C++) more strongly classified knowledge	C- Singulars/courses recontextualise to create a region/a professional field for teacher educators. (C--) more weakly classified knowledge
Within-course classification • Boundaries between topics within a course	C+ Strong boundaries between topics. Topics are treated separately.	C- Weak boundaries between topics. Topics within a course are integrated.
Programme goal and general objective	C+ Strong goal or general objective C++ more strongly classified goal or general objective	C- Weak goal or general objective C-- more weakly classified goal or general objective
Course objectives	C+ Objectives refer to the discipline and specialisation of the course.	C- Objectives refer to broader programme goals.
Instructional discourse • Selection, sequence pace	F+ Strong framing: e.g. lecturers do not have control over selection, sequence and pacing of instructional strategies	F- Weak framing: e.g. lecturers have control over selection, sequence and pacing of the instructional strategies
Evaluation criteria • Evaluation – what • Evaluation – how	F+ strongly framed specified and explicit F++ more strongly framed more specified and explicit	F- weakly framed implicit and not specified F-- more weakly framed more implicit and not specified
Regulative discourse	F+ Strong framing: e.g. top university administrators have control over how knowledge in the MEd is to be made and organised	F- Weak framing: e.g. lecturers have control over how knowledge in the MEd is to be made and organised

Source: Bernstein (2000)

Table 5.8 Translation device showing the language of description for the pedagogic device

Field of practice	Form of regulation
Production • Universities in Tanzania are the field of production for teacher education programmes	*Distributive rules* - Universities in Tanzania: • these rules are about ensuring that what gets distributed is what counts as acceptable knowledge • guide the field of (knowledge) production to distinguish between different forms of knowledge by providing directions to different pedagogic identities
Recontextualisation • Universities in Tanzania are the field of recontextualisation for teacher education programmes	*Recontextualising rules* - Universities in Tanzania: • selecting and amending the knowledge into a curriculum for teacher educators, and oversee the logical ordering of that knowledge and its sequencing.
Reproduction • Universities in Tanzania are the field of reproduction for teacher education programmes	*Evaluative rules* - Universities in Tanzania: • decide what measures to be used to assess acquisition of the knowledge.

Source: Bernstein (2000)

5.8.3 Retroduction

Knowledge from the *empirical* and *actual* layers provides a collection of patterns of evidence about the observable phenomenon, the MEd programmes. The question of 'what underlying power structure and mechanism explains these patterns?' is answered by the retroduction phase of analysis. Retroduction is an imaginative activity by which the researcher identifies possible generative mechanisms that, if they were real, would explain the phenomenon (Bhaskar, 2016). Retroductive argument asks what would, if it were real, bring about, produce, cause or explain a phenomenon (p. 3). Discovering a mechanism is hard to explain unless we assume that the mechanisms really are independently existing things. Critical realist philosophical arguments that are called transcendent arguments claim to demonstrate the independent reality of the third or *real* level of reality, the mechanisms, their powers and tendencies (Benton & Craib, 2011). Such transcendent argument asks what the world must be like for a certain social practice to be possible (Bhaskar, 2016, pp. 3, 25).

The analysis of *empirical* and *actual* events and experience from a critical realist philosophical position shows that there must be underlying causal mechanisms and powers. The events and experiences do not tell us what these causal mechanisms and powers are, it is up to the researcher to discover them (Benton & Craib, 2011).

Understanding the power structures and mechanisms that give rise to events and experiences was important in this context as, for example, one of the research interests of the study was to

ascertain how and why programme components were selected. This may not necessarily be obvious at the level of the *actual* or *empirical* (Scott, 2010), but may nonetheless have an underlying significance that can be brought to light through the process of analysis. Critical realism encourages the researcher to penetrate the surface appearance of things to uncover their generative causes. Retroduction therefore directed me to examine rigorously the preconditions beneath the surface appearance of the programmes, for example, the historical *self-regulating autonomy of the public university*. Potentially, this could be a causal mechanism affecting the reality or truth of the actual process of the design of the MEd programmes in both public and private universities (Ezzy 2002, p. 11; see also Hesketh & Fleetwood, 2006). Figure 5.1, below, summarises the data analysis process of uncovering the causal mechanisms.

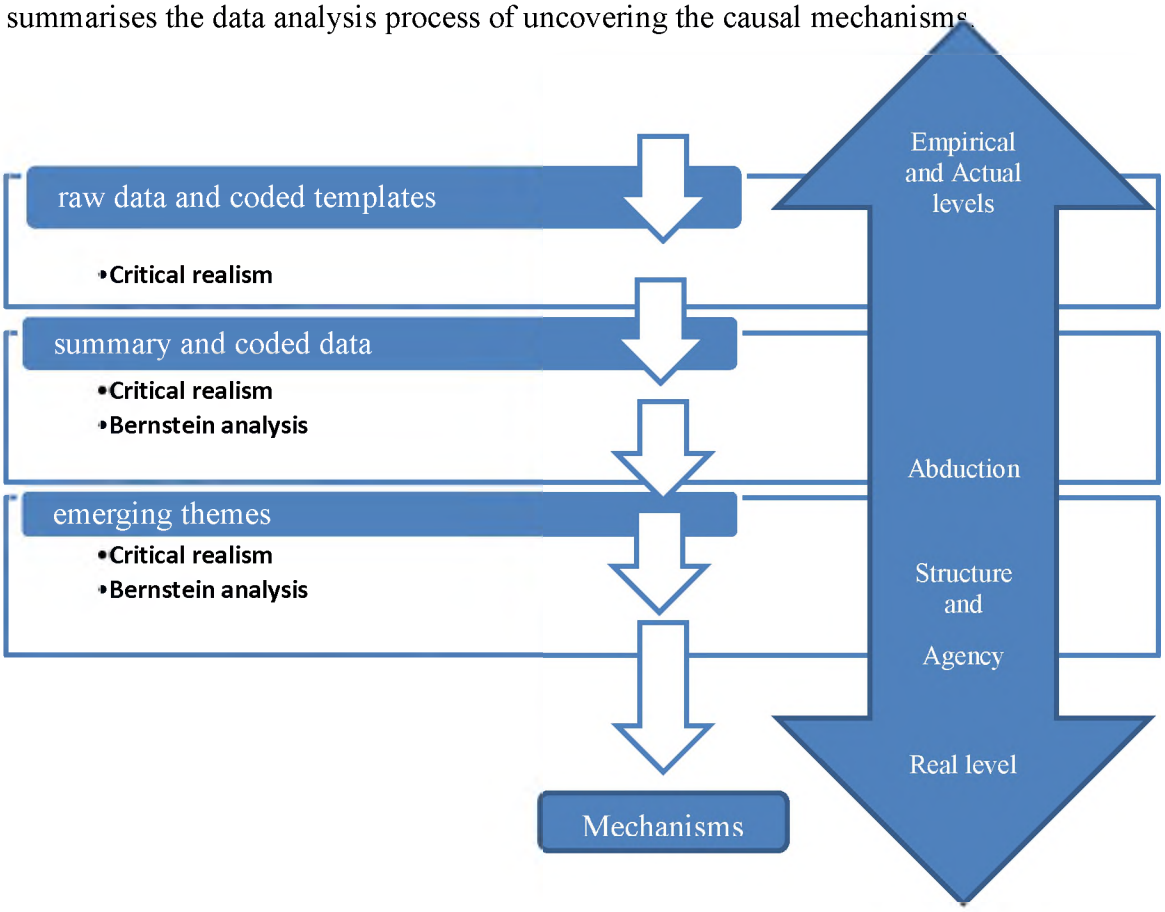

Figure 5.1 Data analysis process and causal mechanisms

5.10 Validity

Critical realist perspectives reject procedural criteria or methods for building research validity (Maxwell, 2012). The realist approach to validity sees an account as necessary in relation to the things that it intends to be an account of, and not in procedures used to produce and validate the

account (Maxwell, 2012). Thus, validity in critical realism research pertains to the accounts or conclusions reached by using a particular method in a particular context, not to the method itself. Accordingly, critical realism argues for researchers to be clear about the threats to validity that arose in the course of the study and how the researcher dealt with them (Maxwell, 2012; 2013). In this section, I delineate some of the threats to validity encountered in this study, and describe how I addressed them to increase the credibility of my research.

5.9.1 Researcher subjectivity

A critical realist perspective requires researchers to take account of the personal beliefs, values, and dispositions that they bring to the study, which on the one hand can serve as valuable resources and on the other can be possible sources of distortion or impediments to comprehension (Maxwell, 2012; 2013). My personal experiences and perceptions of these MEd programmes are already a portrayal of researcher subjectivity. Rather than treating this subjectivity as a variable to be controlled and ideally reduced to zero, critical realists see it as a component of the actual process of understanding (ibid.). I therefore gave a clear explanation in Chapter One of who I am in respect to where I work, the relation I have with the universities and these two MEd programmes, and my research motives. I also explained my assumptions, perceptions, beliefs and prior experience with such programmes, so that the reader could be aware of the bias I had regarding these programmes.

Secondly, during data collection, I assumed the role of a learner and reflexive facilitator. I learned from the research participants as well as from reflecting on situations that prevailed in the study area (Johnson, 1997; Creswell & Miller, 2000). I engaged myself in the process of listening to and learning from my own thoughts and feelings in response to what participants were saying. This gave me the opportunity to be clear on what my own perceptions, assumptions and experiences were, and of the extent to which they lined up with participants' words (Merriam, 2009). I also had a research journal or what Maxwell calls a "research identity memo," which helped me examine my biases as these related to my research, and discover what resources, potential concerns and experiences they might create (Maxwell, 2012, p. 99). Thirdly, to avoid arriving at pre-conceived or partial conclusions, I used my supervisors' comments, as well as critical friends' feedback (peer review), on my data generation and analysis in relation to how I engaged with the methodological and analytical theories (Yin, 2014, p. 150).

5.9.2 Reactivity

My occupation as a quality assurance officer in the Tanzania Commission for Universities (TCU) could be seen as a threat to validity in respect of how willing university administrators and programme designers would be to explain the establishment and design of the MEd programmes. The participants might have felt anxious about answering interview questions on how the programme components were conceptualised. To influence these participants' 'reactivity', and to encourage them to be open in their responses (Maxwell, 2013, p. 124), I was open about myself from the start of the research, insisting that my presence in the universities was for research purposes only. I made this clear on the first day of data collection in each university. My introduction included explaining the research plan and its objectives. I also sought to build a working rapport with the participants so that they became used to me as a researcher rather than as a TCU officer. To strengthen the researcher-participant relation I restrained myself from attending any university activity that might have been part of my role as a TCU officer but was not part of my research. Mine was essentially a "peripheral membership researcher role", as highlighted by Adler and Adler (1987, pp. 36-49), which allowed me to conduct the research as an outsider. Thus, while I was recognised as a quality assurance officer working in the TCU, other aspects of my identity, such as my religion, traditions and age, at different times, located me as a peripheral member in the research field.

Furthermore, I employed two types of triangulation technique – multiple methods of data collection and multiple sources of data (Denzin, as cited in Merriam, 2009, p. 215) – to increase the credibility of the findings. The use of both unstructured group and semi-structured individual face-to-face interviews, as well as e-mail interviews with university administrators and lecturers, helped in alleviating such threats to validity that arise from sole reliance on one data source. I explained in Section 5.6 that during the data collection process I started with document review and site visit observation. This was also used as a technique to deal with validity issues that could arise during the interviews. It included rephrasing and changing the interview questions and adding more participants to ensure that the research objectives were achieved. This use of multiple methods also served to check on the extent to which what the participants told me in the interviews aligned with what I read in the documents and observed at the sites. After transcribing the interviews, I sent them to the participants to check on their responses (member check). I also

collected their suggestions on how I safeguard their anonymity in the research. Finally, discussing interview responses with the participants provided me with a way of ensuring them that I was not misrepresenting them. Indeed, the aim was to allow the voices of participants rather than the voice of the researcher to be heard (Ezzy, 2002). This was not only a means of addressing validity threats but also a way to make participants feel that they owned the research results, deepening the researcher-participant relationship.

5.11 Ethical considerations

As a researcher, I requested permission from the identified universities to meet the proposed participants. I introduced myself to the Directors of postgraduate studies and the Deans of the School and Faculty of Education and provide detailed information regarding the research. I requested permission to conduct research in the universities using letters and data collection approval from the Rhodes University Ethics Committee. Research participants were asked to fill in the consent forms to signal their willingness to participate in the study.

As a quality assurance officer in the TCU, I made it clear to the participating universities and to individual participants at the beginning of the research that the research report was not be used for administrative purposes. My research was made somewhat easier by the fact that I was not evaluating the universities or their administrations, which could have raised complicated issues around balancing my career responsibilities and being a researcher. I also made it clear that the research aim to contribute to our understanding on the extent to which what is taught in the two MEd programmes enables or militates against the development of quality teacher educators, and that the insights provided by the research may assist the universities to improve their curricula design.

According to Maxwell (2012) the relationship that the researcher creates with the participants in critical realist research is a real phenomenon. It shapes the context within which the research is conducted, and has a profound influence on the research and its results (p. 100). In the first place, the goal in qualitative research is not to eliminate 'reactivity' but to understand it and use it productively (Maxwell, 2012, p. 125). As such, being a quality assurance officer in TCU is a benefit because it had given me an opportunity to work with these universities before, hence enabling prior experience of the research sites and the establishment of relationships between

some members of the universities' communities and myself. Detailed information pertaining to the research was given to research participants. Research activities were carried out in the agreed time, depending on the university calendar and the research plan. I acknowledge the contribution that participants made to the success of the research process in the research report, above, and I will make sure the report is available to the participating universities and individual participants.

5.12 Conclusion

Guided by critical realist philosophical perspectives, this chapter has described the methods that I used to collect and analyse data, and how I handled issues of validity and research ethics. The chapter also provides justification for the selected research approach, design and methods. The following two chapters, Chapters Six and Seven, discuss the findings of the study.

Chapter Six

Exploring the Underlying Contextual Power Structures and Causal Mechanisms Shaping the Establishment, Conceptualisation and Design of MEd Programmes

6.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses the data gathered and presents my analysis of it in order to answer the first research question: "What are the contextual power structures and the underlying causal mechanisms that generate and shape the establishment, conceptualisation and design of MEd programmes in Tanzania?" Chapter Seven focuses on the selection of curriculum components.

The chapter starts by analysing circumstances and events concurrent with the establishment and conceptualisation of the two MEd programmes. Bernstein's concepts and theory provide a language of description for analysis of the data gathered from interviews and documents. Using retroduction, it was possible to identify contextual power structures and mechanisms that shaped the MEd programmes. Critical realism enabled an examination of structural preconditions that affected the establishment, conceptualisation, design and implementation of the two MEd programmes.

The section below presents the data from policies and structures that granted the mandate to universities to establish, conceptualise and design, as well as implement and evaluate, their own programmes.

6.2 Universities as the fields of production, recontextualisation and reproduction

It is first necessary to explain how Tanzanian universities are positioned in all the fields of Bernstein's pedagogic device, namely those of production, recontextualisation and reproduction (refer to Chapter Four, Section 4.5.1).

The two national education policies described in Chapter Three, the Tanzania Education and Training Policy (TETP) and the National Higher Education Policy (NHEP), mandate the universities to design their own programmes. While the Tanzania Institute of Education (TIE) designs certificate and diploma teacher education programmes in Teacher Colleges under the

Ministry of Education, TETP gives the authority to Tanzanian universities to design teacher education degrees as well as certificate and teacher education diploma programmes (URT. MoEC, 1995). This was confirmed in the interview conducted with an administrator in the School of Education at UDSM:

> [1]Universities are charged with the obligation of preparing their curriculum. We do not employ people from outside to prepare curriculum for different courses [programmes], the professors and lecturers themselves are responsible for that (Interview: D4).

The Tanzania Commission for Universities (TCU) and TIE specify that a Master's degree is a qualification for tutors and Assistant Lecturers who teach diploma and Bachelor of Education programmes for school teachers. The universities' responsibility is to establish, conceptualise and design the Master's programmes in a way that suits the requirements of teaching school teachers.

The significance of these national education policies is that they mandate Tanzanian universities to be agents of production, recontextualisation and reproduction, and hence regulate all three fields. The issue here is, are the universities in Tanzania active agents in these fields?

Universities as the field of production are supposed to regulate the distributive rules. As agents in the field of production universities are meant to construct various forms of knowledge and provide direction for a range of curriculum specialisations. This situation is sustained in the universities by the gatekeeping of experts in the field, across universities and from other academic agencies and agents outside universities, through the use of various methods including the peer review of journal articles. Universities are thus expected to actively produce the knowledge and use the distributive rules to gate keep how such knowledge is made, what knowledge is acceptable and who can make that knowledge.

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[1]There are a number of grammatical errors in the statements quoted by the interviewees and in the two MEd curricula. In some cases I used [sic] to indicate this for example on page 152.

Universities as recontextualising agents in the field of recontextualisation are expected to regulate the formation of pedagogic discourse by choosing the knowledge base and overseeing the logical ordering of that knowledge and its sequencing. That is, they regulate the recontextualising rules. Universities are also responsible for implementation and evaluation of the knowledge. They regulate the evaluation rules of the field of reproduction by distributing measures to assess the transmission and acquisition of the knowledge.

In the following section, I present and discuss the findings of the data gathered on the establishment of the MEd programmes, to ascertain whether TUMA and UDSM are active agents in the fields of production, recontextualisation and reproduction.

6.3 Establishment of the MEd programmes

As the fields of production for the MEd programmes, TUMA and UDSM are responsible for the establishment of MEd programmes, which includes deciding who initiates the establishment, how and when to establish such programmes. According to the TCU regulations, universities are required to justify the need to establish the programme, i.e. to substantiate why the programme is important (TCU, 2007). TCU urged universities to establish programmes that are "relevant to the full development of the holders' [students'] potentials, national socio-economic development and facilitate the profession in education, training and career paths of the holders" (p. 9).

Data on how the MEd programmes were established i.e. what led to their establishment was gathered through document analysis and interviews with programme administrators and lecturers (see Chapter Five, Section 5.6). The interview questions aimed to understand when, how and why the two programmes were established, and gain awareness of any associated activities and events that took place during the establishment.

Data obtained from the interviews conducted about the MA(Ed) programme at the University of Dar es Salaam (UDSM) revealed that the programme was established in 1974 "when the [existing] School of Education was a Department of Education in the Faculty of Arts and Social Science" (Interview: D4). The idea to establish this programme came about because:

> At that time the then Department of Education, which was in the then Faculty of Arts and Social Sciences had a number of staff with a variety of postgraduate degree accomplishments and academic ranks, overseas masters, PhDs, a professor and three

> senior lectures, who had a proven capability and experiences of mounting and managing the programme (Interview: D6).

As UDSM had been the only university in the country for more than 20 years since independence in 1961 (refer to Chapter Two, Section 2.4.3.2), another interviewee noted that "at that time [in 1974] there was no master of education in Tanzania, the MA(Ed) programme was the first master of education programme in Tanzania" (Interview: D1). The establishment was also influenced by the fact that "people in Tanzania had to travel outside Tanzania for a Master degree in education" (ibid.). With such circumstance "academic staff who were here [at UDSM] on those years met and discuss the issue of the country having only undergraduate education programmes but no master programme, they decided to establish this MA(Ed)" (ibid.). The administrator of the School of Education noted that "in the beginning, of course, right after independence people went abroad for their Masters', now establishing the programme meant to address this shortage" (Interview: D4). As the MA(Ed) curriculum document does not contain a programme rationale, reasons for the establishment of this programme had to be elicited in the interviews (see detailed analysis in Section 6.3.1, below).

In the case of the MEd programme at Tumaini University Makumira (TUMA), the responses of the interviewees and the curriculum document show that the programme was established in 2009. As can be recalled from Chapter Two, Section 2.5.2.1, private universities in Tanzania were legalised in 1996, but it was not until 2009 that this, the first Master of Education programme, was established in these institutions.

The MEd curriculum document shows that this programme was established to train educationalists, including lecturers and administrators needed to cater for the expansion of the schools and other education institutions. As the MA(Ed) at UDSM was the only MEd programme in Tanzania, the other reason for the establishment of this MEd programme in TUMA was to absorb the numbers of qualified bachelor students who were not able to join the MA(Ed) programme in the UDSM due to the limited places available (TUMA. MEd curriculum document, 2009, p. 2). While the MA(Ed) programme was established in the Faculty of Arts and Social Science, this MEd programme was, according to the TUMA administrator, established in the Faculty of Humanities:

> At the time when the MEd was established there was no Faculty of Education. So the programme together with other education programmes was under the Faculty of Humanities (Interview: U1).

How the idea of establishing the MEd programme at TUMA came about and what activities took place to establish it revealed a different scenario from that of the MA(Ed) programme at UDSM. This is discussed in the following sections.

6.3.1 Rationale for the establishment of the MEd programmes

As noted above, the curriculum document for the MA(Ed) programme that I received from the School of Education at UDSM does not contain the rationale for its establishment. However, both former and current administrators at the School of Education pointed out that the programme was established because there were no master of education programmes in the country at the time, obliging people to go abroad to study for this qualification (refer to Section 6.3). Another participant at UDSM also indicated that there was considerable demand for the programme from graduates in education at bachelor and diploma level (Interview: D6).

Two reasons are given for the establishment of TUMA's MEd in the programme's curriculum document. The first was that the qualification would respond to the urgent need for education professionals to work as managers and administrators in primary, secondary and higher education institutions. However, there was no situational analysis or needs assessment report indicating a shortage of education professionals such as school heads, teacher training college principals, ministry directors, regional and district education officers, school inspectors, examination officers or curriculum developers (as identified in the document). An administrator confirmed that there was no such report commissioned to justify the programme's establishment (Interview: U3).

A current UNESCO report on university academic staff reveals that:

> The expansion of access to higher education has produced a tremendous need for university teachers, but qualified academics are not being produced fast enough to meet the demand. It is possible that up to half of the world's university teachers have only earned a bachelor's degree (UNESCO, 2015, p. 56).

This is indeed the situation in Tanzanian universities. While there was no report demonstrating the scarcity or urgent need for education professionals such as education administrators, school heads and teacher training principals as mentioned in the MEd curriculum document (TUMA. MEd curriculum document, 2009, pp. 1-2), the academic staff database in the TCU does indicate an acute need for (assistant) lecturers in universities and university colleges (TCU, 2016). The recent increase in education colleges, faculties and departments has led to a commensurate increase in the number of undergraduate education programmes, resulting in the need for more teacher educators for these bachelor of education programmes. The shortage of qualified education lecturers is more critical in private institutions, and this contributes to two situations: an increase in the employment of under-qualified academic (and administrative) staff, and increase in part-time lecturers. This is discussed in detail in Section 6.5.2.2.5.

Furthermore, for both MA(Ed) and MEd programmes, the responses from the interviewees show that there is a need to make these programmes specific to a particular specialisation rather than a general qualification for a number of educational professions. In case of the MA(Ed) programme, an administrator in the School of Education indicated that:

> World Bank hired consultants to review our entire postgraduate programmes. …Actually, first of all they [reviewers] recommended that we should completely terminate the MA(Ed) programme because it does not lead to any speciality because Masters means specialisation, they [reviewers] recommended that (Interview: D1).

Responses from the interviewee at TUMA portray a similar situation. The faculty administrators recommended that the MEd should be a programme with a specific specialisation for *a specific education profession* that the nation really needs (Interview: U1 & U2). In neither programme was the issue of specialisation taken on board. Sections 6.3.3.2 and 6.3.3.3 discuss what prevented this in the case of the MA(Ed) and MEd programmes, respectively.

The second reason for the establishment of the MEd programme at TUMA was to admit qualified applicants who could not enrol in the MA(Ed) programme at UDSM due to the limited space. There are two issues concerning this reason. The first is that, according to the literature, the rationale for the establishment of the programme needs to relate to the goal of the curriculum (Pratt, 1980). The rationale is the argument that seeks to justify pursuit of the goal of the programme (ibid.). According to the curriculum document of the MEd, the programme's main

goal is to develop education professionals, whereas in reality, absorption of a number of applicants unable to be admitted to the MA(Ed) programme at UDSM appears as a prominent rationale. This might have overshadowed the attention given to programme quality.

The second issue is that the university assumed that an increasing number of applicants for the MA(Ed) programme at UDSM would guarantee a sufficient number of enrolments for the MEd programme, rather than the quality of the programme. However, the literature argues that a quality curriculum is the main point of attraction for applicants (see, for example, Schiro, 2008; Evetts, 2011; Hordern, 2016). There is evidence to suggest that establishing the MEd at TUMA in order to meet the needs of an increasing number of applicants for the MA(Ed) programme at UDSM was not reason enough to sustain the programme. This was borne out by a downward trend rather than the upward trend in enrolment numbers that the university had expected. The MEd curriculum document indicated that fourteen students in the academic year 2007/2008 did not gain admission for the MA(Ed) programme at UDSM (TUMA. MEd curriculum document, 2009, p. 2). (The administrator in the School of Education at UDSM confirmed this that they get more applicants for the MA(Ed) programme than the number they can take.) Despite this, the MEd programme at TUMA was closed after only four academic years, with enrolment down to zero. Meeting the needs of an expanding system appears to be an insufficient basis on which to establish a sustainable programme. Possible causes for these dwindling numbers will be discussed in different sections in this chapter and in Chapter Seven.

6.3.2 Structural mechanisms shaping the establishment of MEd programmes

Chapter Two contains a history of education and training and the development of higher education in Tanzania. The establishment of the University of Dar es Salaam (UDSM) marked the start of higher education in the country. Being the only university in the country for more than 20 years, with associated political influence and governmental funding, the UDSM enjoys a high status in the country. This includes being a model for all other universities in terms of developing university programmes, staff consultancies, qualifications, recruiting staff, research and other academic matters.

The socio-political changes that took place in the country resulted in the establishment of private universities, which necessitated a regulatory body for these institutions. Increasing numbers of

public universities prompted the establishment of a regulatory body to oversee all universities. These events created three structural mechanisms that might have influenced and shaped the establishment of the MEd programmes. I discuss each of the mechanisms in the three sections that follow.

6.3.2.1 University regulations and public universities

The appearance of private universities as described in Chapter Two necessitated the establishment of the Higher Education Accreditation Council (HEAC). This represented the government's attempt to manage the quality of higher education in the country. However, while the HEAC was busy regulating private university institutions, their work had nothing to do with what was going on in the public universities. These institutions continued to enjoy full control over designing and approving their own programmes. This was the case for the MA(Ed) programme at UDSM:

> A proposal [to establish the MA(Ed) programme] was formulated, submitted to and debated at a Departmental meeting. With feedback and inputs from members, a revised version of the proposal was forwarded to the Faculty Board, where it was further debated and enriched and from which it was finally submitted to and approved by the University Senate (Interview: D6).

The concern here is not only that the public universities programmes were self-approved, but also that, as discussed in Chapter Two, these programmes were hardly reviewed (Mkude et al., 2003). This was the case for the MA(Ed) programme at UDSM, as one of the lecturers said: "this particular programme has not been reviewed for a *loooong* time. I don't know how long, I think since when it was started [1974]… it has been there for a *long* time" (Interview: D2). On the other hand, private universities (as well as new public universities), taking advantage of the programme self-approval authority that public universities had, used public university programmes, especially UDSM programmes, as templates to design their own programmes. This was the case with the MEd and other postgraduate education programmes at TUMA:

> We have PhD in Education, we have this Master of Education and we have Postgraduate Diploma in Education they have the same structure as you see in here (*pointing to the MEd curriculum document*), and they are all from UDSM (Interview: U1).

As was pointed out in Section 6.2, Tanzanian higher education policies give universities the freedom to be active in the three fields of production, recontextualisation and reproduction. However the circumstances here may suggest weakness or lack of capacity in the field of production as well as in the field of recontextualisation; that is, the university's staff are active neither in producing knowledge nor as curriculum developers, but only engage in the field of reproduction as lecturers. This acts as a possible structural mechanism constraining two conditions. The first is power and autonomy of university as agents in these fields. That is, while university dominate the fields, production and the recontextualisation process occur in such a way that the power of decision making on creation, appropriate selection and relocation of knowledge for the intended pedagogic identity lies with external agencies and agents. A second constraining condition which is triggered by the weakness or lack of capacity in these two fields is to depend on a programme that has not been reviewed for over forty years to mirror the establishment of new programmes. This might give rise to questions about the quality of the programmes and their graduates. The lack of programme review and the impact of this on the quality of the MEd programmes is further discussed in this chapter, in Section 6.5.2.1.1.

6.3.2.2 UDSM historical influence

In addition to the self-regulatory authority of public universities to establish and determine their own programmes, a second mechanism identified is *historical influence*. This influence is intense in the case of the UDSM as it is the oldest public university that was also the only university in the country for more than twenty years. It strongly influenced the establishment of university education programmes in private as well as new public universities. As one of the professors in UDSM said:

> Basically the educational programmes for private universities are not a new creation. They have learned from the existing universities, and very much so from the University of Dar es Salaam, then definitely from University of Dodoma… those [lecturers] who move from UDSM to University of Dodoma took the programmes from UDSM and modified them (Interview: U4).

The National Higher Education Policy (NHEP) observes that "many of these [institutions] have been duplicating one another's course programmes and awards, seeking to assume a status above what they really are or else awarding qualifications and titles above their capacity and outside statutory limits" (URT. MoSTHE, 1999, p. 1). The policy here pin-points two more issues. The

first is the issue of the *duplication of programmes*, which affects quality due to the lack of review of programme templates. The policy further notes that these institutions "distort the levels and real worth of academic programmes and awards" (p. 3). The second issue is the tendency of these universities to copy programmes without having the capacity to actually offer them. Simply importing a programme from elsewhere, in addition to the weakness or lack of capacity this reveals in the fields of production and recontextualization, as indicated above, also implies weakness in the field of reproduction. Weakness in the field of reproduction affects programme implementation due to shortfalls that include a lack of academic staff (discussed in detail in this chapter in Section 6.5.2.2.5) to transform the knowledge through pedagogical process, which in turn affects the quality of both the programme and the graduates.

6.3.2.3 TCU process of programme approval

While universities establish, design and implement their programmes, a key responsibility of the TCU is to ensure that "universities produce competent, adaptable and responsible citizens who can contribute to the development of the country and to transforming the livelihood of the population" (TCU, 2009, p. 8). Its mandate is to review, approve and accredit programmes to be offered by universities throughout the country. Two mechanisms affect the quality of the process of review and programme approval. The first is that, the *review and approval process only applies to new programmes*. The consequence of not reviewing existing programmes is that the new programmes all too often replicate the existing ones. Most of these existing programmes, as noted above, have not been reviewed since they were first introduced (1974, in case of the MA(Ed) programme), which must raise some concern regarding the quality and relevance of the knowledge they contain. This is discussed in detail in Chapter Seven.

The second mechanism concerns the *peer review experts that TCU selects and uses in the programme approval process*. As discussed in Chapter One, there are many academic staff with PhDs in the universities, particularly private universities. As a result, the TCU selects peer reviewers from selected public universities, and mainly from UDSM, which has more professors and PhD staff than other universities. This is a concern because it means that it may be easier for programmes to be approved by experts who, in one way or another, have been involved in establishing the programme. This issue was raised by members of TUMA staff who questioned how it was possible for the MEd programme at TUMA to be approved by the TCU:

> …programme like this (*holding the MEd curriculum document*) if it is taken to the curricularist [*sic*] who knows well all about designing he or she could go through it and give advice. Did we [in TUMA] go through that stage? That is the question. We know the [MEd] programme was approved by TCU, but with this condition! How? (Interview: U2).

According to this TUMA staff member, the way the MEd programme was easily approved raises questions about those who approved it. The participant's concern is also about the quality or relevance of the programme. In Section 6.3.3.1, below, I discuss how expert peer reviewers are involved in establishing a programme.

6.3.3 Agential mechanisms shaping the establishment of MEd programmes

University staff, including administrators and lecturers, are agents in the field of production involved, in one way or the other, in the process of establishing academic programmes. They are involved as programme designers or agents for the university bodies that are responsible for authorising programmes. This section discusses agential mechanisms that influenced the establishment of the MEd programmes.

6.3.3.1 Influence by part-time and retired academic staff from UDSM

The historical influence of the UDSM came not only from the institution but also from individual members of its academic staff. It is the only university in the country with numbers of professors and PhDs, who are employed by private and new public universities as part-time lecturers. They are also employed under contract after they retire from UDSM. These part-time and retired academics have considerable influence in the private and new public universities. This, again, extends to the establishment of programmes in those institutions, including the MEd programme at TUMA, as indicated by a senior administrator:

> Mainly three people involved in establishing the programme, Dr B who passed away in 2013, Dr C [U5] the former Director, and Mr Y the former Dean. Dr B was a retired lecturer from UDSM. He was the one who initiated the process of getting the programme from UDSM or I can say it was easier to get the programme from UDSM because of him. He was the one who communicated with professor C [U4] from UDSM (Interview: U1).

It was when I was gathering data that I discovered that Dr B was deceased. I thus interviewed Professor C [U4], a part-time lecturer of three MEd courses. At the beginning of the interview, he denied that he was involved in designing the programme. However, at the end of the interview he confided that:

> When I say that many private universities programmes resemble that of UDSM is because we, professionals of the UDSM, were hired as consultancies or evaluators or developers of those private universities programmes (Interview: U4).

From this, one may infer that UDSM academic staff have at least some influence on the nature and the quality of the MEd programme curriculum. It may also imply, as revealed in Section 6.3.2.1, that there is limited capacity in the fields of production and recontextualisation in private universities like TUMA. This in turn has implications for the approval process of the programmes, as TCU use UDSM experts to review programmes in whose establishment they have been involved (Section 6.3.2.3). It also has implications for the actual offering of the programme, because the field of reproduction is closely tied to the field of recontextualisation, and as noted in Section 6.3.2.2, many private universities are offering programmes without really having the capacity to offer them.

6.3.3.2 Framing of regulative discourse in the establishment of MEd programmes

As discussed in Chapter Four, regulative discourse, according to Bernstein, controls the social norms that underpin the curriculum and who has control over it (Bernstein, 2000). In the case of the MEd programmes the regulative discourse determines who has control over the knowledge to be included in the curriculum, and how it is organised.

It was noted in Chapter Four, Section 4.5.1.1, that decision making is supposed to occur in a way in which power is equally shared between university agents and other agencies and agents outside the universities in the field of production. Similarly, in the field of recontextualisation decision making is supposed to occur in a way in which power is shared between university administrators and curriculum designers, and lecturers and administrators in the teacher education department/school/college/faculty. In the year 2012, UDSM out-sourced programme reviewers to review, among others, the MA(Ed) programme. The out-sourced reviewers recommended that the MA(Ed) programme be changed to a more specialised master's programme. Administrators in the School of Education at UDSM, however, decided to the contrary:

> We, in the School of Education, discussed and agree that we cannot stop offer the programme because there are many people who do not want to specialise. That they want to have a master but they do not want to specialise in anything. They do not

> want to specialise not in let's say Master of Educational Management and Administration (MEMA) or Psychology, they just want to have a master degree and it really attract a lot of scholars. And so, we [School of Education] said despite the fact that [MA(Ed)] programme has no speciality but still it attracts a lot of students, students are interested. So if the customers are interested why we should terminate it, so we agreed not to terminate the programme and so we continue offering it (Interview: D1).

There is evidence that suggests *strong framing* (F+) of regulative discourse among administrators in the School of Education at UDSM over the knowledge that is included in the curriculum of the MA(Ed) programme. This situation is similar to that of the MEd programme at TUMA. After the establishment of the programme, the curriculum document was distributed to the academic staff for their comments. According to the staff, their comments were ignored and the programme was introduced in its original form:

> The programme [the MEd] was given to us to put our comments. We put our comments but none of them were taken. The programmes started to be offered as it was given to us with no changes. And who do you think gave a go ahead for the programme to start? Top administrator, that's why I'm saying the administrator also involved in this (Interview: U1).

The excerpt suggests *strong framing* (F+) of regulative discourse by the top university administrators on how the knowledge content of the MEd is to be determined and organised. However, it was revealed that the absence of consistent rules governing the curriculum content of the programme raises concern about the quality of its graduates (discussed in more detail in Section 6.5.1.1).

6.3.3.3 Framing of instructional discourse in the establishment of MEd programme

Instructional discourse in the establishment of MEd programmes refers to how much control top university administrators have over lecturers, faculty administrators and other academic and administrative staff with regard to the MEd programmes. During analysis of the data, it became apparent that the establishment of the MEd programme at TUMA involved *strong framing* (F+) of instructional discourse by top university administrators. Lecturers and other academic administrators had a limited degree of control over the establishment of this programme. As the faculty administrator insisted, "in fact, the university administrator, the top administrator was

also involved in this [establishment of the MEd programme]. The top administrator chosen Dr B purposely" (Interview: U1).

Top TUMA administrators also have control over the selection of the content of the MEd curriculum. In other words, as the interview extract above suggests, lecturers, faculty Deans and other academic and administrative staff had no control over the rules of discursive order. Another participant confirmed this:

> The former acting Dean, Faculty of Humanities Mr Y supplied the draft to the Faculty of Humanities academic staff to collect opinions on the programme. We gave our opinions but I am telling you they did not consider our opinions. Management allow the programme to start as it was (Interview: U2).

The extract above also suggests that the establishment of the MEd programmes was underpinned by *strong framing* (F+) of instructional discourse by the top administrators. From this, one may infer that lecturers, other administrators and academic staff had little, if any, input or influence over how the MEd programme was constructed. This shows the overwhelming influence that top university administrators have in shaping programmes and making decisions on curriculum knowledge. The literature argues that when the knowledge base of a programme is controlled by top university administrators, the field of recontextualisation (as well as the field of production) may suffer. This seems to mean that the appropriation selection and relocation of the knowledge, in response to professional practice needs and the quality development of graduates, is limited. It is however essential for university administrators, as agents in the production and recontextualisation fields, to take cognisance of factors and perspectives that determine what counts as valid knowledge for acquisition and transmission to future professionals (see Beck & Young, 2005; Young & Muller, 2014; Hordern, 2016).

6.3.4 Power structures and quality of MEd programmes

People as agents and actors create structures. But structures, as discussed in Chapter Four, Section 4.3.4, have the power, through agents, to make events take place in the real world, that is, to enable or constrain human activities. In the sections that follow, I discuss how structural situations mould the actions of university agents in the establishment of MEd programmes.

6.3.4.1 Universities Act and university administration

The Tanzanian Universities Act of 2005 mandates universities to operate with their own charters under the TCU regulations. This includes approval of academic programmes by their senate or designated academic committee before the programmes are submitted to the TCU for review and accreditation. The Universities Act also specifies the number and the nature of members that the senate or committee needs to have, as follows:

- The chief executive officer of the institution shall be the Chairman of the Senate or, as the case may be, an Academic Committee (URT, 2005b, p. 39);
- the membership shall be not less than seventy-five percent and not more than eighty-five percent drawn from among the senior academic and administrative staff of the institution concerned and a few from other corresponding institutions in the country (p. 40).

The Universities Act also specifies the functions of the senate or the academic committee, which include:

- to satisfy itself regarding the content and academic standard of any course of study offered by a school, faculty, or department under its control and general regulation in respect of a degree, diploma, certificate or any other award of the institution and to report its findings thereon to the Council or Governing Board respectively;
- to consider recommendations made to it by boards of institutes, schools and faculties and take appropriate action (p. 41).

Analysis of the data, as reported in section 6.3.3.3, indicates that the design of the MEd programme at TUMA was determined by the university top administrator. This extended to the whole process of establishing the MEd programme, as revealed in the excerpt below:

> I can say that the establishment process involved designers and university manager, and this is a big problem in academic situation that a [top administrator] is involved in designing the programme (Interview: U2).

According to the response of the interviewee (who is an administrator as well as an academic staff member), the recommendations made regarding the MEd programme by faculty administrators and members of academic staff were not taken into account, and the programme was introduced in its original form (refer to the excerpt in Section 6.3.3.3).

Research shows that the university has a senate, but whether its composition meets the requirements of the Universities Act was not apparent. What was evident is that *academic and administrative staff* were only superficially involved in the establishment of the MEd

programme, which took place in 2009 when the Universities Act was already in existence. In addition, one of the functions of the senate, according to the Universities Act, is to ensure the academic standard of the programme, by taking into consideration the recommendations of faculty members. In case of the MEd at TUMA, this requirement was apparently not met.

In case of the MA(Ed) at UDSM, the programme was established before the existence of university regulatory body, when the University of Dar es Salaam was the only university in the country, operating under its own Act. "The University of Dar es Salaam Act provided for the establishment and objectives of the University; conferment of degrees, diplomas and other academic qualifications; administration; finances of the University, and establishment of constituent colleges" (TCU, 2017, p. 8). According to the Act, the senate had

> to satisfy itself regarding the content and academic standard of any course of study offered by any Faculty, institute or Constituent college of the University in respect of a degree, diploma, certificate or other award of the University and to report its findings thereon to the university Council (University of Dar es Salaam Act, 1970, subsection (1) (a), p. 11).

The Act also specifies that:

> In respect of any matter in relation to which the Senate is required to report to the Council or to make by-laws in accordance with the provisions of paragraphs (a) and (b) of subsection (1), the Council shall not initiate any action in respect thereto until such report has been received from the Senate or, as the case may be, such by-laws have been made by the Senate, and shall not reject any such report or by-laws without further reference to the Senate (University of Dar es Salaam Act, 1970, subsection (2), p. 11).

This means that the senate has the final say in the approval of all the university's academic programmes.

As discussed in Chapter Two, Section 2.5.2.2, the self-approval of programmes automatically puts the quality of those programmes in question. Programmes at UDSM that were designed and self-approved by the university, including the MA(Ed) programme, were meant to be reviewed by external consultants, following TCU directives (applying to all programmes in all universities), as a way to tackle the issue of the quality of those programmes (TCU, 2012b). This, however, was not the case, as was revealed Section 6.3.3.2, above.

6.3.4.2 University teacher educator professional board

It was revealed in Sections 6.3.3.2 and 6.3.3.3 that the establishment of both MEd programmes involved *strong framing* (F+) of regulative and instructional discourse, as top university administrators had control over who was to be involved in the establishment of the programme, who was to select the knowledge, and how it was to be organised and transmitted. In the Chapter Three, Section 3.2.2.1, I pointed out the fact that Tanzania has professional boards for several professions such as engineering, medicine, law, pharmacy, procurement and supply, nursing and accountancy, but there is no professional board or quality committee for university teacher educator professionals. This structure yields power to university agents to act as the regulators of their own teacher educator preparation programmes, as revealed in the above sections. Since the regulations in the Tanzania Commission for Universities serve the general purpose of all university disciplines, the lack of a legal instrument to act as an external monitor for the regulation of the teacher educator profession has consequences for the professional quality of their preparation programmes. This is discussed further in Section 6.4, below.

6.3.5 Synthesis of the argument

The analysis and discussion in Section 6.3 explored the underlying structural and agential mechanisms as well as contextual power structures that generated and shaped the establishment of the two MEd programmes. The focus was on who was involved, how and why they were involved, what the rationale was for establishing the programmes, and what happened during the process.

The history of higher education was examined to understand its structural effects on the establishment of the MEd programmes. Review of policy documents and regulations provided a means to explore the agential mechanisms and power structures in the establishment process. In the last section, I raised the matter of the consequences of the lack a quality committee or professional board to regulate the education of teacher educators in Tanzania. In the following sections, I explore what else may lacking owing to the absence of such a professional board, and investigate in detail the effect of this absence on the quality of the education of teacher educators.

6.4 Conceptualisation of the MEd programmes

While teacher education systems in universities in some countries are influenced by government regulations, teacher education systems in Tanzanian universities operate independently. This includes how the curricula of these education programmes are conceptualised. As discussed in Chapter Three, the conceptualisation phase of a curriculum occurs in the initial curriculum design stage when the curriculum is drafted, under the guidance of a list of quality requirements that the profession believes the curriculum should aim to meet. Quality requirements for teacher educators include the standards and competences that guide the curriculum objectives, design features and content choice of the programmes. In the sections that follow, I discuss the availability of teacher educators' standards and competences in the universities, and the way they were engaged in the conceptualisation of these programmes.

6.4.1 TCU regulations: Regulatory Framework

The Tanzanian University Qualifications Framework (UQF) is a framework for recognising learning achievements in higher education institutions, at different levels, acquired through different learning modes. One of the main functions of UQF is to "define national standards for university level qualifications" (TCU, 2012b, p. 2). UQF has positioned all Master's degree qualifications (academic, technical or professional) at Postgraduate level 9. UQF standards prescribe the purpose of the qualification, minimum requirements for admission, knowledge, skills and competences, volume of credits and duration required for the award of the Master's degree qualification (pp. 22-28). These standards are set reference points for all higher education institutions and stakeholders.

In designing Master's degree programmes (and all other programmes) or parts of programmes, higher education institutions, are urged by TCU to use these standards as a general framework in line with the particular focus of their provision (p. 3). TCU stresses that "a qualification framework is most successful when it is supported with a well-accepted standard at programme level" (p. 48).

According to Tanzanian UQF, competences are the proven ability to use knowledge, skills and personal, social abilities in work or study situations and in professional and personal development

(TCU, 2012b, p. 50). According to UQF, Master's degree graduates are expected to demonstrate competency to perform the following:

- reflect critically and creatively on theory and application;
- systematically and creatively deal with complex issues;
- design, appraise and make sound judgements using research data and information;
- clearly communicate research findings to specialist and non-specialist audiences,
- learn and work independently with minimum supervision (pp. 26-27).

Standards or 'qualification standards' as named by TCU are specific standards for a particular professional programme, uniformly addressed to all students taking that programme (TCU, 2012b, p. 53; see also Posner, 2004). These standards guide the design of the programme curriculum and determine the competences of the students (ibid.). Master's degree standards and competences in the UQF are generally stated for all Master's degree qualifications in Tanzania.

6.4.2 Structural mechanisms in the MEd conceptualisation

As revealed in Section 6.3.4.2, above, there is no teacher educators' professional board in Tanzania. This creates several structural mechanisms that could have affected MEd conceptualisation and in turn, affected the ability of the MEd curricula to develop quality teacher educators, as revealed in the three sections below.

6.4.2.1 Absence of a standards framework for teacher educators

Among the functions of professional boards, according to UQF, is to set specific "qualification standards" for the profession (TCU, 2012b, p. 53; see also MoEVT, 2013). Thus the absence of a professional board for teacher educators effectively means a lack of agreed standards for this profession. Standards are descriptions of what students need to know and be able to do (Posner, 2004). Therefore, *absence of a standards framework for teacher educators in Tanzania* was identified as a structural mechanism that might have hindered the quality development of these professionals.

MEd curricula were supposed to facilitate teacher educators' understanding of the content and processes supported by the standards; that is, "the objectives and the content of the curriculum need to be derived from the standards" (p. 93). There should be alignment between the objectives and structure of the disciplinary knowledge of the curriculum and the standards (p. 20). TCU

actually defines a qualification as a formal outcome of an assessment and validation process that is obtained when an institution determines that an individual has achieved learning outcomes based on given standards (TCU, 2012b, p. 53). Graduates of these two MEd programmes receive Master's degree qualification, but there is no way to determine if the MEd curriculum is aligned with putative standards for teacher educators or whether students have met these standards, because no such standards exist.

The UQF, as noted earlier, only specifies the general standards for Master's degree qualifications. It does not specify the standards specific to any particular Master's qualification, including the qualification for teacher educators. The framework does not describe the discipline knowledge, pedagogical content knowledge and skills that need to be included in the curriculum for teacher educators. The threat to quality of not having a professional board that generates standards for teacher educators stems from the fact that agents operating in the recontextualising field (university curriculum developers, lecturers and other academics and administrators) do so without any standardised guidance in creating teacher educators' curricula. The absence of teacher educators' standards is also a concern in respect of the availability of competences

6.4.2.2 Absence of competences for teacher educators

The literature reviewed in Chapter Three stresses the importance of professional standards for teacher educators as a point of reference for formulating the competences that teacher educators should develop during their preparation. The absence of professional standards for teacher educators may result in a lack of clearly defined competences for these professionals. Analysis of the MEd and MA(Ed) curriculum documents revealed that neither contains explicit curriculum competences. Such competences would include the knowledge, skills and values, and the personal and social characteristics necessary for teacher educators to perform effectively. I contend that the *absence of competences for teacher educators* in the two MEd programmes is a structural mechanism that militates against quality education for teacher educators.

In the case of the MEd programme at TUMA, neither the curriculum document nor course outlines reference any competences for teacher educators. However, analysis of the courses described in the MA(Ed) curriculum document revealed a number of learning outcomes. These were referred to as "competencies":

Learning outcomes

Upon completion of this course, a student must have developed competencies in:

a. Demonstrating understanding of curriculum conceptions, models and theories
b. Analyzing social forces that influence curriculum decisions
c. Describing the role of the teacher in curriculum development
d. Conceptualizing curriculum research and evaluation
e. Analyzing issues in curriculum development and implementation

(Curriculum and Teaching course in the UDSM. MA(Ed) curriculum document, n.d., p. 58)

The MA(Ed)'s Advanced Curriculum Development course outline and the outlines of other courses also contained learning outcomes that were referred to as competencies:

Learning outcomes

Upon completion of this course, a student must have developed competencies in:

a. Analysing curriculum instructional approaches and how they can be implemented in the classroom situation
b. Designing and developing curriculum materials based on the subject of specialization
c. Developing evaluation plan for each of the developed materials
d. Conducting a try-out of the developed materials
e. Designing and implementing evaluation instruments for specified curriculum materials

(2014/2015 Advanced Curriculum Development course outline)

The literature defines a learning outcome as "a statement of an intention that someone learns something" (Posner, 2004, p. 77). While lecturers acknowledge and the course outlines show that certain of the MA(Ed) courses have learning outcomes, these are expressed as competencies, although this is not the case for all the MA(Ed) courses. Some courses described in the MA(Ed) curriculum document have learning outcomes but are not referred to as competences, and most courses do not have any learning outcomes. Most of the learning outcomes, as evident in the extract below, are not linked to the roles and functions that teacher educators are expected to perform:

Learning Outcomes

1. Apply theories, models and frameworks in formulating policy and analyzing educational policies
2. Apply theories and models of educational planning to plan education at different levels of education
3. Apply various theories and models of administration in the day-to-day administration of a relevant educational institution.

(Policy, Planning and Administration course in the UDSM. MA(Ed) curriculum document, n.d., p. 54)

There may be mutual influences between the lack of formalised outcomes and disciplinary knowledge of the curriculum. Chapter Seven, Section 7.5, discusses the components that constitute the curricula of MA(Ed) and MEd programmes, in order to shed light on the nature of the knowledge they intend to teach.

6.4.2.3 Lack of teacher educators' professional board and TCU programme approval

One of the responsibilities of professional boards in Tanzania is to collaborate with accreditation bodies (nationally and internationally) with respect to the appropriateness of their professional programmes (MoEVT, 2013). While TCU responsibilities include defining general standards for university level qualifications (TCU, 2012b, p. 2), it also works closely with professional boards to ensure the academic quality and professional standards of university programmes. TCU uses personnel from these boards to review programmes and to conduct site visits to universities to monitor the teaching, resources and facilities supporting these programmes. This is not the case for the Master's degree qualification for teacher educators. The review and approval of the MEd programmes, as discussed in Sections 6.3.3.1, 6.3.2.2 and 6.3.2.3, is conducted by academic staff who were involved either in designing or as consultants in the process of designing the programmes. This circular structure is a mechanism that creates a possible source of concern about the quality of MEd programmes, compared to ones that are designed under specific professional standards, and peer reviewed by professional board personnel.

6.4.3 Synthesis of the argument

Teacher educators are trainers, evaluators, models as well as supervisors and mentors of school teachers, and hence their preparation programmes need to focus on building and refining their knowledge and competences in these practices. The argument made in this section is that, in the absence of a teacher educator professional board, the standards and competences for Master's degree qualifications as defined in the University Qualification Framework are not precise enough to serve the purpose of benchmarking quality teacher educators. Having discussed the conceptualisation of MEd curricula, I now turn to a discussion of the MEd curriculum design.

6.5 MEd curriculum design principles/rules and parameters

This section investigates the power structures and mechanisms underlying preparation for the MEd curriculum design process. The section discusses the availability of the recontextualising

rules or principles that guide the process of curriculum design. It also discusses the organising features of curriculum design in order to understand what was considered, what was needed and what events took place before the commencement of the MEd design process. The section starts by identifying structural mechanisms that might have constrained quality in the groundwork for the MEd curriculum design.

6.5.1 Structural mechanisms relating to quality preparation of MEd curriculum design

The following section provides a discussion on possible structural mechanisms underlying the absence of recontextualising rules or principles to guide decision making in the curriculum design process, at both TUMA and UDSM, and the influence of the absence of these rules on the quality of programme design.

6.5.1.1 Absence and lack of awareness of recontextualisation rules

Universities in Tanzania as fields of recontextualisation are the sites where knowledge from the field of production is selectively appropriated, relocated, refocused and transformed into curriculum. The field of recontextualisation is regulated by recontextualisation rules or principles that guide curriculum design decision making.

Analysis of the data revealed that both UDSM and TUMA lacked recontextualising rules to guide the process of MEd curriculum design. TUMA administrators acknowledged the lack of guiding principles for both university teacher education programmes and teacher educators' professional development programmes.

> **Researcher:** What about documents, do you have any other documents on teacher education, besides the MEd curriculum? Like policy on teacher education curriculum development or principles guiding teacher education programme design?
> **U2:** Beside this MEd curriculum? (Interview: U2)
>
> **Researcher:** Yes, beside this MEd curriculum document?
> **U2:** No we don't. Maybe VC or DVCAA they have most of the documents. We only have this document [MEd curriculum]. The Dean is given a copy of this and prospectus. (Interview: U2).

Apart from a few course outlines and student dissertations, no other documents were provided by the office of the Deputy Vice Chancellor Academic Affairs (DVCAA) and Director of Postgraduate Studies.

Given that the MA(Ed) programme at UDSM was established over forty years ago, interviews with curriculum designers involved in the initial programme design were not possible. Nevertheless, I assumed that the academic staff at UDSM would be aware of and understand the principles guiding the design of this curriculum. The interviews revealed that this was not the case, as is evident in this response from a long-serving professor:

> **Researcher:** What about the design principles that underpins the selection of the curriculum components?
>
> **D6:** A standard textbook on curriculum should help you on this. Plus documents by the National Institute for Educational Development (NIED), Namibia: *National Curriculum Guide*, *Syllabus guides and Subject policy guides* and *Professional Needs Assessment.* I trust that you could order these documents, Namibia being very close to your country and university of study maybe the university Library there could arrange for a book-loan for you and have them available for you for some time (Interview: D6)

The lack of detail and clarity in the interviewee's response seems to indicate that, on the one hand, he has some general knowledge of such principles, but on the other, that there is no specific application of them in the case of this curriculum. A response from an administrator shows that there was a little guidance in designing the MA(Ed) curriculum:

> When they (designers) were developing this programme their aim was really to train teachers, on the first place those option courses were not that many. So, they thought for a teacher to study master degree what course does he or she need and from which area. So they sat down and think and say: a teacher first need to know advance curriculum methods, so they put in the programme the CT course. A teacher need to know leadership aspects, and so they put one course on leadership, a teacher need to know teacher ethics and professionalism, so they put the EF course, a teacher need to know research methodology so that she/he can write dissertation, so they put a Research Methodology course. And then they said these are core courses, that is, they are compulsory, that, everyone has to study these courses. From here, we said every student has to be allowed to take two option courses, within the School of Education, which will be his or her speciality on whatever she or he decided to study (Interview: D1).

The response shows that there was some consideration of what kind of knowledge needed to be included in these programmes. The response also evinces no overall awareness of what kind of graduate needed to be developed and hence what the specific objectives of the programme should be. This may be imputed to the absence of a professional board for teacher educators in

Tanzania and the consequent absence of standards and competences specific to the teacher educator profession.

Again, the same interviewee was asked whereabouts the principles guiding the design of the MA(Ed) curriculum were to be found. Her answer was that "you will get them from the MA(Ed) curriculum" (Interview: D1). But, as already noted, analysis of the MA(Ed) curriculum revealed no such principles in the document.

The data analysis indicated a similar situation at TUMA. While there was a lack of rules or principles guiding the design of the MEd curriculum at TUMA, as revealed in the second paragraph of this section, one of the professors from UDSM who was involved in designing the TUMA MEd programme (refer to Section 6.3.3.1), explained what he thought a teacher educator needed to know:

> For any educator or teacher, there are areas that he or she needs to be conversant with; one is management and education for sure. The other one is educational curriculum development and implementation. The third is measurement and evaluation…then educational research number four (Interview: U4).

While both interviewees D1 and U4 are permanent teaching staff at UDSM, two of the areas of knowledge mentioned by U4 in this excerpt are different from those mentioned by D1 in a previously quoted excerpt. This also seems to imply a lack of agreed rules or principles guiding what should be included in these programmes.

According to Bernstein (2000), recontextualising principles create recontextualising fields, and create agents with recontextualising functions (p. 33). UDSM and TUMA teacher education staff are recontextualising agents with the recontextualising function of creating curriculum for teacher educators. An absence of recontextualising principles may mean that the recontextualising functions of agents at UDSM and TUMA are limited. This is discussed further in the section below.

6.5.1.1.1 Consequences of the absence of recontextualising rules

The reason given for the MEd programme at TUMA not being offered was a lack of applicants (refer to Section 6.3.1). As discussed above, there is evidence to suggest that the curriculum was

designed in a way not guided by initial principles, a circumstance that could certainly have influenced the quality and hence the success of the programme. According to Kelly (2009), such principles direct curriculum designers to be more cautious and aware of the programme's possible failure, which leads to the design of high quality curricula. There is evidence that suggests that the programme designers were unaware of this until after the programme was a fait accompli. According to a TUMA faculty administrator:

> The number of the students decreased because of the nature of the curriculum itself that I think is where the problem is. Because you will find that some students apply for that MEd but when they are here they change. They opt to go for the Master of Art; you know it's because of the nature of the programme. So, I think the problem is mostly in curriculum that I think is the very big part of the problem (Interview: U3).

Another administrator disclosed that:

> There are two reasons for non-success of the programme. First the programme was very general, no specialisation in education, so students come out as what? Second the programme was made of very many different areas, students did not know what exactly they were prepared to become. The other reason for non-success was that the programme was like an undergraduate programme with so many different courses (Interview: U1).

The absence of principles or rules to guide curriculum design also has implications for reviews that aim to evaluate quality. According to Kelly (2009), principles provide the basis for corrective adjustment of the curriculum when deemed necessary, and offer ways to address unintended learning outcomes. Analysis of the data gathered at both universities revealed the following about programme review: in case of the MEd at TUMA, despite a directive from the DVCAA to review the MEd programme, on my first visit to university in early 2015 I found out that the programme had not been reviewed since it was phased out after the last cohort of 2012/2013 academic year students.

> The DVCAA has asked us… has asked the Director and us Deans to ensure that we review the programmes and then we do the necessary. …So far no action that has been taken really practically. …I have not… I think to this time I have not seen anybody taking care of that [MEd] programme. TCU demands us to set the new programmes, I mean all programmes as per the UQF, including postgraduate programmes all have to be reviewed according to UQF, but to this time I have not seen anybody asking or doing something like that. So it [MEd programme] is still there, it is still as it was; the work has not been done (Interview: U3).

The MEd programme had not yet been reviewed by the end of 2016 when I last visited the university. The absence of guiding principles may have undermined the prospects of an effective review process, which could have helped to address the quality issues that seemingly led to the closure of the programme.

In the case of UDSM, after the TCU directive for universities to review their programmes, the administrator at the School of Education said that they had hired an external consultancy to review not only the MA(Ed) but also all the other programmes offered by the School. The decision to recruit external experts may have been related to the absence of curriculum principles at UDSM, a structural mechanism that constrained the adjustment of the programmes by UDSM academic staff themselves. This is discussed in detail in Chapter Seven, Section 7.6.3.2.

6.5.2 Power structures and mechanisms underlying the MEd preparation for curriculum design process

In addition to principles guiding the design process, several other measures should have been in place before the MEd curriculum design process began. These include justifying the necessity of the programmes, adequate planning, setting priorities, considering a specific need and addressing specific problems (see Pratt, 1980; Schiro, 2008; Kelly, 2009). The analysis in this section is concerned with power structures and mechanisms underlying these measures.

Since the present MA(Ed) programme at UDSM was introduced in 1974, more than 40 years ago, those who were involved in the design process were no longer at the university. This means that there are no witnesses to report on how the preparation for the MA(Ed) curriculum design process took place. Since the universities are responsible for implementation and evaluation of the knowledge, the field of reproduction, the present teaching and learning environment was thus analysed for the purpose of identifying the MA(Ed)'s current underlying power structures and mechanisms.

In case of the MEd programme at TUMA, there seems to have been little general preparation for the MEd curriculum design. These situations will be examined in the following sections.

6.5.2.1 Curriculum design team

The literature on curriculum design recommends five to seven experts in subject matter, pedagogy, curriculum design and other disciplines depending on the field of the curriculum, to form a productive and professionally enriched design team (Pratt, 1980). The literature also cautions that selecting inappropriate people such as traditional experts who resist change or an institute administrator who has power over the team might impede the effectiveness of the team and hence affect the quality of the curriculum (Schiro, 2008). It was revealed in section 6.3.3.2 that the design of the MEd curriculum involved people appointed by top administrators who were purposely chosen because their influence was seen as necessary to obtain the programme from UDSM. One administrator explained that:

> Dr B was a retired lecturer from UDSM. He was the one who initiated the process of getting the programme from UDSM or I can say it was easier to get the programme from UDSM because of him. He was the one who communicated with Professor C [part-time MEd lecturer] from UDSM (Interview: U1).

Another administrator asserted that:

> Dr B is the one who pushed the [MEd] programme until it is the way it is, well how he pushed it, he pushed it due to his knowledge about the programme and the relationship he had with the other university (Interview: U2)

He added:

> Maybe we need to correct ourselves the way we define curriculum experts. For me to be in a university and be a professor does not mean you are a curriculum expert (Interview: U2).

These administrators expressed their concern about the lack of involvement of TUMA academic staff in the MEd curriculum design team:

> **Researcher:** You said you gave your doubts and opinions on the programme but your opinions were not considered.
> **U1:** Yah, yah it is true we said and the minutes were written. We said the programme is highly generalised, it is very general (Interview: U1)
>
> **Researcher:** Was this before it started?
> **U1:** Yes before it started and we had a meeting.
> **U2:** Yes, I remember the meeting was down there (*pointing to the first floor*).
> **U1:** Yah there was a huge discussion (Interview: U1 & U2)

> **Researcher:** It seems to me that you have influence to speak here.
> **U2:** Yah, when you advise they listen very well. But the MEd programme didn't change; it went as it was until it started. Now that it has problem we are now looking back and say 'Hey what happened', 'where did we get it wrong'? In fact that is the question everyone is asking 'you Faculty of Education what happened?' But the answer was given long ago, it was given long ago. So now they are thinking of it (Interview: U2).

It is evident from the administrators' responses that even those staff who had some expertise in curriculum design and the disciplines of education were not appropriately involved in designing the MEd programme.

6.5.2.1.1 Curriculum design team and TUMA MEd programme review

The issue of the lack of an appropriate curriculum design team and lack of involvement of the academic staff could also be an agential mechanism underlying the delay of the review process of the MEd programme at TUMA. As already discussed, despite the directive from the DVCAA to review the MEd programme so that it could be offered once more, the programme has not yet been reviewed (refer to Section 6.5.1.1.1). The reason could also be that almost all those who were appointed to establish the programme are no longer in the university: "Dr B is the one who passed away in 2013 ... Mr Y is now employed in another university ... Professor C [U4] was a part-time lecturer of the MEd programme from UDSM" (Interview: U1; see also Section 6.3.3.1).

The situation is that, while the DVCAA has given a directive for the programme to be reviewed, no one between the Director of Postgraduate Studies and the Dean of the Faculty of Education has taken any action because no one knows who is supposed to organise the review, as explained by the Dean:

> I think the problem we have right now is maybe… when it comes to job description there is a problem. This is my first term as Dean, but I heard even from the previous Dean there is no clear job description of who should do what. So you find sometime maybe I would have done the review but now I am looking at there is a Director, so what is the role of the Director. So the Director also could be seeing that there is a Dean there, now he might assume that there is a Dean. So you see, because of the… the problem here is the lacking of clear job description for us the Director and the Dean. So we don't know who exactly is supposed to do the review. So, as long as these master programmes are under the postgraduate area for me I assume it is him [the Director] who is supposed to initiate this review. So I'm not sure about him what he is assuming about who is to do it (Interview: U3).

From this one might infer that the institution's organisational and operational structure might have been a constraining factor that delayed the review process. One might also infer on the part of the officials concerned a certain reluctance to take the necessary steps to commission a review.

6.5.2.2 Curriculum design parameters

The analysis in this section is about the structures underlying curriculum parameters. The section involves examining the institutional context in terms of the availability of a target population, entry qualification, programme duration, cost and resources.

6.5.2.2.1 Student availability

The literature cautions that the availability of a target population is among the parameters that need to be considered before the design of the curriculum commences (Pratt, 1980). One of the reasons for establishing the MEd at TUMA was to absorb the overflow of applicants who could not be accommodated at UDSM. As discussed in Chapter Two, UDSM is historically, politically and academically the most influential university in Tanzania. This gives the institution the advantage of receiving more applicants that it can afford to take in most of its programmes. This was the case for the MA(Ed) programme. The university's status seems to have trumped any other issues that could have lowered the number of applicants, which was not the case at TUMA. Rather, the quality and appropriateness of the programme were presumably the main factors in attracting applicants. As this was not considered from the beginning (refer to Section 6.5.1.1.1), the programme was withdrawn within four years of its inception.

6.5.2.2.2 Entry qualification

The minimum entry qualification for a Master's degree programme is an undergraduate degree or its equivalent (TCU, 2012b, p. 23). Each university is allowed to formulate its own Master's degree entry requirements, using this criterion, plus any other criteria specific to the programme specialisation. An administrator at UDSM explained that because of the large number of applications received for the MA(Ed), they had to raise their entry requirements:

> Anyone with a degree in education of 2.7 GPA is enrolled. But due to the high number of applicants we usually raise the GPA, we usually admit female applicants with the GPA of

> 3.5 and above, and for male applicants the GPA is much higher because of higher number of male applicants. We raise GPA because we get many applicants (Interview: D1)

The administrator added that they had to offer an evening MA(Ed) programme to be able to accommodate more applicants:

> Those applicants who are not admitted to full time MA(Ed) we advise them to apply evening MA(Ed). It is the same programme with the same content and same lecturers except that it is offered in the evening; it is an Evening MA(Ed) programme. Lecturers who teach full time are also teaching evening. And sometimes even the assignments are the same; we combine evening and fulltime students and give them assignments. And the final examination is also the same (Interview: D1).

An administrator at TUMA described the entry qualification for the MEd programme at TUMA as a "Bachelor's Degree in Education with a minimum Grade Point Average (GPA) of 2.7" (Interview: U5). As TUMA was aware of the number of students who are not accepted for the MA(Ed) programme at UDSM, they ought also to have known that all who apply for the evening MA(Ed) are accepted as long as they have an undergraduate degree:

> For the evening MA(Ed) we take as many students as possible, actually we take all those who apply as long as they qualify, the reason is because it is an income generation activity for the School [of Education]. So for the evening MA(Ed) we don't actually regard the GPA. We just take all who apply until maybe if it will reach a point where the applicants are so many that we are not able to take any more but we have yet not been in that situation till now we are able to take all who apply (Interview: D1).

Apart from the cachet of UDSM, even the low entry GPA to the MEd programme at TUMA was not a guarantee that the programme would get enough applicants. Such a guarantee could have rested on the quality and appropriateness of the programme's content (see also Section 6.5.2.2.5).

6.5.2.2.3 Programme duration and course coverage

Another parameter to be considered by TUMA was the duration of the programme: the duration of the programme as a whole, as well as the time allocated for the delivery of each course and related activities, and for a dissertation.

According to TCU, "the volume of learning of a Master's degree is a minimum of two semesters", which is equal to one year (TCU, 2012b, p. 28). The duration of the MA(Ed) at UDSM is 18 months, so one might have thought that in order to attract applicants TUMA might have reduced the programme to one year, as TCU regulations allow. But this was not the case.

The MEd at TUMA is a two-year programme, with almost twice the number of courses offered by the MA(Ed) programme, which means extended coverage with less time for course delivery, activities and conducting research for the dissertation (more details in Chapter Seven, Section 7.7.1). This has implications for the course's attractiveness to potential applicants.

6.5.2.2.4 Human resources: Dependency on part-time teaching staff

According to TCU regulations, university staff who are qualified to teach at a Master's level should have a PhD and/or be professors (TCU, 2007). In Section 6.3.1, I explained that there is a shortage of lecturers with PhDs and at the professorial level in Tanzanian universities, university colleges, centres and institutes. A larger number of lecturers have Master's degrees. This means that academic staff are generally under-qualified. This situation is severe in private higher education institutions because many professors and lecturers with PhDs prefer to work in public higher education institutions. UDSM is one of the public universities with a larger number of PhDs and professors. All those teaching the MA(Ed) programme at UDSM are full-time PhDs and professors. Most of them are part-time lecturers in private universities.

Most often programme design processes in private institutions are overseen by inadequate number and under-qualified teaching staff. Large numbers of academic staff are appointed on part-time contracts (as revealed in the TCU programme review and university technical verification visits, 2016/2017 reports). Most of them are from public universities, especially UDSM, or from non-teaching government and non-governmental sectors, organisations and institutions. This was the case with the MEd programme at TUMA, as revealed by one of the administrators when he was talking about PhD holders at TUMA:

> From what I know this programme is supposed to be taught by either Doctors or those who are in PhD programmes I mean understudies, so far I see they are too few currently... I see they are here but few, very few because we rely mostly on the lecturers from… public universities, we have few, some of them are in study like the one I'm talking now [U2] and we had the other one also who passed away last year. And so… we now… what I know there are about two or three lecturers from other universities who are visiting lecturers. So I think this is one of the problems which we are facing because students might find themselves that…, they might… they are here and they lose a lot of time before they get a lecturer…. (Interview: U3).

This response expresses the concern that part-time teaching poses a risk to the quality of the programme's graduates due to the lack of coherence between the intended curriculum and the implementation, especially with regard to the effective delivery of content, activities and assessment, as admitted by a MEd part-time lecturer from UDSM:

> For efficient teaching and learning, private university institutions should not depend on part-time lecturers. For instance myself, I used to go to TUMA to teach 1 course for only 2 weeks from 8:00am to 5:00pm which means there was limited time for instruction and little or no time for student to interact with the lecturer (Interview: U4).

The administrator at TUMA commented on the situation at TUMA that:

> It is even worse for professors; we don't have them, that is worse, so it become a more problem. We depend on… public universities. Here I think in the education we have only one, he is the DVCAA, the rest are from outside. Of course we can't rely much from there [outside], at least we could have enough Doctors even within here I think the programme would be stable, but we don't have even the Doctors because Doctors are qualified to teach master (programmes), but mostly who teach the master programme have master [qualification] (Interview: U3).

Staff at TUMA admitted that many of the part-time lecturers at TUMA are from UDSM. This is not only the case for the MEd programme but also for other master's programmes, as pointed out by another administrator at TUMA:

> There were other two part-time lecturers from UDSM. One was called Dr E. She died in South Africa in 2013 when she went for treatment. Another part-time lecturer from UDSM called Dr A [the administrator of the School of Education at UDSM]. He teaches Foundation and administration course to MEd students (Interview: U1).

The issue of infrastructure and teaching and learning facilities is another parameter to be considered in terms of the feasibility and effectiveness of the implementation of a programme prior to the curriculum design.

6.5.2.2.5 Physical resources

I undertook observation of the infrastructure at UDSM and TUMA. I looked at the appropriateness of the library resources and facilities, computer labs, and teaching and learning venues for the two MEd programmes. At both universities MEd students use the same facilities and resources as other postgraduate students and with a few exceptions, there are no specific facilities for postgraduate students. Key findings of the observations pertain to availability,

adequacy and the condition of the infrastructure, resources and facilities at each university are discussed in this sections that follow.

6.5.2.2.6 UDSM infrastructure, teaching and learning resources and facilities

Pressure from government and the Ministry of Education on public universities to increase their enrolment, as described in Chapter Two, has impacted on public university facilities and resources (both human and physical). These institutions admit a large number of students to the extent that they cannot afford to provide adequate and appropriate teaching and learning facilities. This is evident at UDSM, where teaching and learning conditions are deteriorating due to the disproportionate ratio of students to resources, facilities and infrastructure. In his article that examined the Comparative Education course in the MA(Ed) programme, the lecturer of this course protested that:

> The state of infrastructure at UDSM is an area of great concern…First, library services are not sufficient and favourable for users – students, members of academic staff, and the public. Secondly, in lecture and in seminar room furniture is a problematic. Thirdly, Information communication and Technology (ICT) is a challenge. Despite the university efforts, computers are still not adequate for students to undertake studies comfortably. For example, FoEd [Faculty of Education, now School of Education], which has more than three hundred students, relies on less than twenty computers (Anangisye, 2008, p. 306).

The situation at UDSM is still the same or worse when I visited the university in 2015. In the sections below, I present a brief analysis of the UDSM teaching and learning resources and infrastructure and discuss the effects of the situation on curriculum provision and the quality of the MA(Ed) graduates.

a) Library and Resource Centre

The UDSM library is an old building with old infrastructure. The building seems big, but is not large enough to accommodate the numbers of students that UDSM now has. There are few other libraries in the university's academic colleges and Schools.

There is a resource centre in the old building of the School of Education, but it is also an old and very small room. According to the administrator of the School of Education, the School is expecting to move to its new building soon, which contains a large resource room:

> We have a new building along Changanyikeni road, the building is almost ready. It was funded by World Bank. That building is a standard one and the resource centre is a big room, not like this one here. The new one is big room with space (Interview: D1).

However, since the School of Education was still in the old building during the data collection period, the findings analysed reflect my observation of the old resource room. Another aspect is the maintenance and cleanliness of the library and its facilities. Both the resource centre and the main library are dirty, with old paint, dust and even spider webs on the walls. The main library only has toilets on the ground floor and the toilets are usually dirty with a bad smell, most of the time with no water and usually no toilet paper.

i) Space, furniture and staff

A month's observation at UDSM revealed that both the main UDSM library and the resource centre have limited space for students to sit and read. Both the main library and resource centre have old furniture that is not properly arranged. The overall organisation of tables and chairs, especially in the main library, is usually chaotic.

Library services do not provide sufficient help and support to Master's students. Staff at the UDSM main library and resource centre are unreliable. Some librarians in the main library are always in their offices because there are no librarians' desks around the library. There are few support or cleaning staff in the main library, which makes it an unclean environment, especially its toilets. In case of the resource centre, there is usually only one staff member present, sitting on his or her chair at the librarian's desk, and there are issues of theft and books being torn, which will be discussed below.

In the main library, there are never enough chairs and tables to accommodate students. This is especially a problem during exam preparation weeks when students have to fight to get a space to sit. When exams are written, the problem intensifies because some venues in the main library are used as examination halls. This reduces yet further the library space for students who want to continue with their examination preparation. The other concern is that there is no space put aside for master's students in the main library, which means that they too have to fight for a reading space.

In the old building of the School of Education, the resource centre has only about twenty chairs surrounding two big tables and fewer than ten bookshelves. A chair and a table for the librarian and a small room for special or short loan materials occupy the remaining space. According to the administrator, the resource centre is mainly for master's students:

> We have a small resource centre here in the School of Education. It has books specific for education, and actually it is specific for master's students, so many resources for master's students are available there more than in the main university library (Interview: D1).

In spite of this, on several visits I made to the School of Education I found that even PhD and PGDE students use the resource centre. While the room can accommodate fewer than thirty students at a time, there are over a hundred master's students alone, according to the lecturer in Research Methods, a core course for all master's students in the School of Education.

ii) Resources

The effectiveness of teaching and student learning depends, among other things, on the availability of relevant and up-to-date text and reference books. This factor, and its implications for the quality of education on offer, is a source of concern at UDSM. I observed several issues regarding resources in the main library. The availability of quality and relevant textbooks and reference works is a first issue. The library does not have the latest editions of books. Many books are irrelevant and outdated, as is evident in almost all the outlines for the MA(Ed) courses. This is discussed in more detail in Chapter Seven, Section 7.11.

The other issue is that many reference resources in the main library cannot be accessed online. These include students' theses, books, research reports and all magazines and newspapers. This makes it necessary for students to be in the library to get hold of those resources, which exacerbates the issue of the availability of reading space in the library.

Another concern is the availability of soft copy materials. The online database in UDSM is not exhaustive. The library and the university at large does not have access to many important e-journals and database sources like Google scholar, JSTOR, Scopus and EBSCOhost. Another issue is the maintenance and handling of books, theses, magazines, newspapers and other hard copy resources. Many of these resources are dirty and dusty. Many of the magazines and newspapers and especially old reports are torn, and there no useful effort is being made to

maintain them. This in turn creates a problem regarding the availability of these resources. As they are manually managed, materials such historical research reports, information and archives are always hard to find.

The computers in the main library are also a serious issue because there are so few of them. In mid-2016, I counted only ten computers for students to use. There are also fewer than ten computers for cataloguing in the whole library. Students often have to wait in the queue to access these computers. Even if you have your own laptop the possibility of getting access to a power socket is unlikely because there are very few of them.

Partly because of the shortage of computers, the internet is another issue in the library and in the university as a whole. The internet network is slow and often not accessible. This lengthens the queues of computer catalogue users. It is sometimes difficult to access library resources off campus, even in a good quality internet network spot.

The condition of materials in the resource centre is more critical. First, there are no computers in the centre, even for cataloguing; as one administrator observed, "we don't have computers for library use in the resource centre" (Interview: D1). While borrowing is manually operated in the resource centre, all resources (books, research report, theses) in the centre can only be accessed online via the main library catalogue computers. In addition to the lack of computers for resource users, the resource centre has only three power sockets for laptop users.

The absence of computer terminals in the resource centre is crucial, as more books relevant to the master's degree programmes are in the resource centre than in the main university library. As an administrator noted:

> And surprising is that… if you want to find where a book is you have to go to the main library to get access of library OPAC you cannot do that in the resource centre oooo this is not fair to students (Interview: D1).

The administrator thus expresses her concern at the inconvenience of the situation for students. She draws attention to the fact that:

> The new [School of Education] building is far from the main campus, which means it will be much difficult to say that a student has to come for the library OPAC in the main campus (Interview: D1).

Another concern about the resource centre is that, while it includes books, students' theses, research reports, independent studies and pamphlets of various education disciplines, these resource materials, especially the books, are old editions, like those in the main library. This was also revealed in the analysis of the list of references in the outline of the MA(Ed) courses, which is discussed in more detail in Chapter Seven, Section 7.11. According to the administrator, the reason why there are only old and outdated books is because there is no security system at the centre's entrance. The administrator explained that:

> We got books from the World Bank. They brought to us *soooooo* many books *sooo* many but I'm not sure if they are still there in the resource centre because another problem with our resource centre is the security. Students steal the books because there is no security system to detect books taken outside the resource centre, we don't have one, and that is the problem, we cannot retain those books they were *sooo* many but… that is the problem in the resource centre (Interview: D1).

The availability of up-to-date and appropriate books and other reference materials is central to the development of quality teacher educators. From her own experience of studying at UDSM, the administrator described how the lack of relevant books affected knowledge acquisition and her research performance:

> I studied masters here and I found Research Methodology very difficult to the extent that until I finished the course it was not clear to me. I could not tell what Research Methodology is, and even when I was doing my dissertation I struggle and I read but still so many things were not clear … It is because here we didn't have resources. Research methodology books were not available. At least now there are some few but before there were not, all students were using one book wrote by an Indian author called Kothari, every student was using Kothari, Kothari, Kothari, at least now we have some other few (Interview: D1).

The other thing that contributed to the lack of relevant reference materials is the maintenance and handling of the resource materials. As in the main library, both books and student theses in the resource centre are dirty and torn. This, as indicated above, is a consequence of inadequate number of librarians and support staff in the centre.

b) Computer lab

The lecturer responsible for the MA(Ed) Comparative Education course, in his article that reviewed the course, pointed out that the School of Education, which has more than three hundred students (including undergraduates), relies on fewer than twenty computers (Anangisye, 2008, p. 306). These computers are in the computer lab in the old building of the School of Education, and according to the School administrator, "the computer lab is for science education students" (Interview: D1).

Coupled with the issue of the availability of computers is the students' computer illiteracy. The same Comparative Education lecturer wrote that:

> Students' illiteracy in computer skills is an issue. Usually, students come into education studies 'illiterate' in ICT. This state of affairs has implications for teaching, research, and consultancy services. All fields of study suffer the consequences. It inhibits efficient access to relevant data. Consequently, student and teachers are denied an opportunity to internationalise education issues from local settings (Anangisye, 2008, p. 306).

While students come to university computer illiterate and find that the university offers limited computer access, they also find that some of their lecturers, especially long serving professors and other senior staff, have the same problem. This, as the lecturer points out above, has implications for teaching and research as it impedes access to relevant current information.

c) Teaching venues

The problem of lecture and theatre venues is not only about the shortage of furniture but also the size, quality and efficiency of the rooms. A lecturer who is teaching the quantitative part of the Research Methods course in the MA(Ed) programme disclosed that the theatre rooms are too small for his class of a "hundred to two hundred" students (Interview: D3). According to him, the room is so small that some students have to stand, and some of those who are able to sit cannot find a table or space on the table to put their laptops:

> I think for the master students most of them have laptop, yah they have but if you tell each one to sit with his or her computer and enter the data is difficult in the theatre (Interview: D3).

Student numbers intensify issues regarding the size of the lecture theatre and the lack of computers in the computer lab. The lecturer pointed out that the School of Education has an overhead projector and he uses that to demonstrate the SPSS application:

> The class is too big, is too big hundred to two hundred Other courses they are twenty or twenty five but when there is core course like Research Methods all of them [master students] come together, those in MEMA, MASP, MA(Ed), MEd(Sc.) all study together, so it is a big class. So, to make sure everybody is able to enter into SPSS and do the analysis they want, but I'm showing the power point and they can follow (Interview: D3).

While the lecturer's determination was "to make sure everybody is able to enter into SPSS and do the analysis they want" (Interview: D3), he admitted that using power point to show students how SPSS works is not an effective means for the transmission and acquisition of the research skills, because students need to apply these skills practically, by themselves:

> I think it would have been enough if every student… if there is an opportunity for every student to have a laptop and a computer to be able to work (Interview: D3).

The literature argues that the ability to create new knowledge in teaching and education stems from research and relies on the availability of time and facilities including a good library, offices, computers, and internet access (Smith, 2005). This overview of the conditions, services and maintenance of the teaching and learning resource materials and facilities at UDSM, portrays the challenges that MA(Ed) students (as well as other students and academic staff) face in this higher education institution. The discussion now moves to the infrastructure at TUMA.

6.5.2.2.7 TUMA infrastructure, teaching and learning resources and facilities

Private higher education institutions like Tumaini University Makumira (TUMA) are not obliged to follow governmental directives to increase student intake and hence often (not always) admit the number of students that they can afford to service. My visit to the library and other facilities at TUMA revealed a different situation from that of the University of Dar es Salaam. Although it is a private university, the condition of the library and the physical resources are far better than those at UDSM.

a) Library facilities and services

While there are no other small libraries in the departments, TUMA main library is big enough to accommodate a large number of students, with additional reading spaces and rooms available for group study. The library is neat, clean and well organised physically and administratively. There are many comfortable chairs and tables with large reading user-friendly spaces. The furniture is in good condition and is arranged in a disciplined academic manner.

The library is full of relevant and up-to-date resources. When I visited the library in early 2015, I found some 2015 book editions already available. Appropriate numbers of books in every education discipline are available as e-books and hard copies. The books are neat and in good condition.

At TUMA an effort has been made to give students access to journals on databases such as Scopus, Emerald, Eric, JSTOR, and EBSCOhost. Overall access to online resources at TUMA is satisfactory.

The library at TUMA has 25 computers for catalogue searches as well as other academic purposes. All the computers are in good condition and have good internet connectivity. There are many power sockets, as well, for users' laptops.

Librarians in the TUMA library are friendly and hard working. They make sure that everything in the library is clean and ordered, and that resources are not misused. They circulate to make sure that books and other hard copy resources are not torn, spoiled or destroyed. They re-shelve books quickly to make the library functional and comfortable for students. In addition, as a visitor you find yourself approached with offers of help before you ask. The librarians and other staff effectively assist students, researchers and lecturers with where to find resources they require, and how to use the library facilities.

There is a security system installed at the library entrance, and librarians make sure that nothing is stolen from the library. In other words, the issue of the waste and destruction of resource materials that looms large at UDSM is not happening in TUMA library.

b) Teaching venues

The size of lecture rooms and theatres is not an issue for the MEd students. TUMA does not have special lecture rooms or theatres for postgraduate students. They use lecture theatres and halls that were built to hold large undergraduate classes. These rooms are in fact perhaps too big for master's students, but are comfortable and facilitate their academic activities. The lecture rooms, theatre and halls are fully furnished with table and chairs in a fixed arrangement, and a power point projector.

c) Computer labs

In addition to the computers in the library, TUMA has three computer labs. These labs have a total of 250 computers, all connected to a good internet service. The rooms are big with well-maintained sets of computer furniture properly arranged for academic use.

d) Other teaching and learning facilities

Despite there being no resource centre at TUMA, master's students have access to *reading rooms* reserved for postgraduate students, to use for discussion, individual studying and reading. While the TUMA computer room is for all students in the university, the master's students have access to power sockets to use their laptops in these rooms. Reading space is not restricted to the postgrad reading room, and the university has made it possible for students to have access to the internet around the university campus. TUMA has a large generator that serves the whole university in case of power cuts.

6.5.3 Synthesis of the arguments

In this section, I discussed what was in place by way of preparation for the MEd curricula design, to ensure a smooth process of MEd curriculum design and effective implementation. While there was no data on how preparation for the MA(Ed) curriculum design at UDSM was carried out, there is no evidence to suggest that recontextualising principles guided the MA(Ed) curriculum design process. It was revealed, through observation and document analysis, that the existing facilities and academic services at the University of Dar es Salaam are not adequate for quality teaching and learning. Interviews with lecturers revealed that the situation affects knowledge transmission as well as students' learning, acquisition and application of knowledge and skills.

By contrast, I found the environment at TUMA conducive to student learning. The problem there was that proper measure to ensure the relevance of the MEd curriculum were not carefully considered. Similar to UDSM, there were no recontextualising principles guiding the TUMA MEd curriculum design process. In addition to the extensive dependency on part-time lecturers, which affected the curriculum provision, the absence of a suitable design team resulted in inappropriate MEd curriculum content.

6.6 MEd curriculum design process

This section discusses what emerged from analysis of the design processes of the two MEd programmes. The analysis involves examination of what happened during the design process and identification of causal mechanisms underlying the design process.

6.6.1 Events during the MEd design process

As indicated earlier, the MA(Ed) programme was the first postgraduate education programme in the country. A long-serving professor in the School of Education observed that: "a professor, three senior PhDs and masters lecturers who got their qualifications from abroad, designed the MA (Ed) programme" (Interview: D6). The situation with the MEd at TUMA is different. This programme, according to TUMA faculty administrators, was not designed but copied from UDSM. A senior administrator at TUMA commented:

> Actually I can't say designed the programme was not designed, the programme was not designed, it was copied and pasted from UDSM. And the professor C [part-time lecturer] from UDSM was the one who brought it here from UDSM. He was a part-time lecturer of the programme after it was launched (Interview: U1).

Another administrator added that "Dr B, the deceased, who was a TUMA retired lecturer from UDSM met Professor C [part-time lecturer of MEd] from UDSM and they come up with the programme" (Interview: U2). This administrator added that "this was the reason why the programme didn't last because it was not designed, it was just a manipulation" (Interview: U2). The following sections discuss mechanisms that could have influenced the events that took place during the MEd design process at TUMA and their consequences for the quality of the programme.

6.6.1.1 Causal mechanisms underlying TUMA MEd curriculum design

The process of curriculum design involves agents' actions in the interests of the institution or of themselves. The process also involves structures that mould the actions of agents and thus also influence outcomes. The analysis in the following sections focuses on the identification of causal mechanisms that may have influenced and shaped the way the MEd programmes were designed.

The literature on curriculum design cautions that there could be problems with curriculum design if the designers cannot define the discipline of the courses that the curriculum needs to encompass (van den Akker, 2003; Schiro, 2008). The quality of the curriculum could equally be affected if members of the team are traditionally minded and resistant to change, or people intent on replicating the courses taken during their own academic training. The situation in respect of the MEd curriculum at TUMA, according to the findings revealed in Section 6.3.3.1 as well as in previous sections, portrays all three scenarios.

The copying was not only evident from the TUMA administrators' responses but also from an analysis of four Master of Education programmes from UDSM. The four programmes, in addition to the MA(Ed) are the Master of Education Science Education (MEd Sc. Ed), Master of Arts in Applied Social Psychology (MAASP), and Master of Educational Management (MEMA). Analysis of the MEd at TUMA revealed that its courses were an accumulation of courses selected from these four UDSM programmes, as shown in Tables 6.1 and 6.2, below.

Table 6.1 TUMA MEd curriculum courses

Core courses		Option (elective) courses	
1	***Curriculum Planning, Theory, Design and Development***	1	HISTORY AND PHILOSOPHY OF EDUCATION
2	***Comparative Education***	2	Professional Ethics for Educators
3	***Research Methodology***	3	Special Education
4	Contemporary education issues in East Africa	4	***Economics of Education***
5	MANAGEMENT OF EDUCATION AND SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION	5	***Environmental Education***
6	***Education Policy and Planning***	6	***Adult Education***
7	***Educational Psychology, Theories and Principles of Teaching And Learning***	7	***Gender Development and Education***
8	SOCIOLOGY OF EDUCATION	8	***Information technology***
9	Test construction measurement, educational statistics and evaluation	9	***Design and Development of Teaching Materials***
10	***Psychology of Human Growth and Development***		
11	***Instructional Technology in Education***		

Table 6.1 above shows the TUMA MEd curriculum courses and Table 6.2 below presents the courses of all four master of education programmes at UDSM. The courses that are in bold italics in Table 6.1 are identical to courses in the four UDSM programmes, also bold italics in Table 6.2. There is an alteration in the names of some courses like Psychology of Child Development into Psychology of Human Growth and Development, and no change for others like Comparative Education, Economics of Education and Environmental Education. There are some changes in the content in some of the courses, but there are also similarities and repetitions of the knowledge across the curriculum. A detailed analysis of the content of the MEd courses is provided in Chapter Seven, Sections 7.5 and 7.6.

Table 6-2 Curriculum courses of four master of education programmes at UDSM

MA(Ed)	MEd Sc. Ed	MAASP	MEMA
Core courses 1. ***Research Methods in Education*** 2. ***Comparative Education*** 3. ***Policy, Planning and Administration*** 4. ***Curriculum and Teaching*** 5. Dissertation	Core courses 1. Research Methods in Education 2. Curriculum and Teaching 3. Curriculum Design Principles in Science 4. Professional Development in Science and Mathematics Education 5. Dissertation	Core courses 1. Research Methods 2. Social and Personality Psychology 3. Community guidance and Counselling 4. Introduction to General Psychology 5. Practicum in Counselling 6. Dissertation	Core courses 1. Research Methods 2. Educational Policy making & Policy Analysis 3. Educational Planning, Programme/Project Design and Evaluation 4. ***Economics of Education and Financing*** 5. ***Management of Education Systems and Institutions*** 6. Dissertation
Option (elective) courses 1. ***Psychology of Child Development*** 2. ***Theories Of Teaching And Learning*** 3. Management of Educational Institutions and Projects 4. Educational Planning and Financing 5. ***Advanced Curriculum Development*** 6. Youth and sports development 7. Economics and Marketing of Sports 8. Sociometrics and Microanalysis 9. ***Adult Learning*** 10. Open and Distance Learning 11. Management and financing of adult education programmes	Option (elective) courses 1. The Social Context of Science and Mathematics 2. Assessment of Performance in Science and Mathematics 3. ***Computer Assisted Learning in Science and Mathematics Education*** 4. ***Environmental Education***	Option (elective) courses 1. Community Psychology and Mental Health 2. Career and Occupational Psychology 3. Introduction to Methods of Studying Human Behaviour 4. Health Behaviours in Young People 5. Psychology of Aging and Quality of Life 6. ***Gender Psychology*** 7. Psychology of Child Development 8. Theories of Teaching and Learning	Option (elective) courses 1. Quality Assurance and Quality Control in Education 2. The Politics of Education 3. Education Management Information System (EMIS) 4. Organizational Behaviour in Education 5. Legal and Ethical Aspects of Education 6. Human Resources Management 7. Business and Entrepreneurial Education

Because of the details revealed in the interviews and through the analysis of the four UDSM master of education programmes, a decision was made to analyse other UDSM education programmes. The analysis revealed that some of the courses, including Management of Education and School Administration, and Sociology of Education in the MEd curriculum (Table

6.1, capitalised) have been taken from UDSM undergraduate education courses (see Chapter Seven, Section 7.6.2.2).

In addition to the fact that there were no rules or principles to guide the MEd curriculum design (refer to Section 6.5.1.1), the accumulation of courses from different education disciplines created confusion among students, who were not able to identify their specialisation. This was pointed out by an administrator when he responded to the question of why the MEd programme did not attract applicants:

> I think the best attraction could be first in the programme itself, if the programme was good as it was supposed to be, I think many students would be attracted because at first they were attracted they were many. But I think they were many by then because they were not much aware of the issue of the problem of the programme. But you know when the programme started and they [students] started to meet, share they find that they miss something. And that something is the gap in the specialised field (Interview: U3).

This administrator added that:

> When they [students] apply for masters you find that the number of applicants is equal for those who are applying for MEd and those who apply for Master of Arts but as soon as they are in here they change. So you find that they are doing that because they say this MEd is a programme that in a way is not attractive for them to realise who will they be after graduating, that is the problem. So they keep on influencing each other to go to other programmes (Interview: U3).

The accumulation of different courses from different programme in the MEd curriculum also made the programme appear like an undergraduate programme with multiple disciplines (see Chapter Seven, Section 7.6.2.1). This again negatively affected the putative specialisations within the programme since it was not clear what the programme aimed to develop. Students realised this, which is why the programme failed:

> Students who finished the programme tell others outside there not to apply for the course [MEd programme]. So the number of students enrolled started to decrease drastically up to this year [2015] we have no student at all (Interview: U1).

According to TUMA administrators, the copy and paste design process did not only take place for the MEd programme. One administrator indicated that: "this way of designing programmes is not only for MEd, we have PhD in Education and Postgraduate Diploma in Education [PGDE]

these also pass the same designing style" (Interview: U2). Another administrator confirmed this: "yes PhD in Education and Master of Education this one you are researching, and Postgraduate Diploma in Education all have the same structure and they came at the same time" (Interview: U1).

When I asked if the PGDE programme still existed, one of the administrators answered: "yes it is surviving, why it is surviving is because it is taken by people who already have their degrees. These people already they have qualifications elsewhere in other areas but still they want to be teachers" (Interview: U1). Another administrator who is a lecturer in the PGDE course added that:

> What we did for PGDE is to modify some courses. The courses are as they are in the PGDE curriculum document obtained from UDSM, but when we are in the classroom we modified them so that they fit students. If for example a student studied tourism degree is taking this PGDE, another one studied agriculture, they do not know basic teacher skills, so we have added these basic teacher skills, a lecturer adds these in his or her particular course. And then the Dean reviewed the PGDE to add specific courses for basic teacher skills so as it fit properly. And so we tried hard to put in teacher practices (Interview: U2).

This interviewee pointed out that courses in the PGDE curriculum were modified to fit the purpose of the programme. It was revealed that the MEd programme had not been reviewed since it closed. The possible reason for that, as revealed in Section 6.5.2.1.1, could be the absence of those who participated in the design of the programme. It was also revealed in Section 6.5.1.1.2 that the lack of recontextualising principles to guide the adjustment of the courses to fit the purpose of the programme could also be the reason that the review process has been delayed.

6.7 Conclusion

In this chapter, using critical realist perspectives on agency and structure (refer to Chapter Four), I engaged in retroductive reasoning to explore possible mechanisms underlying the establishment of the MEd programmes and the consequences for this of the power structures shaping actions and events.

In summary, some of the mechanisms identified as constraining quality MEd curriculum design preparation at TUMA include: the inappropriateness of designers' curriculum decisions, and the

designers' lack of insight into what constitutes an appropriate knowledge mix for teacher educators. The situation was exacerbated by the absence of guiding principles for curriculum creation. These mechanisms were associated with the agential actions of the top administrators of the institution in dominating the design team. The lack of adequate qualified MEd teaching staff was identified as another mechanism constraining quality MEd provision.

The scarcity and irrelevance of the resources and facilities at UDSM tend to constrain lecturers' transmission and students' acquisition of knowledge and skills. The lack of adequate resources at UDSM is associated with the disproportional ratio between the number of students the institution is urged to take and the funds it receives from the government. The findings revealed a strong relationship between constraints and the quality of the MEd graduates. In the chapter that follows, I explore the possible generative mechanisms underlying the selection of the MEd curriculum components.

Chapter Seven

Exploring the Mechanisms Underlying the Selection of Curriculum Components of the MEd Programmes

7.1 Introduction

This chapter presents, analyses and discusses data gathered to answer the second research question: "What are the generative mechanisms underlying the selection of the curriculum components of the MEd programmes in Tanzania?"

The chapter draws from the findings of the analysis of the MEd curriculum components. The aim is to understand how and why they were selected in relation to teacher educators' roles and needs. The teacher education literature reviewed in Chapter Three and Bernstein's translation device are engaged to investigate the extent to which the components are relevant to teacher educators' professional education and practice. The chapter also aims, using retroductive inference, to uncover and identify the generative mechanisms underlying the selection of the components.

I begin my analysis by presenting and discussing how Master's degree qualifications and teacher educators' roles and functions have been defined in Tanzanian national documentation. I then draw on the data from the documents and interviews to determine the extent to which these MEd curriculum components relate to the identified roles and functions of teacher educators.

7.2 Tanzanian teacher educators' qualifications, roles and functions

As noted in Chapter Six, the Tanzanian University Qualifications Framework (UQF) defines only *general* standards. The UQF characterises the kinds of specialised knowledge and skills associated with a field of study for any Master's degree, but does not specify the knowledge and skills for any particular discipline. The framework states that individuals with a Master's degree qualification are supposed to have:

> …highly specialised knowledge, in a field of work or study, as the basis for original thinking and/or research, and critical awareness of knowledge issues in a discipline and at the interface between fields in a discipline (TCU, 2012b, pp. 23-24).

The framework thus indicates that the form of knowledge for a Master's degree comprehensively faces inward to the specialised knowledge that it draws on, and facing outwards to the specialised skills required for a field of practice but is silent on specific specialised knowledge required for a particular Master degree qualification such as a teacher educator. The framework does not specify, for example, what teaching knowledge looks like for a MEd qualified teacher educator. It does not describe what teacher educators need to know to be able to do or to meet the requirements for teaching teachers and does not specify how the knowledge will be judged and evaluated.

The UQF also stresses in general terms that a Master's degree student:

> … needs to acquire specialised problem-solving skills required in research and/or innovation in order to develop new knowledge and procedures, to integrate knowledge from different fields, have ability to use a range of established techniques to initiate or propose solutions to problems arising from a specific context (TCU, 2012b, pp. 23-24).

These general standards, as explained in Chapter Six, are expected to guide universities in designing and developing their Master's programmes, including the MEd programmes.

As mentioned in Chapter One (Section 1.2), teacher educators in Tanzania are known as tutors if they teach diploma (and certificate) teachers in teacher collages, and Assistant Lecturers if they teach Bachelor of Education courses to higher secondary school teachers in universities. The Tanzanian University Quality Assurance Guidelines and Standards stipulate the duties and responsibilities of university teaching staff. The duties of an Assistant Lecturer with a Master's degree are:

a) Conducting lectures, seminars, tutorials and practicals for undergraduate programmes.
b) Assisting senior staff in practicals, seminars and tutorials for postgraduate programmes as part of their learning and building capacities in various aspects of teaching, learning, research and public service.
c) Preparing case studies.
d) Working in co-operation with senior members on specific projects.
e) Supervising special projects for undergraduate students.
f) Conducting and publishing research results.
g) Assisting in writing teaching manuals and compendia.
h) Attending workshops, conferences and symposia.
i) Any relevant duty that may be assigned by the relevant authority (TCU, 2014b, pp 46-47).

Likewise, the Tanzania Institute of Education (TIE) stipulates the qualifications that tutors should have. Such tutors are Master's degree-holding teacher educators who teach lower secondary school teachers in teacher colleges. The responsibility of TIE, as described in Chapter Two, is to design, disseminate, monitor and evaluate teacher colleges' programmes, including the diploma curricula for the lower secondary school teachers (MoEVT. TIE, 2009b).

The duties and responsibilities of university Assistant Lecturers stipulated in the University Quality Assurance Guidelines and Standards (quoted above) are similar to the characteristics required of these teacher college tutors, as specified in the official (formal or intended) written diploma curriculum document (MoEVT. TIE, 2009b). The teacher educator in that document is described as "a competent and effective tutor with a Master's degree in teacher education and some experience in teaching at secondary schools; with adequate participation in teaching practice; attending short courses, seminars, workshops and symposium; as well as professional development in conducting educational research" (pp. 17-18). It is clear that TIE thus insists that tutors must not only keep their teacher training knowledge up-to-date, but that teaching practice must be part of their academic life.

The national documentation discussed above stipulates a Master's degree as a qualification for teacher educators (tutors and Assistant Lecturers). However, there are no regulations pertaining to what teacher educators in Tanzania need to know, only what they need to do. There is no indication of what teacher teaching knowledge looks like or what teacher educators need to acquire from the MEd programmes to be competent and effective educators.

7.3 MEd curriculum components

Generally speaking, the literature on curriculum design reviewed in Chapter Three cites various components that a curriculum is expected to possess. The Tanzania Institute of Education (TIE) expects curriculum documents for teacher education to contain the following components:

> Competence to be developed and acquired by learners (knowledge, skills and attitudes); the pedagogical approaches to be used in curriculum implementation; educational materials to facilitate learning; professional and academic qualification of the implementers; enabling infrastructure for effective delivery; the instructional time to complete the intended learning outcomes; and monitoring and evaluation of the curriculum (MoEVT. TIE, 2009b, p. vii).

Analysis of the official or intended (2009) written MEd curriculum at TUMA reveals that the document contains more components than the soft copy (no date) of the MA(Ed) curriculum document at UDSM, as shown in Table 7.1, below.

Table 7.1 MA(Ed) and MEd curriculum components

TUMA MEd curriculum components	UDSM MA(Ed) curriculum components
• Introduction on short history of the university; • Rationale for the establishment of the programme; • Overall and specific objectives and the nature and structure of the programme; • Entry qualifications and terms of admission with programme requirements, marking system, dissertation requirements and deadlines; • Methods of instruction or instructional strategies; • Structure of the programme; • Description of the courses which include: - Course objectives, - Course description, - Course content i.e. topics, - Methods of instruction, - Student assessment. and - References.	• Programme goals; • Structure of the programme with dissertation time frame and assessment; • Evaluation modalities or instructional strategies; • Course synopsis; • Description of the courses which include: - Course description; - Aims and objectives and/or learning outcomes, - Course content i.e. modules, - Mode of delivery, - Evaluation, and - References.

Source: TUMA. MEd curriculum document (2009); UDSM. MA(Ed) curriculum document (n.d.)

Neither of the two documents mentions overall curriculum competences. There are learning outcomes or competences for some of the MA(Ed) courses but none for MEd courses (refer to Chapter Six, Section 6.4.2.2). Some components in both curricula are implicitly stated and some are not appropriate in terms of the level of the students and their professional practice (see detail in Sections 7.8 and 7.10). The following sections discuss each of these components in detail relative to their relevance to teacher educators' professional knowledge and practices, making reference to the literature reviewed, and using Bernstein's analytical tools.

7.4 Curriculum goals and objectives

A goal or a general objective, as the brain is for the human body, is the leading organ of the curriculum (Davies, 1976; see also Miller, 1987). Goals define the purpose of a curriculum in a less explicit statement that generally only makes sense in the broader context of programme events (ibid.). These statements need to be made clearer by being broken down into a series of

highly explicit and operational actions (Pratt, 1980). They have to be converted into specific objectives (Kelly, 2009), the activities that students will be able to perform in order to demonstrate their mastery of the curriculum content (Miller, 1987, Diamond, 2008). The design of each curriculum course, the selection of instructional strategies, and students' evaluation criteria will be aligned to these specific objective statements (Pratt, 1980, p. 85). The analysis of how these components speak to the achievement of the objectives form the focus in this chapter.

7.4.1 MEd goals, general and specific objectives

In this section, I present the curriculum goals and general objectives of the two MEd programmes.

The UDSM MA(Ed) goals are stated in three different sources as follows:

In the curriculum document:

> The ultimate goal of MA(Ed) is to help prospective tutors and trainers for Teacher training colleges, Adult Education programmes, Universities and other institutions of higher learning. The programme also seeks to train administrators, planners and researchers for the Ministry of Education and other institutions in Tanzania and elsewhere (UDSM. MA(Ed) curriculum document, n.d., p. 39).

In the website advertisement:

> This programme provides advanced general education training to working graduates in various fields of education ranging from arts, languages, science and humanities educational planning and management, curriculum and teaching.
>
> Goals:
> i. To raise the level of awareness on issues that face education, including curriculum, teaching and learning, management and administration, social, comparative and philosophical.
>
> ii. To develop the skills of understanding educational research reports as well as reviewing and critiquing education writings and research reports;
>
> iii. To develop the ability of designing, executing and writing educational research projects.

The statement that appears in the curriculum document is repeated in the 2016 postgraduate prospectus.

In the case of the MEd programme at TUMA, the university website only mentions the name of the programme, while some of the general and specific objectives of the programme are stated in the curriculum document and in the prospectus as follows:

> General objective of the MEd programme is to produce Master of Education graduates equipped with improved quality of professional skills who could be deployed in various fields of education. Graduates of the MEd degree programme would have opportunities in secondary schools as school heads, teacher training colleges as tutors, or college principals and in universities as assistant lecturers in relevant education courses (TUMA. MEd curriculum document, 2009, p. 2; TUMA. Prospectus, 2012/2015, p. 57)
>
> Specific objectives of the MEd programme are:
> 1. To enable students to broaden and deepen their professional knowledge and skills so that after completing the programme they should be conversant with current professional issues, be able to use research and observation findings in order to keep abreast with other emerging education issues.
> 2. To equip students with knowledge and theories, skills and tools of teaching and learning so that they should develop a philosophy of education for their advancement.
> 3. To train education experts in different areas of specialization to contribute towards reducing shortage of high level human resource in the education industry.
> 4. To equip the students with skills and knowledge to enable them to do research, plan, design and develop education curricula targeting different audiences and levels, to work as tutors of teachers' training colleges, assistant lecturers in education courses in universities and in other sub-sectors of the ministry of education and vocational training (TUMA. MEd curriculum document, 2009, pp. 2-3; TUMA Prospectus, 2012/2015, p. 58).

The following sections investigate the extent to which these MEd goals and objectives reflect the broader context of the programmes. I ask whether the specific objectives are clear and, using Bernstein's analytical language, investigate whether the courses conduce towards the achievement of the specialisation that the programme is intending to develop.

7.4.2 Classification of MEd goals and general objectives

Bernstein's classification concepts as explained in Chapter Four were used to categorise the goals of the MEd programmes. To recap the classification concepts: If curriculum goals and/or general objectives clearly describe the achievement expected of a graduate with the specialisation that the programme aims to develop, then these goals are not insulated from graduates' attainment and are weakly classified (C-). If the goals do not specifically articulate the achievement expected of graduates in the specialisation that the programme is intending to develop, then they are bounded goals that are not related to graduates' attainment and are strongly classified (C+).

In case of the MA(Ed) programme, the general goal stated in the programme advertisement is *strongly classified* (C+) since it is not clear what the programme is specifically intending to

develop. The goal is *more strongly classified* (C++) because it mentions "graduates in various fields of education", and actually mentions "arts, languages and science graduates" as targeted by the programme. However, the curriculum does not contain any arts or language or science courses (see detailed analysis of the MA(Ed) course content in Section 7.5). Thus, there is no possibility that graduates will be developed in the fields mentioned. This implies a lack of alignment between the advertised goals and the nature of the knowledge in the MA(Ed) programme. The stated goal gestures at developing specialists in subject areas but in reality the curriculum document does not. This might imply that the advertised goal may mislead the public as to the kind of graduates the programme develops.

In the case of the MEd programme at TUMA, the university website does not have an advertisement for the programme. Instead, it just mentions the name of the programme without curriculum details. And as revealed above, the curriculum document and the prospectus present the same general and specific objectives for the programme.

In both MA(Ed) and MEd curriculum documents, the goals point to the development of several kinds of graduates from various fields of education. These include tutors and trainers in teacher colleges, adult education programmes, assistant lecturers in universities and other institutions of higher learning, school heads, college principals, administrators, planners and researchers for the Ministry of Education and other institutions in Tanzania and elsewhere. These goals suggest *strongly classified* (C+) features by pointing out a number of types of graduate that these programmes intend to develop. In other words, the goals are not specific to the kind of graduates to be developed. In Sections 7.5 and 7.6, I analyse the structure and the nature of the knowledge in the MEd courses to understand if it is possible for the programmes to develop all the kinds of graduate mentioned in the stated goals.

Furthermore, the main goal in the MA(Ed) curriculum document does not indicate how the development of such a range of graduates is to be achieved. The goal may be viewed as having *more strongly classified* (C+) features. However, there are statements of specific objectives in both the MA(Ed) programme website advertisement and the MEd curriculum document, and the classification of these is discussed in the following section.

7.4.3 MEd specific objectives and the lack of means of achievement

The curriculum goals and general objectives refer to a number of specific capabilities such as, in case of the MA(Ed) programme: "to train prospective tutors and trainers for teacher colleges, Adult Education programmes, Universities and other institutions of higher learning". These capabilities are stated in general terms that require further, explicit definition, definition in which specific objectives are identified. What knowledge and skills will these future educational professionals be taught, and with what end in mind? Moreover, such specific objectives must be framed in a way that illuminates how the goals or general objectives will be achieved.

Whereas there are no specific objectives in the MA(Ed) curriculum document, the specific objectives in the MA(Ed) website advertisement do not explain how arts, language and science graduates will be developed. This is also the case for the MEd specific objectives. While the stated general goals of the MEd curriculum shows that the intention of the programme is to develop numerous specialisations, some of the specific objectives are very broad and do not specify how students will achieve them. For example, the specific objective "to enable students to broaden and deepen their professional knowledge and skills so that after completing the programme they should be conversant with current professional issues" is still a broad objective that does not specify the professional knowledge and skills of which specialisation.

Other specific objectives in the MEd curriculum document are good examples of achievable specific objectives. For example, it is possible to observe whether or not students have acquired research skills from the quality of their dissertations. This means that it is possible to assess the fourth specific objective: "to equip the students with skills and knowledge to enable them to do research". However, the link between the kinds of knowledge that the MEd research course encompasses and the quality of the dissertation that students would produce might be questioned. This is investigated further in Section 7.5.1.2.1.

7.4.4 Generative mechanisms underlying the selection of MEd goals and objectives

The historical situation of the country could be a mechanism shaping the nature of the goals and objectives of the MA(Ed) programme to develop several kinds of graduates.

> It [the MA(Ed) programme] was established to heighten the scholarly professional level and broaden the catchment area for would-be educational specialists, administrators,

> inspectors, curriculum developers and teachers, for the education sector in the country (Interview: D6).

When UDSM opened in 1961 after independence, very few personnel had university degrees. Different kinds of educational experts to work in the ministry and in its organisations were needed. The establishment of the MA(Ed) programme at UDSM in 1974, as the first master of education programme in Tanzania, may be seen as responding to this need.

In case of the MEd programme at TUMA, it has been revealed in Chapter Six that the programme was designed by lecturers from UDSM (Section 6.3.3.1). This was evidenced by the fact that the MEd programme has similar goals and objectives to those of the MA(Ed) programmes, as revealed in Sections 7.4.1 and 7.4.2, above. The similarity of the goals and objectives of the MEd to that of MA(Ed) was also evident from the responses of the TUMA administrators interviewed, who mentioned that several kinds of graduates were to be developed from the MEd programme, just as for the MA(Ed) programme:

> The MEd programme aim to produce graduates…who are capable to serve in many fields of the education sector… in secondary schools as school heads, teachers' training colleges as tutors, or college principals and in universities as assistant lecturers in relevant education courses (Interview: U5).

As evident from the extracts above, the county's need for experts in various education fields was the condition that influenced the kinds of goals that the MA(Ed) programme had when it was designed in 1974. Without further assessment of the country's current needs (refer to Chapter Six, Section 6.3.1), the same situation was held to obtain when the MEd goals were formulated in 2009. While the specific objectives of the programmes, as revealed in the section above, do not explain how all those different educational experts, lecturers and tutors are going to be developed, the inclusion of additional courses from different fields of education seemed to be a step in the direction of developing those specialisations.

7.4.5 Summary of the arguments

The last paragraph of the specific objectives included in the MEd curriculum document – "to equip the students…to work as [teacher educators] tutors in teacher training colleges [and] assistant lecturers of education courses in universities" – is a key part of the overall objective of this programme and also part of the main goal as formulated in the MA(Ed) programme. This

objective is the central concern of this study. It forms the core of the analysis and frames the overall investigation. The analysis in this chapter is guided by the question: do the MEd curriculum components, specifically the knowledge offered in the courses, enable or constrain the achievement of the goal of successfully teaching students to teach teachers?

What follows is an investigation into the relevance to teacher educators' professional practices of the knowledge embodied in the courses described in the MEd curriculum documents. I begin with a brief recap of how literature and Bernstein's theoretical concepts frame discussion of teacher educators' professional knowledge.

7.5 Teacher educators' esoteric knowledge

The literature reviewed in Chapter Three argues that although many teacher educators begin as school teachers and later become teacher educators in teacher colleges and higher education institutions, the teaching skills and knowledge associated with school teaching cannot be considered sufficient for the new role of being a teacher educator. Teacher educators require extended pedagogical skills as well as new professional knowledge and understanding about teacher education in their new workplace (Swennen et al., 2009). This consists of academic content knowledge (theoretical knowledge) and pedagogical knowledge. Academic content knowledge includes personal knowledge, contextual knowledge, sociological knowledge, social knowledge and knowledge of research (Murray & Male, 2005; Smith, 2005; Zeichner, 2005; Wilson, 2006; Iliško et al., 2011; Goodwin & Kosnik, 2013). Pedagogical knowledge is knowledge about what to teach and how best to teach it to students (Posner, 2004, p. 88). It includes courses on content knowledge, teaching methods, pedagogical content knowledge and curriculum design (Shulman, 1986, 1987; Tamir, 1988; van Driel & Berry, 2010; Goodwin & Kosnik, 2013).

As discussed in Chapter Four, Section 4.5.1.2, above, Bernstein calls such knowledge *esoteric knowledge* (Bernstein, 2000), the disciplinary body of knowledge associated with a particular profession (Muller, 2009; Hordern, 2016). The esoteric knowledge summarised in Table 7.2 may be construed as the knowledge base for professional teacher educators. It is specialised knowledge for teaching teachers and is the essential core in the programmes that prepare teacher educators (Smith, 2005; Zeichner, 2005; Goodwin & Kosnik, 2013). In other words, a

consideration of the role of teacher educators must be the foundation on which the knowledge and skills content of teacher educators' programmes is built.

Table 7-2 Teacher educator esoteric knowledge

Pedagogical knowledge: the 'how' of teacher educators	Academic content/theoretical knowledge of teaching: the 'what' of teacher educators
1. Teaching methods 2. Subject matter knowledge or the knowledge of content for teaching 3. Pedagogical content knowledge 4. Curriculum design	1. Personal knowledge 2. Contextual knowledge 3. Sociological knowledge 4. Social knowledge 5. Research knowledge

Source: Adapted from the work of Goodwin and Kosnik (2013, pp. 338-340); Murray and Male (2005); Zeichner (2005); Smith (2005); Wilson (2006).

7.5.1 MEd curricula course structure

This section examines the two MEd curriculum structures. The MA(Ed) curriculum at UDSM consists of 16 core and option (elective) courses and the TUMA MEd curriculum has a total of 20 core and option courses (Appendix D). Using the literature discussed in Chapter Three and in the section above, the courses in both MEd curricula can be categorised into two main groups, as seen in Table 7.2, above. The first group consists of courses that are part of the pedagogical knowledge for teacher educators. The second group consists of academic content knowledge courses. However, as will be revealed in Section 7.6, not all academic content knowledge courses that are listed in the second group are appropriate for teacher educators. I therefore categorised these academic content knowledge courses into three sub-groups, in line with the criteria that will be discussed in the analysis that follows (Tables 7.3 and 7.4).

Table 7.3 UDSM MA(Ed) curriculum courses

Pedagogical knowledge courses	Academic content knowledge courses		
	Academic content knowledge of teaching	**Individual specialised disciplinary or professionally-focused education courses**	**General courses in education (repetitive or non-essential for teacher educators)**
1. Curriculum and Teaching 2. Theories of Teaching and Learning 3. Advanced Curriculum Development	1. Research Methods in Education 2. Psychology of Child Development 3. Sociometrics and Microanalysis	1. Adult Learning 2. Youth and Sports Development 3. Economics and Marketing of Sports 4. Policy, Planning and Administration 5. Management of Educational Institutions and Projects 6. Educational Planning and Financing 7. Management and Financing Adult Education 8. Open and Distance Learning	1. Comparative Education

Source: UDSM. MA(Ed) curriculum document (n.d., p. 39)

The three sub-groups are academic content knowledge courses of teaching, which consists of theoretical knowledge for teacher educators; individual disciplinary education courses, which consist of professionally focused specialised knowledge; and courses of general educational interest.

Table 7.4 TUMA MEd curriculum courses

Pedagogical knowledge courses	Academic content knowledge courses		
	Academic content knowledge of teaching	**Individual specialised disciplinary or professionally-focused education courses**	**General courses in education (repetitive or non-essential for teacher educators)**
1. Curriculum Planning, Theory, Design and Development 2. Educational Psychology, Theories and Principle of Teaching and Learning 3. Instructional Technology in Education 4. Design and Development of Teaching Materials	1. Research Methodology 2. Psychology of Human Growth and Development 3. Test Construction, Measurement, Educational Statistics and Evaluation 4. Sociology of Education 5. Information Technology 6. Professional Ethics for Educators	1. Adult Education 2. Special Education 3. Economics of Education 4. Education Policy and Planning 5. Management of Education and School Administration 6. Environmental Education	1. Comparative Education 2. Contemporary Education Issues in East Africa 3. History and Philosophy of Education 4. Gender Development and Education

Source: TUMA. MEd curriculum document (2009, pp. 8-9)

In the sections that follow, I analyse and discuss the knowledge content of both MEd curricula as presented in the above tables, in relation to teacher educators' roles and professional practices, while providing details of how and why I have categorised the courses as I have.

7.5.1.1 Pedagogical knowledge

Analysis of the two MEd curricula reveals that both contain only curriculum design courses pertaining to pedagogical knowledge (first columns in Tables 7.3 and 7.4). According to the literature discussed in Chapter Three, pedagogical knowledge can be in relation to teaching at schools, i.e. school children, and it can be in relation to teaching student teachers (adults) how to teach school children. The literature discussed three further domains of pedagogical knowledge, besides curriculum design, that need to be included in preparation programmes for teacher educators (refer to Table 7.2, first column). These are subject matter knowledge, that is, knowledge of teaching subjects such as History, Geography or English; teaching methods or methodology; and pedagogical content knowledge that relates specifically to the 'how' of teaching student teachers (refer to Chapter Three, Section 3.8.2). There is no evidence in either of the MEd curriculum documents to suggest that these courses are included in the curricula.

7.5.1.1.1 Reported paucity of pedagogical knowledge in the MEd programmes

Some lecturers in and administrators of the MEd programmes expressed their concern about the insufficiency of pedagogical knowledge in these programmes and the impact of this on the quality and effectiveness of future teacher educators. An MA(Ed) lecturer lamented that:

> Yes, MA(Ed) was specifically for teachers [teacher educators]. However, if you look at it there is also a challenge. Because you admit a person who has undergraduate degree maybe in BEdA or BAEd, it means she or he was studying undergraduate degree for teaching, so when you take that person to study this master which does not have even one teaching subject you don't expect that person to go back and teach. What is she is going to teach? Is she going to teach what she learned in undergraduate? The programme doesn't have methodology, no teaching subjects (Interview: D1)

The lecturer (who is also an administrator) admitted that:

> When reviewers came to review programmes in School of Education they proposed to change the name MA(Ed) because the programme is no longer in social science and that there is no ARTS in the programme. They said, if we put Arts it means students have to study education courses and also study Arts subjects such as Geography or History that will be Master of Arts Education (Interview: D1).

In case of the MEd programme, an interviewee spotted the same situation:

> We have one [student] here who has been employed by the university as Tutorial Assistant. He studied this programme [MEd], now he is Assistant Lecturer. He talks about the programme, that it did not help him to become Assistant Lecturer. He teaches French not education courses (Interview: U1).

The literature revealed that beginning teacher educators were also aware of being under-prepared as teacher educators (Wood & Borg, 2010; Boyd & Harris, 2010; Khan, 2011; Trent, 2013). Research reveals that "the difficulties teacher educators encountered stood out in large part because they were teacher education problems" (Dinkelman et al., 2006, p. 125; see also Zeichner, 2005; Swennen & van der Klink, 2009; Berry, 2007). Teacher education involves comprehensive pedagogy. It encompasses pedagogical knowledge and the practice of teaching about teaching that requires much more than the simple delivery of information about teaching (Loughran, as cited in Loughran, 2014). Teacher educators who receive less pedagogical knowledge with their training admitted to having greater difficulties in developing student teachers' learning (Korthagen et al., 2005; Kane, 2007; Kosnik, 2007; Murray et al., 2009). They need more practical teaching knowledge to be able to demonstrate and model different teaching strategies to prospective school teachers. This implies that the shortage of pedagogical knowledge noted in both MEd curricula may adversely affect the development of quality and effective teacher educators.

7.5.1.1.2 Generative mechanisms underlying MEd pedagogical knowledge insufficiency

Chapter Four, Section 4.3.2.2 discusses how mechanisms at the *real* level possess powers that cause events and experiences at the *empirical* and the *actual* levels. A mechanism that could possibly influence the design and selection of courses for both MEd curricula, particularly the selection of the pedagogical knowledge, is the *entry requirement* for these programmes. The requirement in terms of the MA(Ed) at UDSM was explained in this way:

> …the way we recruit the students taking MA(Ed) we target students who already have education background in their first degree. And if they don't they must have done Postgraduate Diploma in Education (Interview: D2).

The same entry requirement applies to admission to the MEd programme at TUMA. The MEd curriculum also requires applicants to have an undergraduate education degree. The curriculum document states that:

> The MEd degree programme is open to applicants with relevant background disciplines and inclined to teaching as a profession… with a Bachelor degree…in the area of education (TUMA. MEd curriculum document, 2009, p. 5).

This requirement might be a mechanism justifying the decision to include only a small component of pedagogical knowledge in these programmes. To put it another way, this requirement could be the mechanism that gave rise to the absence of most pedagogical courses in the MEd programmes. That is, applicants who have studied education in their bachelor's degree are assumed to have already acquired teacher education pedagogical knowledge and hence do not require any more.

Section 4.3.2.2 also discussed how mechanisms may combine and generate the fluctuations of events and experiences that constitute the actual states and happenings in the process of designing university programmes. In this case, the *entry requirement* mechanism of admitting only those who had studied education in their undergraduate years may have been based on the assumption that *the pedagogical knowledge of teaching school children that they learned in their first education degree will be transformed into the pedagogy of teaching teachers*. The programme designers, lecturers and administrators assumed that *if pedagogical knowledge of teaching school children made them good school teachers, then automatically that same pedagogical knowledge is going make them good teacher educators*:

> The candidates joining the [MA(Ed)] programme have been taking, and been demanded to have taken education in their undergraduate programme or else in their Postgraduate Diploma in Education [PGDE] programme. It was thus a natural expectation that upon graduating from a higher programme in academic cum-professional education, the participants and eventual graduates of the MA(Ed) course programme would be even better teachers and, even more, better teacher educators (Interview: D6).

The *entry qualification* mechanism together with these assumptions might have combined to generate a process of designing MEd programmes with too few pedagogical courses.

Another mechanism that could have contributed to insufficient pedagogical knowledge being included in the MEd curricula is *the arrangement of core and optional courses*. Two pedagogical knowledge courses in UDSM's MA(Ed) curriculum, Theories of Teaching and Learning and Advanced Curriculum Development, and one course in TUMA's MEd curriculum, Design and Development of Teaching Materials, are in the list of optional courses. It is thus not possible for students to study all the pedagogical knowledge courses in these programmes. (Tables D.1 and D.2 in Appendix D display the MEd core and optional courses.)

7.5.1.2 Academic content knowledge of teaching

Analysis of the MEd curricula revealed that these programmes lack an important component of academic content knowledge of teaching for teacher educators. In case of the MA(Ed) curriculum, the first sub-group of the second column in Table 7.3 shows what is found in terms of teacher educators' academic content knowledge. In terms of the literature discussed in Chapter Three, Section 3.8.1, this programme has only one contextual course, Psychology of Child Development, and a research course. In case of the MEd programme, its curriculum contains one research course, a course in contextual knowledge, Psychology of Human Growth and Development, a Sociology of Education course and Professional Ethics for Educators, as shown in the first sub-group of the second column in Table 7.4.

I have also listed the Sociometrics and Microanalysis course in the MA(Ed) curriculum and two MEd courses, Test Construction and Measurement, Educational Statistics and Evaluation; and Information Technology, as part of the academic content knowledge of teaching for teacher educators. The reason for including the Sociometrics and Microanalysis course and the Test Construction etc. courses is because the functions of teacher educators discussed in Chapter Three, Section 3.3.3.1, include assessing student teachers' learning (Smith, 2005), knowledge about which is to be found in these two courses. Similarly, engagement in research and lifelong learning, and the building of new knowledge and practices of teaching (Kosnik, 2007; Lunenberg & Hamilton, 2008) demand that teacher educators have an understanding of basic computer skills (Anangisye, 2008). Many students enrolled in the MEd programmes in Tanzania are not competent in this area (ibid.). Hence the Information Technology course assumes importance for future teacher educators.

7.5.1.2.1 Academic content knowledge insufficiency and quality of teacher educators

In addition to the absence of a large component of the academic content knowledge of teaching for teacher educators, the analysis of both MEd programmes exposes two concerns regarding those few courses that are included in the curricula. The first concern is that of the relevance of the content of these courses to teacher educators' professional knowledge and practice. Some of these courses have a title that seems to relate to the academic content knowledge needed by teacher educators, but the topics and modules of the courses are not significant in developing quality professional practice for teacher educators. I will start by analysing the content of two contextual courses; Psychology of Child Development and Psychology of Human Growth and Development.

According to the literature, the contextual courses for teacher educators are supposed to convey knowledge about school and classroom physical environments, and the notion of self-knowledge among student teachers, including who they are as adult learners and their perceptions of teaching (Goodwin & Kosnik, 2013). Analysis revealed that the course Psychology of Human Growth and Development in the MEd curriculum aims to equip students with some knowledge of human growth and development at various stages of life, and the course Psychology of Child Development in the MA(Ed) curriculum (as the name suggests) involves mainly knowledge and theories of child development. The excerpt below shows the full coverage of modules of the Psychology of Child Development course in the MA(Ed) programme:

Table 7.5 Psychology of Child Development course content

MODULE 1: Foundations of human development	**MODULE 2: Theories of child development**	**MODULE 3: Characteristics of developmental theories**	**MODULE 4: Approaching issues in child development**	**MODULE 5: Early childhood stimulation in family and community**
1.1 Definition of development 1.2 Evolution and rationale for child study 1.3 Context for child development	2.1 Psychoanalytic theory 2.2 Behaviourist 2.3 Cognitive 2.4 Humanistic 2.5 Information Processing	3.1 Basic assumptions – normality and abnormal development 3.2 Principles 3.3 Similarities 3.4 Differences 3.5 Strengths and weaknesses	4.1 The cross sectional approach 4.2 The longitudinal approach	

Source: UDSM. MA(Ed) curriculum (n.d., pp. 61-62)

Further investigation revealed that although the specific aim of the Psychology of Human Growth and Development course is to equip students with knowledge of various theories that relate to the process of learning from early childhood to adulthood, its topics do not focus specifically on relating this to young adult students. The emphasis should be on student psycho-social development, and the application of theory, examples and practice should be on learning and teaching (see the course contents below):

Psychology of Human Growth and Development course contents:

1. Differences between nature and nurture. Psychoanalytic theories of Freud and Erickson. Behavioural theories of Pavlov and Skinner relating to concept formation. Cognitive theories of Piaget and Vygotsky, and humanistic theories of Maslow's hierarchy of needs and Rogers which are humanistic. Identify genetic and chromosomal abnormalities during pre-natal development.
2. Various stages of growth of infants and toddlers, sensory development, motor skills sensorimotor intelligence and language development. Causes for emotional development, personality, parent-infant interaction. Early stages of pre-schoolers, brain maturing, mastering motor skills, pre-operational thought and language development.
3. Early childhood theories, aggression, gender roles and stereotyping. Observable characteristics of pre-adolescence; motor skills, learning disabilities, concreate operational thoughts, information processing perspective, language and family structure, and stress.
4. Age of developing self-assertion, adolescence, sexual maturation, timing of puberty, formula operations, egocentrism, moral development and social problems. Period of self-identification, early adulthood and age related changes, cognitive and psychosocial development.
5. Middle adulthood, biosocial and cognitive development, mid-life, crisis, family dynamics and personality throughout adulthood. Late adulthood, the aging process, brain changes in information processing and theories relating to psychosocial aging.

   (TUMA. MEd curriculum document, 2009, pp. 51-52)

Nevertheless, the learning, teaching and development of children and adults is an important fundamental that teacher educators may need to teach student teachers. Hence, they (teacher educators) need to have a sound knowledge of this content to ensure that they have appropriate teaching content knowledge.

The other course with a name that directly focuses on teacher educators, although some of its content is not relevant to their professional practice, is the Professional Ethics for Educators, which is found in the TUMA. MEd curriculum document. While the course has the relevant objective of offering knowledge on ethical issues relating to education provision, one of its topics is inappropriate and problematic because it apparently does not recognise the diversity of a multi-faith country (see the second topic in the excerpt below).

Professional Ethics for Educators course content:

1. Meaning of ethics and how it relates to education. Ethical problems resulting from social, political and economic changes. Fundamental moral principles in the context of the work of educators.
2. Foundations of Christian moral principles. Analysis of case studies about current ethical problems.
3. Professional moral principles of education. Educators' application of the knowledge of moral principles and the way forward.

(TUMA. MEd curriculum document, 2009, p. 23)

TCU regulations prohibit any kind of religious education in non-religious programmes, regardless of the nature of the university institution (TCU, 2009). Likewise, in its effort to abolish religious discrimination, the Tanzanian Philosophy of Education emphasises religion-free education at all levels, even if the institution is religiously inclined (URT. MoEC, 1995). Since the MEd programme is offered to students of different religions, restricting a topic to one religion is not in line with national policy and university regulations.

A second concern is about the adequacy of the knowledge in these courses for teacher educators. Taking the example of the research courses in both programmes, while teacher educators' functions include supervision of student teachers (Kane, 2007; Wilson, 2006; Murray et al., 2009; Patrizio et al., 2011), this topic is not included in either course. Some lecturers expressed their concern on this issue, especially in respect of the professional competence of the teacher educators: "we don't even have a topic on supervision, and really those who are going to teach and supervise are in disadvantage on this" (Interview: D1).

Similarly, one of the objectives of the course Research Methods in Education in the UDSM MA(Ed) curriculum is to enable students "to acquire basic knowledge of theoretical frameworks for undertaking educational research" (UDSM. MA(Ed) curriculum document, n.d., p. 45). The content of the module that represents this objective indicates that *ontological and epistemological assumptions* comprise one of the topics that students are to learn:

Research Methods in Education

Module 1: The nature of scientific enquiry and educational research

1.1 Sources of knowledge
1.2 The nature and purpose of educational research
1.3 Ontological and epistemological assumptions
1.4 Research approaches/strategies in educational research

(UDSM. MA(Ed) curriculum, n.d., p. 46)

As indicated in Chapter Six, Section 6.5.2.2.7, this Research Methods course is a core course for all students doing a master's degree in UDSM School of Education (refer to Chapter Six, Section 6.6.1.1 for the list of master's programmes). My own personal experience of being a student in one of those programmes and never having been taught the topic motivated me to find out whether or not it was actually being taught in this research course. I analysed over 20 dissertations of MA(Ed) students who graduated in different years, together with a few dissertations of students who did other master's programmes, to find out if they engaged in their research with ontological and epistemological assumptions. The analysis revealed no theoretical framework chapters, sections, or even paragraphs on ontological and epistemological assumptions in those dissertations.

An analysis of the Research Methodology course in the TUMA MEd curriculum reveals gaps in the content. There is, for example, no evidence of ontological and epistemological perspectives, supervision, interpretation of research results, research ethics, referencing or mixed methods research, among the topics being taught in the course. The list of topics appears below:

Research Methodology course contents

1. Formulation of the research problem. Aspects of a researchable problem. Statement of the problem. Matching the research with the actual research problem. Limitation for research.
2. Literature review/library survey.
3. Quantitative and qualitative research. Primary and secondary sources and how to find them. How to cite sources and aspects of reliability. Aspects of unreliability. How to increase reliability and validity. Aspects of invalidity and how to establish validity.
4. Sampling. Target population and sample size. Sources of bias. Random sampling. Stratified sampling. Data collection and computer skill application. Tests and standardisation. Research instruments survey/questionnaires. Interviews. Observation. Precautions in designing a research proposal. Research design. Internal; validity, writing the research proposal. Data analysis using computer to facilitate research work.
5. External validity. Methods of evaluating educational research and the research problem. Reliability and assessing the internal and external validity. The research project.
6. Carrying out the research proposal. Writing the report.

(TUMA. MEd curriculum document, 2009, pp. 17-18)

To corroborate my finding that the Research Methodology course in the TUMA MEd curriculum has gaps in its content and in order to understand how this affects the quality of research undertaken by the students, I analysed the research methodology sections of 16 dissertations. The excerpt below is the content of the three sections of the methodology chapter in one of the 16 dissertations:

> **CHAPTER III**
> 3.0 Research methodologies
> This chapter presents different methods used in this study. It involves the area of the study, population sample data collection techniques and the data analysis procedure.
>
> 3.1 Area of the study
> The study was carried out in Arumeru District in Arusha region. Three secondary schools were involved namely Unambwe secondary school, Tengeru Secondary School [*sic*]. Table 1 below clarifies in detail.
> Table 1: school samples
> …
> 3.4, Data Analysis [*sic*]
> Qualitative analysis's [sic] was mainly used to analyse the data. The nature of the study convinces the researches [*sic*] to analyse data qualitatively, through clarification through quantitative through clarification through quantitative techniques [*sic*] have also been applied [*sic*].

The Research Methodology sections of most of the dissertations analysed were similar to the excerpt above. Furthermore, students' use of references to support their claims, in-text referencing, and reference list entries were noted as problematic in those dissertations. Many dissertations analysed have less than 25 references, chains of claims in the texts were unsubstantiated, and reference lists seem to follow no specific style (see Appendix E). This suggests that the gaps and inadequacies in the Research Methodology course result in students' research projects being weak in terms of research methodology and research conventions, including referencing and the ability to substantiate claims made when developing an argument. The extent to which this situation reflects poor supervision skills and research methods knowledge on the part of the lecturers, needs further investigation.

Insufficiency of academic content knowledge for teacher educators was also remarked in the Information Technology course in the MEd programme. One of the objectives of the course is to help students to acquire computer skills for their research. However, the course content shown in the excerpt below involves simple information about computers for beginners, and only the most basic computer literacy. If it is the case that the students are not computer literate, then of course they need to start with the basics. The issue is that the course seems to stop at the basics, as seen in the excerpt below, which is unlikely to enhance a student's computer-based research skills:

Information Technology course content:

1. Introduction to computer. Basic computer terminologies and closing and opening the computer. Various components of a computer and their functions. The keyboards and the mouse. Microsoft word and Excel spreadsheet.
2. Introduction to typing e-mail and printing. Accessing internet. Preparing short reports and downloading information from internet. Internet search tools.
3. Application of the tools and knowledge of what precautions to take. Getting out of the website. Creating reports using Report Wizards.

(TUMA. MEd curriculum document, 2009, p. 58)

In the case of the UDSM MA(Ed) programme, despite the fact that administrators and lecturers recognise that their master students are not computer literate (refer to Chapter Six, Section 6.5.2.2.7), no Information Technology course is included in the MA(Ed) curriculum. This situation, as suggested by Anangisye (2008), denies students the opportunity to learn about new aspects of teacher education, and inhibits access to international teacher education issues and current research knowledge, skills and conventions, including the use of search engines and the dangers of plagiarism.

7.5.1.2.2 Generative mechanisms underlying academic content knowledge insufficiency and the quality of teacher educators

It was revealed during the data collection that three aspects of the process of MEd curriculum design could be the structural mechanisms constraining the adequacy of the academic content knowledge courses. These are *time*, *the size/amount of content* that needs to be covered, and *the arrangement of core and optional courses.* Starting with the first two mechanisms, *time* and *the amount of the content*, taking the MA(Ed) course Research Methods in Education, a lecturer in the qualitative part of this course complained that:

> …for me in all these years I have been teaching this course the problem is time, time is a challenge. Students at the end of the course they do the mini research but even that mini research they come back to you they want to be assisted they struggle too much. Time is not enough; we don't have enough time for teaching (Interview: D1).

I asked how time had become a constraining factor in a programme like MA(Ed), which has only four core and two options courses, and the lecturer's response was:

> It is dense. It is *very* dense to the extent that we reach a point that we proposed, I don't know if they will work on that… like for example now they are telling us to increase

> courses [in the MA(Ed) programme]. Me on my own view I told coordinator that instead of increasing courses we could split this Research Methodology to make it two different courses, qualitative and quantitative, *two different courses.* We agreed instead… because if you leave this course as it is the course is too big. At the end students do not understand the course because you find yourself rushing to finish the course, just running from one topic to another because time is not enough… things [topics] are tightly packed they [students] have to learn quantitative there and qualitative here plus they have other courses also (Interview: D1).

The lecturer in the quantitative part of the MA(Ed) Research Methods in Education course also complained about *time* and *the amount of the content* in respect of the course:

> Not just after they become Assistant Lecturers, even now when they finish their course work and come for supervision for their dissertations you could also see that there should have been more time for the research, especially on the process of doing the research on each of the aspect in the research. For example, how should you formulate the problem that is a big topic it should have a lot of time to do it instead of being taught maybe within half an hour you finish the topic… I think there is a… it should have been more time for the course, they are opting also other courses, everywhere they have their options and so on (Interview: D3).

The two structural mechanisms, as revealed in the responses above, have combined to constrain the development of quality teacher graduates/researchers, as confirmed in the following response:

> …when they start writing the dissertation they do it in stages, they first write the proposals and then present it, when they present the proposal sometimes I have to ask them 'were you in the class when I was teaching?' 'Did you really understand when I was teaching?' I ask this because you see what they have done is *completely different* from what you taught… Some go and rewrite it [proposal]. Some, for example, now down there [pointing to the conference room down stairs] students are presenting their dissertations ready for submission for external examination, but still some students are told to go back to the field, write the dissertation and come back to present again, so, we have such cases (Interview: D1).

To interpret this response is to straddle two issues. The first is the constraining mechanisms of *time* and of *the amount of the content* of the course. The second is about learning theory and the psychology of the individual that most students need to grapple with any work for a period of time before they master it, and that making mistakes is a necessary and useful part of the learning process. Of course, this interpretation indirectly supports the constraining nature of the *time* available and *the amount of the content* to be covered.

The third mechanism is *the arrangement of core and optional courses*. Similar to pedagogic knowledge, the adequacy of academic content knowledge about teaching is affected by the arrangement of courses in both MEd programmes. While there are a few academic content knowledge courses about teaching for teacher educators in both programmes, some of these are in the list of optional courses. It is thus not possible for students to study all of them (see Tables D.1 and D.2 in Appendix D). In the case of the MA(Ed) programme, which has only three academic content knowledge courses about teaching for teacher educators, two of them, Psychology of Child Development and Sociometrics and Microanalysis, are in the list of optional courses. In the MEd programme, two out of the six academic content knowledge courses for teacher educators, Information Technology and Professional Ethics for Educators, are optional courses. This structural mechanism of designating academic content knowledge courses of teaching for teacher educators as optional deprives those students who do not elect them of essential teaching knowledge. This effectively increases the inadequacy of students' academic content knowledge and thus retards the development of quality teacher educators.

7.5.2 Generative mechanism exacerbates TUMA MEd knowledge insufficiency

The issue of *part-time lecturing* on the MEd courses at TUMA (refer to Chapter Six, Section 6.5.2.2.5) further accentuates the role of time as a possible mechanism affecting efficient delivery and hence the adequacy of the course content for both pedagogy and academic content knowledge courses. As one of the part-time lecturers remarked:

> For efficient teaching and learning, private university institutions should not depend on part-time lecturers. For instance, myself, I used to go to TUMA to teach one course for only two weeks from 8:00am to 5:00pm which means there was limited time for instruction and little or no time for student to interact with the lecturer (Interview: U4).

The excerpt above indicates the limitations imposed on part-time lecturers by the period allocated for their intensive spells of teaching. Universities in Tanzania operate in semesters and the duration of one semester is 16 weeks. If the lecturer teaches for as much as 8 hours a day, two weeks at this pace would mean 80 hours. This is the equivalent of an hour a day for 16 weeks. However, this high intensity teaching over two weeks probably means more time has been allocated to lectures rather than other lesson engagements. Less time is available for

students to absorb, read and prepare for assignments and tests within these two weeks, because the lecturer admitted that he used the same two weeks to assess the students.

> If I have taught for 1 week then I have a test to cover what I have been teaching. At the end of the second week, I have a test to cover what I have taught at the end of second week, and then in the final examination I put questions from first week and second week or first part and the second part of the course. Then I also mark group presentations (Interview: U4).

This quotation illustrates that there is insufficient time for deep engagement with and critical reflection on the topics being learned. The course is compromised by the way it is delivered – in intense blocks of teaching – because part-time lecturers are employed to teach it.

7.5.3 Argument discussion

The argument that is made in the foregoing analysis is that a MEd curriculum which is expected to develop quality teacher educators is supposed to be shaped to a significant extent by knowledge of the field of practice of that profession. A number of studies have revealed the power of knowledge in shaping a profession (Schiro; 2008; Wheelahan, 2010; Young & Muller, 2014; Hordern, 2016). The literature concurs that the main criterion of knowledge for professional preparation in a higher education institution is no longer "is it true?" but "what use is it?" to the profession (Lyotard, as quoted by Barnett et al., 2001, p. 436). Master's degrees for teacher educators ought primarily to be responsive to the needs of the field that the students are entering.

7.6 Mundane knowledge

The role of teacher educators, as described above, is to teach student teachers how to teach. This is the point that differentiates teacher educators' academic content knowledge from other education disciplines and general education knowledge. The teacher educators need the knowledge and skills to enable them to teach educational skills to school teachers.

Bernstein (2000) talks of context-dependent knowledge that does not unite anything other than itself. He calls this *mundane knowledge* (p. 29). It is characterised as the knowledge that is difficult to change beyond the context in which it is enacted (Wheelahan, 2007). This is because it lacks the power to relate outside of its context, for the reason that – except when the structures

of context and relations are similar (Wheelahan, 2007) – it is totally consumed by that context (Bernstein, 2000, p. 30).

The second sub-group in the second column in Tables 7.3 and 7.4 lists the MA(Ed) and the MEd individual specialised disciplinary or professionally-focused education courses. The third sub-group in the second column in the Tables 7.3 and 7.4 lists the MA(Ed) and the MEd general education courses. Both the individual disciplinary and general education courses may be viewed as *mundane knowledge* in terms of teacher educators' professionalism. This is because they have a weak relationship to the teacher educator's professional knowledge, the knowledge in these courses being consumed by individual education disciplines. They have tenuous relations with the teacher education professional context where the emphasis is on teaching school teachers how to teach. Detailed discussion of this follows in Section 7.6.3.

In the sections that follow, I present in detail the structure of the MEd individual disciplinary and general education courses, and applying Bernstein's classification to these courses and their knowledge to understand the extent to which they and their mundane knowledge relate to the professional knowledge and practice of teacher educators.

7.6.1 Mundane knowledge in MEd individual disciplinary courses

The second sub-group in the second column in Tables 7.3 and 7.4 lists the MA(Ed) and the MEd individual specialised disciplinary or professionally-focused education courses. The MA(Ed) curriculum has eight individual specialised disciplinary courses. One of these courses is a core course, the remaining seven are optional. The MEd curriculum has six individual specialised disciplinary courses, two of which are core courses and four are optional. These courses, as stated above, consist of mundane knowledge. According to the programme goals (refer to Section 7.4) and the responses from the participants (see Section 7.6.4), these courses have been included in the programmes to cater for the multiple education specialisations that the programmes aim to deliver. The impact of mundane knowledge on MEd specialisation is further discussed in Section 7.7.

7.6.1.1 Classification of individual disciplinary mundane knowledge courses

Bernstein's classification concepts discussed in Chapter Four, Section 4.5.2.1.1, provide an external language to describe the relationship between topics in different courses. In these terms, topics or modules are weakly classified if they relate to the professional knowledge and practice of teacher educators. They are strongly classified if their focus is on the individual course specialisation; and more strongly classified if they are not directly related to any of the specialisations that the MEd programmes intend to achieve (refer also to Chapter Five, Section 5.8.2.1).

The individual disciplinary education courses in the MA(Ed) programme include the management courses, Policy, Planning and Administration, Management of Educational Institutions and Projects, and Educational Planning and Financing. As their course outlines state, these courses are "intended for postgraduate students in the area of educational management and administration" (UDSM. MA(Ed) curriculum document, n.d., p. 42). The same applies to the TUMA MEd programme. It offers two management courses, Management of Education and School Administration and Education Policy and Planning. Their content knowledge, which include topics and modules such as *the managerial schools of thought*, *processes and task in educational administration*, and *revenue for education*, have limited applicability to the roles and functions of teacher educators as described in the literature (refer to Chapter Four, Sections 3.3.3 and 3.3.3.1). They are therefore *strongly classified* (C+) courses because of their strongly classified topics.

Adult Learning in the MA(Ed) and Adult Education in the MEd programme are also individual disciplinary courses, aimed at developing educators to teach youths and adults who did not receive education at a school-going age. As was the case with the management courses discussed above, the topics and modules in these courses, for instance, *teaching adult communities, policies on adult learning*, and *evaluation of adult communities*, have limited applicability to the MEd programmes for teacher educators. This also applies to the Youth and Sports Development course in the MA(Ed) programme, a physical education course. It aims to develop, among other things, psychology and sport management for athletes, coaches, officials and sport administrators. This means that it also limited application in the context of MEd programmes for teacher educators. There is thus evidence from the structure of the MEd and the MA(Ed) that the

individual disciplinary courses consist of strongly classified knowledge (C+). They contain *mundane knowledge* that has limited relations to the teacher educator's roles and functions, for the reason that the knowledge is consumed by those individual specialised education disciplines. That is to say, these courses are what Bernstein describes as *strongly classified courses* (C+). They focus mainly inwards towards their professional specialisations and less on developing teacher educators' professional knowledge and practice. Table 7.6, below, provides a summary of the MEd classification of individual disciplinary education courses.

Table 7.6 Classification of individual disciplinary courses

Classification of the MEd individual disciplinary courses	**Classification categorisations**
Mundane knowledge of the topics and modules in the individual disciplinary courses are strongly bound to the specific discipline and each focuses on developing its course specialisation with limited applicability in relation to the roles and functions of teacher educator – *strongly classified knowledge*	C+
Individual disciplinary courses have limited relation to teacher education professional knowledge and practice, because each is focusing on developing its own specialisation – *strongly classified courses*	C+

The limited applicability of the mundane knowledge in the MEd programmes for teacher educators is further discussed in Section 7.6.3.

7.6.2 Mundane knowledge in MEd general education courses

As stated in Section 7.6, the third sub-group in the second column of Tables 7.3 and 7.4 displays the MA(Ed) and the MEd general education courses. There are four general education courses in the MEd curriculum, two of which are core courses and two are optional. There is one general education course in the MA(Ed) curriculum, and that is a core course. These courses are intended to address general issues in education rather than develop specialists.

7.6.2.1 Classification of general education mundane knowledge courses

Similar to the individual disciplinary courses, the general education courses in the MEd programmes, like Comparative Education and Gender Development and Education, have *strongly classified* (C+) *mundane knowledge* because of their limited applicability to the roles and functions of teacher educators. The excerpt below adumbrates the course content of Gender Development and Education:

Gender Development and Education course content

1. Aim and objective of the course. Conceptual understanding of gender, development and education. Examine the complex meaning of gender from social, psychological and cultural characteristics perspective. Gender in development. Relationship between gender, education and development. Historical development of gender movements in developed and developing countries.
2. Gender and equity in education. Equity in education policy. Gender and equity in Tanzania's "Education and Training Policy". Gender difference in educational experiences.
3. Sex roles in early childhood education. Women and teaching. Gender issue in higher education and adult education.

(TUMA. MEd curriculum document, 2009, pp. 56-57)

The difference between these courses and the individual disciplinary courses is that while the later relate to their disciplines, the mundane knowledge in general education courses is not directly related to any of the specialisations that the MEd programmes claim to be serving (see Section 7.4.1). This implies that these courses are *more strongly classified* (C++). A summary of the classification of MEd general education courses is given in the Table 7.7, below.

Table 7-7 Classification of general education courses

Classification of the MEd general education courses	Classification categorisations
Mundane knowledge of the topics and modules of the general education courses has limited applicability to the roles and functions of teacher educators – *strongly classified knowledge*	C+
General education courses have limited applicability to the roles and functions of teacher educators and have no direct relation to any specialities – *more strongly classified courses*	C++

7.6.2.2 Accumulation and repetition of general education courses and their topics

The analysis of the general education courses in the TUMA MEd revealed a high level of repetition of topics included in the bachelor of education degree, for example, in the History and Philosophy of Education course. This course contains topics such as the meaning of philosophy and studies of philosophers like Plato and Aristotle (see the excerpt below), which feature in the bachelor of education curricula.

History and Philosophy of Education course content:

1. Meaning of philosophy and its relevance to education. The history of education. Its evolution, education in ancient Africa and Asia. Philosophy in ancient Greece and period of idealism. Study philosophers like Plato, and Kant. Aristotle and Aquinas and the period of realism.

2. Rousseau, Darwin and the period of pragmatism in 18th and 19th centuries. Dewey, Montessori and Ghandi and continuation of the period of pragmatism in the 20th century. The period 18th century to existentialism and philosophers of the time. Kierkegaard and Sartre. Different philosophical reasons and concepts that underlie school practice.
3. History of education in East Africa starting from Pre-colonial period, colonial period, missionary education and how Africans reacted to it. Contemporary education in East Africa and after independence. Tanzania Education system.

(TUMA. MEd curriculum document, 2009, pp. 25-26)

The following excerpt shows the course content of the course Philosophy of Education in the curriculum of a Bachelor of Science in Education degree:

Bachelor of Science in Education curriculum

701 ED 51: Philosophy of Education
Course content
UNIT 1: Concepts of Philosophy
Philosophy - definition –history - types; Idealism, Realism, Naturalism, Essentialism, Existentialism – their implication to Education. Relationship between Philosophy and Education – Epistemology, Logic, Metaphysics, Ethics and Aesthetics. Inductive reasoning and Deductive reasoning. Philosophy for children (programme, competition and publication). Philosophy of learning (child learning). Theology and Philosophy.

UNIT II: Philosophy of Education
Educational Philosophy–Problems in delineation-Nature and Scope- Normative Educational Philosophy; Analytical Philosophy; Social Reconstructionism; Democratic Education; Rationalism; Progressivism; Modernism; Post Modernism. Content of Curriculum and Philosophy.

UNIT III: Philosophical Thoughts on Education
Philosophy on Education by: Plato; Socrates; John Dewey; Jean Jacques Rousseau; Isaac Newton; Max Muller; Swamy Vivekananda; Peter K. Machamer; Bertrand Russel; Horace Mann; John Rensenbrink; Dr. Samuel Johnson; John Millar.

UNIT IV: Philosophical Schools on Education
Utopia; Traditionalism; Dalton School; Discipline Based Education; Maria Montessori; Froebel; Avery Conley School; Fudan International School; Art Education; Unification Church; Public Education; WISDOM; DIGITAL School.

UNIT V: Regional Philosophies
Western Philosophies; Chinese Philosophy; African Philosophy; Ethiopian Philosophy; Tanzanian philosophy: Nyerere's Philosophy; Ujamaa-Self-reliance-Youth Pitfalls and Prospects; Jomo Kenyatta Philosophy.
(SJUT. Bachelor of Science in Education curriculum document, 2015, pp. 37-38)

There is evidence of significant repetition between this MEd course and similar courses in the bachelor of education degree, which is a concern that needs to be addressed. Appendix F

contains more course content of the course History and Philosophy of Education from a number of different bachelor of education degrees which are similar to the course content of the History and Philosophy of Education course of the MEd curriculum.

Furthermore, the MEd History and Philosophy of Education course contains a topic titled Contemporary Education in East Africa, which is also repeated in another general education course called Contemporary Education Issues in East Africa. The repetition is unnecessary and impacts negatively on time that could be put to more appropriate use in the MEd programme.

The repetition of topics in general education courses in the TUMA MEd programme also occurs with the Comparative Education and Contemporary Education Issues in East Africa courses. The Comparative Education course contains topics that are also taught in the Contemporary Education Issues in East Africa course. The Comparative Education course has topics on the similarities and differences between education systems in various countries of the world, as well as within East Africa. It discusses the advantages and disadvantages of education systems in relation of the context of East Africa and Tanzania in particular (TUMA. MEd curriculum document, 2009, p. 14). Contemporary Education Issues in East Africa is also a course that is concerned with education systems in Kenya, Uganda and Tanzania, comparing their quality of education, quality of curriculum, teachers and other factors (pp. 48-49).

While the MA(Ed) programme contains only one general education course, Comparative Education, this is also taught in the bachelor of education degree. The content of the MA(Ed) Comparative Education course, as explained by its lecturer in the course analysis article, is not very different from that taught in the bachelor's degree (Anangisye, 2008, p. 308). The lecturer also declares that there are several challenges concerning the course, including the appropriateness of its content for master's students (p. 310). This suggests that the MA(Ed) Comparative Education course is another exercise in repetition, similar to the History and Philosophy of Education in the MEd programme.

Having discussed the MEd individual disciplinary and general education courses, I now discuss the influence that these courses have on the regionalisation of knowledge into regions for teacher educator professional practice.

7.6.3 MEd regionalisation of teacher educators' professional field of practice

In Chapter Four, Section 4.5.2.1.2, I discussed two of Bernstein's classification concepts: *singular* and *region*. According to Bernstein, singulars are disciplines with strong classification, producing a discourse that is only about themselves (Bernstein, 2000). They are protected by strong boundaries and orientated to their own specialisations. A region, on the other hand, is created by recontextualising appropriate singulars into the knowledge specific to a particular professional practice (see also Muller, 2009).

In terms of the regionalisation of knowledge in the MEd programmes for teacher educators, adequate and appropriate *esoteric knowledge* for teacher educators is needed. In the MEd curriculum, a student is required to take a total of 14 courses, eleven core and three option courses. For the MA (Ed) curriculum, a student is required to take six courses, four core and two optional courses. The *esoteric knowledge* for teacher educators in both MEd curricula is composed of a few courses on pedagogical knowledge and academic content knowledge of teaching, some of which have insufficient or inappropriate content for teacher educators – as discussed in sections 7.5.1.1, 7.5.1.2 and 7.5.1.2.1. Besides being few in number, it was also revealed in sections 7.5.1.1.2 and 7.5.1.2.2 that some of these courses appear in the list of optional courses (see Table 7.8, below), which means that it is not possible for students to study all of them.

Table 7.8 MEd and MA(Ed) academic content knowledge and pedagogical knowledge courses with esoteric knowledge

MEd Academic content knowledge and Pedagogical knowledge courses with esoteric knowledge	
Core courses	**Option (elective) courses**
1. Curriculum Planning, Theory, Design and Development 2. Educational Psychology, Theories and Principle of Teaching and Learning 3. Instructional Technology in Education 4. Research Methodology 5. Test Construction, Measurement, Educational Statistics and Evaluation 6. Sociology of Education 7. Psychology of Human Growth and Development	1. Information Technology 2. Professional Ethics for Educators 3. Design and Development of Teaching Materials
MA(Ed) Academic content knowledge and Pedagogical knowledge courses with esoteric knowledge	
Core courses	**Option (elective) courses**
1. Curriculum and Teaching 2. Research Methods in Education	1. Psychology of Child Development 2. Sociometrics and Microanalysis 3. Theories of Teaching and Learning 4. Advanced Curriculum Development

The other courses in the MEd and in the MA(Ed) curricula are the individual disciplinary and general education courses which contain *mundane knowledge* (discussed in Sections 7.6.1 and 7.6.2). Some of these *mundane knowledge* courses are among the core courses while others are optional (together with other academic content knowledge and pedagogical knowledge options); three in the case of the MEd programme and two in the case of the MA(Ed) programme (see Table 7.9, below).

Table 7.9 MEd and MA(Ed) individual disciplinary and general education courses with mundane knowledge

MEd Individual disciplinary and general education courses with mundane knowledge	
Core	**Option (elective) courses**
1. Comparative Education 2. Contemporary Education Issues in East Africa 3. Education Policy and Planning 4. Management of Education and School Administration	1. History and Philosophy of Education 2. Adult Education 3. Special Education 4. Gender Development and Education 5. Economics of Education 6. Environmental Education
MA(Ed) Individual disciplinary and general education courses with mundane knowledge	
Core	**Option (elective) courses**
1. Comparative Education 2. Policy, Planning and Administration	1. Adult Learning 2. Youth and Sports Development 3. Economics and Marketing of Sports 4. Management of Educational Institutions and Projects 5. Educational Planning and Financing 6. Management and Financing Adult Education 7. Open and Distance Learning

These *mundane knowledge* courses, as revealed in Sections 7.6.1.1 and 7.6.2.1, have relationships inside their specialisation context, like Management of Educational Institutions and Projects in the programme of Master of Educational Management and Administration (MEMA) at UDSM. They barely relate to teacher educators' *esoteric knowledge,* and are therefore unlikely to translate to another context like teacher education (Section 7.6).

In such a situation the recontextualisation process in the MEd programmes become difficult. This weakens the regionalisation of knowledge for teacher educators and hence results in the MEd programmes being weak regions for teacher educators' professional field of practice. According to Bernstein (2000), the strong regionalisation of knowledge occurs through the recontextualisation of appropriate disciplinary singulars that meet the requirements of professional knowledge and practice for a particular profession (see also Muller, 2009; Hordern, 2016). Thus, it is important to recontextualise singulars that have *esoteric knowledge* relating to

the intended professional field of practice (Hordern, 2016). In the case of the two MEd curricula concerned, recontextualisation into teacher educator regions is difficult. This is because of the accumulation of many *mundane knowledge* singulars (refer to Table 7.9, above). These singulars have a limited relation to the remaining few teacher educators' *esoteric knowledge* singulars, because their content is insufficient or inappropriate; moreover, some are optional courses (refer to Table 7.8, above). In other words, the regionalisation of knowledge in the MEd programmes takes place by singulars that are not appropriately related to teacher educators' professional knowledge, and hence the programmes form weak regions for the profession.

An essential characteristic of a strong region, as discussed in Chapter Four, is that it bridges organisational boundaries and reinforces networks between its singulars. It weakens its singulars' boundaries or insulation to create and strengthen greater relationships, integration and engagement between them. Thus, a strong region needs to build an on-going dominance over its singulars to enable the appropriation and transformation of knowledge for practice. In contrast, in the MEd curricula, individual disciplinary courses reflect and reinforce their own specialisations with limited relation, integration and engagement with teacher educators' professional knowledge (see Section 7.6.1.1). The relation and integration between these courses and teacher educators' professional field of practice is weak because these singulars are *strongly classified.* This means they have strong boundaries, insulating themselves within their disciplines and facing inward towards their original programme of specialisation. Since they fail to weaken the boundaries of these singulars, the MEd programmes build weak networks between the *mundane knowledge* of these individual disciplinary singulars and the *esoteric knowledge* of teacher educators. This result in the weak transformation of knowledge into teacher educators' professional practice, rendering the MEd programmes weak regions for this professionalism. Table 7.10, below, portrays this weak regionalisation of knowledge in the MEd programmes.

Table 7.10 Showing MEd weak regionalisation

MEd weak regionalisation	Classification categorisations
The *mundane knowledge* in the individual disciplinary (such as Adult Education) and general education courses (such as Contemporary Education Issues in East Africa) have a limited relationship between themselves and a much narrower relation to the *esoteric knowledge* in teacher educator's courses: *strong across-course classification*	C+ strongly bounded courses facing inward toward their discipline
Accumulation of mundane knowledge (Table 7.9) and inadequate and inappropriate esoteric knowledge (Sections 7.5.1.2 and 7.5.1.2.1) in the MEd programmes result in recontextualisation difficulties	C+ MEd weak regionalisation of the knowledge for teacher education due to the lack of a strongly defined disciplinary knowledge for teacher educators
Weak relations and integration of knowledge within the MEd courses for example Policy, Planning and Administration and Curriculum and Teaching. Separateness of the knowledge: knowledge in singulars is diverse.	C+ MEd weak region for teacher educator professional practice. The programme is without a clearly specified knowledge for teacher educators' professional field of practice.

In the case of the general education courses, these *mundane knowledge* singulars accumulate a broad spectrum of knowledge that has no specific relation to any specialisations; including teacher educators' knowledge of teaching teachers (refer to Section 7.6.2.1). Hence, there is *strong classification across courses* (C+) in the programme.

Figures 7.1 and 7.2, below, are adapted from Hordern (2016, pp. 437 and 442) to illuminate the process of weak regionalisation of the MEd teacher educator professional practice. I have replaced the word 'singular' in the boxes of the first rows with the names of the core courses of the MA(Ed) (Figure 7.1) and MEd (Figure 7.2) curricula. The dotted lines show the interrupted dominance of the singular by the weak region (Hordern, 2016, p. 442). Both figures denote MEd weak regions because of the weak relation and integration between the knowledge in the mundane courses such as Comparative Education and Policy, Planning and Administration in Figure 7.1 to the teacher educators' knowledge in esoteric courses such as Curriculum and Teaching. This resulted in weak regionalisation of teacher educators' professional practice.

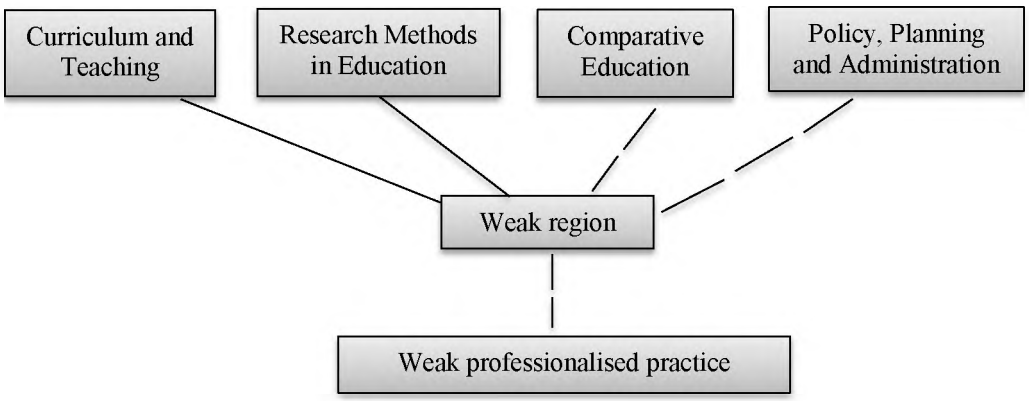

Figure 7.1 Showing MA(Ed) weak region for teacher educator professional practice (adapted from Hordern, 2016)

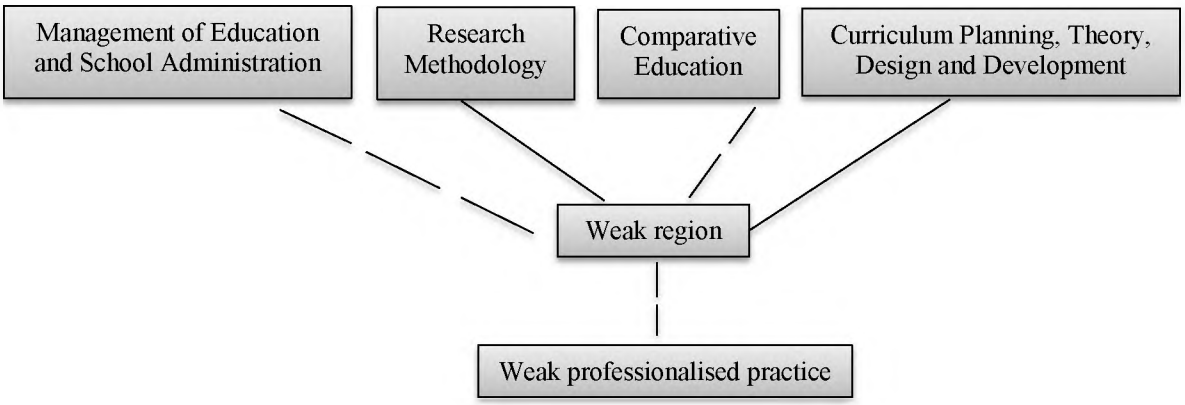

Figure 7.2: Showing MEd weak region for teacher educator professional practice (adapted from Hordern, 2016)

7.6.3.1 Strong region and quality of teacher educators

Bernstein suggests that the strength of a professional identity depends on the strength of relations caused by the classificatory weakness of singulars within the region (Bernstein & Solomon, 1999; Beck & Young, 2005). Thus, to become a stronger region for teacher educator education, the MEd programme would need to develop sufficiently strong relations between the knowledge within its singulars and a clearly specified professional world of work for teacher educators. To put it another way, the recontextualisation of appropriate and adequate teacher educators' esoteric singulars would result in the MEd programmes being strong regions for teacher educators' professional practice. But because the general objective of these programmes, as revealed in Sections 7.4.2 and 7.4.3, is to produce multiple specialisations, multiple disciplinary courses were added, in addition to several general education courses. While this aimed to

develop a range of specialisations (discussed in more detail in Section 7.7), it actually left teacher educator professional knowledge impoverished because of the inappropriateness of the esoteric knowledge courses for teacher educators.

The literature argues for more comprehensive teacher education of teaching teachers for teacher educators. In their article *Constructing new professional identities through self-study: from teacher to teacher educator,* Williams and Ritter (2010) describe how their two research participants struggle in their journey to become teacher educators. Jason, a participant, taught in secondary schools for three years in the United States. He did not receive proper teacher education training to become a teacher educator, hence attempted to use his classroom teaching experience and identity as a source of expertise in his new role of teaching teachers. However, he eventually came to understand that some of the methods he practised as a classroom teacher were not wholly appropriate for his work with student teachers. Linking the above discussion to the region, Muller (2009) argues that:

> Regions without disciplinary foundations might be weak, and might inculcate weak academic identities. Such a region may even be strong on practice-oriented 'know-how' necessary for professional tasks, but without a disciplinary core, the knowledge base will be weak on 'know-why', the knowledge condition for exploring alternatives systematically and for generating innovation (p. 214).

Thus a programme that forms a strong region requires adequate and appropriate knowledge for the professional practice concerned.

Quality teacher educators "must demonstrate subject matter expertise, model effective instruction, transparently debrief their practice, help student teachers analyse and reflect on their own teaching, and promote the vision of their organizational context" (Patrizio et al., 2011, p. 263). They need to ensure that their teacher education knowledge as teacher educators matches the teaching skills and practice that they are expected to develop in their student teachers. This creates the need to acquire adequate and well-conceptualised esoteric knowledge (or what Muller (2009) called a "disciplinary core") of teacher educator professional practices, that will enable them to assist student teachers to develop their own professional identities.

7.6.3.2 Recontextualisation principles and MEd regionalisation

Recontextualisation principles, discussed in Chapter Six, Section 6.5.1.1, are the means by which pedagogic discourses for teacher educators are supposed to be created in the MEd curricula. Teacher educators' pedagogic discourse is created by first choosing the appropriate esoteric singulars and then recontextualising these singulars, i.e. altering them to count as valid knowledge in the acquisition and transmission of teacher educators' professional practice. It is through recontextualisation that discourses such as Management of Education and Information Technology are moved from their original site, Management and IT departments respectively, into teacher education. At this new site, they are altered in order to come into useful relation with other teacher education discourses such as Curriculum Planning, Theory, Design and Development, to form a pedagogic discourse for teacher educators' professional practice.

However, the situation with the MEd programmes investigated is that such courses remained singulars because they were brought into the programmes with different goals in mind. Each was introduced with the goal of producing a specific specialisation, as one of the lecturers explained:

> It [MA(Ed)] produces a lot of specialities... People study this programme because if for example there is the announcement for job vacancies for masters who studied at least some courses in administration. If you apply for that job with your MA(Ed) certificate which has…because in MA(Ed) there is one administration core course, with a MA(Ed) you can fit with the job, so the programme give different job opportunities. If the job demand those who studied curriculum, there are people who work at NECTA [National Examination Council of Tanzania] that is about assessment and evaluation, those people just studied only one course – assessment and evaluation, that course gave them a credit to get job there [at NECTA] (Interview: D1).

Moving from being singulars to being part of a region does not change the insulation of the courses. Taking a singular from one programme and putting it in another region does not automatically weaken the insulation of the singular to create relation and integration between it and other singulars in the new programme. The Management of Education and School Administration course, for example, was being offered in the MEd programme at TUMA in the same form as it was in its original site of recontextualisation, the Master of Educational Management (MEM) programme. The aim is for the MEd programme to prepare graduates for specialised positions such as school heads and educational managers. The result, though, was that MEd students at TUMA were struggling to move between these strongly bounded courses

and a more integrated professional field of practice. This is supported by the response from a TUMA administrator that the programme was made of so many different specialisations that students did not know what exactly they were being prepared to become (Interview: U1). This is an obvious consequence of the programme's stated goal:

> Graduates of the MEd degree programme would have opportunities in secondary schools as school heads, teachers training colleges as tutors, or college principals and in universities as assistant lecturers in relevant education courses (TUMA. MEd curriculum document, 2009, p. 2; TUMA. Prospectus, 2012/2015, p. 57).

Multiple disciplinary courses do not become weakly classified singulars just by adding them into a region. Bernstein maintains that if the strength of the insulation of the individual disciplinary courses is strong in their specialisation, the *esoteric knowledge* in that specialisation becomes *mundane knowledge* in another specialisation (see also Section 7.6.1.1). That is to say, what is actually esoteric in a management programme, for example, become mundane in a teacher education programme. This suggest that accumulating courses with multiple disciplines in the MEd programmes that are esoteric in their own specialisation resulted in the MEd programmes to become weak regions for teacher educator because their knowledge become mundane for teacher educators . Recontextualisation principles alter the original discourse and construct a new pedagogic discourse by relocating the knowledge and refocusing it into the intended professional practice (Hordern, 2016). In the case of both TUMA and UDSM, the absence of recontextualisation principles appears to be one of the mechanisms responsible for the weak regionalisation of the MEd programmes into teacher educator professional practice.

7.6.3.3 Generative mechanisms underlying MEd weak regionalisation of teacher educator professional field of practice

One of the possible mechanisms behind the weak regionalisation of teacher educator professional practice in the MEd programmes could be *the lack of recontextualising principles*. Responses from the participants revealed not only that these principles were not there, but also that there was no apparent awareness of their existence. Note the following responses:

> **Researcher**: What are the MA(Ed) programme design principles and how was the programme conceptualised?
> **D1**: Those I think you will get them from the MA(Ed) curriculum (Interview: D1).

> **Researcher:** What philosophical principles underpin the selection of the MA(Ed) curriculum components?
> **D6:** A standard textbook on curriculum should help you on this, plus documents by the National Institute for Educational Development (NIED), Namibia: *National Curriculum Guide*, *Syllabus guides and Subject policy guides*, *Professional Needs Assessment.*(Interview: D6).

Recontextualising principles guide the selection, relocation, refocusing and inter-relating of appropriate knowledge from the singulars to meet the needs of a field of professional practice (Hordern, 2016, p. 429). The absence of these principles means a struggle over what is deemed worth knowing for the profession, how the knowledge should be organised and taught, by whom, and to what level of proficiency (Singh, 2015). In the case of the MEd programmes, the inclusion of what was deemed worth knowing for all the specialisations that the programmes were expected to develop affected the relevance and adequacy of teacher educators' esoteric knowledge. As a result, the MEd programmes become weak regions for teacher educators' professional practice due to an accumulation of mundane knowledge that was not and perhaps could not be recontextualised into teacher educators' knowledge.

A second mechanism for weak regionalisation in the MEd programmes could be a *lack of awareness of teacher educators' esoteric knowledge* or a *lack of awareness of teacher educators' professional needs.* I suggest this as a mechanism because of the responses from lecturers and administrators of the programmes, when I asked about the knowledge and skills that a teacher educator needed to acquire in order to become an effective professional. The answer to this question from a senior administrator who was also a lecturer of four MEd courses was: "coaching, mentoring and availability of resources" (Interview: U5). Further investigation revealed that this mechanism might have been prompted by the existence of another mechanism, *the lack of commitment to professional development* on the part of the curriculum designers, lecturers and administrators of the MEd programmes. The literature argues that keeping oneself abreast with current issues in teaching and teacher education is supposed to be a life-long learning behaviour for academics in the Faculties, Departments and Schools of Education in the universities. However, the extract below, from an interview response, is an example of a scenario that displays a *lack of commitment to professional development*:

> Here in School of Education [at UDSM] our orientation in the beginning was quantitative and all professors when you conducted research without quantifying it they would not

> value it as a research. When I went abroad for my PhD and found hah [surprising] even qualitative alone is valid for research! and you can conduct research without quantifying and it is valued! I then decided to diverge and came with this qualitative orientation, that even a qualitative research is also a research. So, at least those old professors have agreed now that even a pure qualitative research study a student can conduct (Interview: D1).

The participant was talking about professors who did not value the existence of the well-established field of qualitative research studies. This response induced me to probe interviewees further regarding what they think teacher educators needed to know. I therefore asked: "So the MA(Ed) programme produces many specialities, some are tutors in teacher colleges; some are head teachers, educational managers, leaders, Assistant Lecturers, so how does it contribute to the development of professional teacher educators?" The response was:

> There is one core course among those that I have mentioned the course is called EF 601 Education Foundation. In this course student are taught issues on ethics, teaching ethics etc. etc. professionalism etc. are in there…So this EF is about all those things in professionalism, ethics and so on. So we think students get those aspects of teaching in this course. And most of the time this course is taught by lecturers who are expert in professionalism in education, we have one lecturer is called Prof Z [D4], he is in DUCE but he teaches this course here [UDSM] (Interview: D1).

Two issues arise from the above response. The first is that there is no Education Foundation course in the MA(Ed) programme, suggesting that the respondent who was a lecturer and an administrator in the programme did not know which courses were in it. The second is that EF 601 is a Comparative Education course which compares education systems in different parts of the world in relation to the East African context, as discussed in Section 7.6.2.2 above. It does not deal with the professional aspects of teaching or teacher educators' knowledge and practices. This implies a *lack of awareness of teacher educators' knowledge.*

Research reveals that not only beginners but also experts and long-serving academics need to engage themselves in professional development activities, for the reason that the pedagogy of teaching is developing rapidly and the content of teacher education at all levels is changing (OECD, 2005). Life-long learning activities such as attending courses and workshops and engaging in research activities update one's professional knowledge and practices.

7.6.3.4 Entity and parts: MEd emergent properties

Elder-Vass (2005) talks of the relationship between a 'whole' and its 'parts'. In his words, "wholes are entities" (p. 317). In this research, wholes or entities are Bernsteinian regions and parts are their singulars. A key point that Elder-Vass (2005) makes is that all collections of parts, however arbitrary, have relations between them, but not all collections of parts form entities, because an *entity* involves a *significantly* structured set of parts with more than merely aggregative mutual relations. An entity is, therefore, a particular combination of parts (Carter & New, 2004). Similarly, a region is also a particular combination of singulars, meaning that not all collections of singulars form regions. A region involves a structured set of appropriate singulars with *significant* relations among them. These *significant* relations are the emergent properties. They are essential aspects of a region because they differentiate a mere co-occurrence of singulars from a *significant* or internally related combination of these constituting the professional knowledge of a particular field of practice.

An important concern here is that each part in an entity possesses properties different from those of the entity. To put it differently, an emergent property of an entity is the one that is not possessed by any of the parts individually. Two important points need to be made here. The first is that one or two singulars cannot form a region, but a combination or set of appropriately structured singulars may. The second point is that the properties of singulars combine and relate internally with each other to create a region with one or more new emergent properties. Thus, the emergent properties of a region are more than the sum of singulars' properties but a particular configuration resulting from the contextual field of a particular professional field of practice. The properties of individual singulars are modified to contribute to the emergent properties of the region.

A preparation programme for teacher educators would be expected to have emergent properties irreducible to those of its individual course components. Properties that each course can draw upon to generate teacher education emergent properties depend on their relation to one another. For example, the Curriculum Planning, Theory, Design and Development course relies on *contextual knowledge* of student teachers, who they are, their working environment, as well as how they perceive teaching. The course Design and Development of Teaching Materials relies on *disciplinary knowledge* of the subject that teacher educators specialise in. Whether the

knowledge of each course is relevant to teacher educators' professional practice is what creates the *significant* relations of these courses to each other. This means that what it is to be a teacher educator cannot be explained at the level of individual education course, but only in terms of these courses relationship to each other. Thus, the emergent properties of the teacher educator programme are not the sum of its courses but the product of their combined relations.

But in contrast, the first thing that one notices about the MEd programmes in question is that their singulars are expected to create a specialisation of specific disciplines, so that each discipline, such as management, educational economics, adult education, etc., is expected to be a region by itself within the programme (refer to Section 7.6.3.2). A second point is that, since these programmes aim to produce specialists in all those different disciplines (refer to Section 7.4.1), the singulars in the programmes are a collection of courses with limited professional relations with other singulars because each was added to produce its own specialisation (this is further discussed in Section 7.7). As the courses remain singulars in the programmes, their properties were also not modified. That is to say, the emergent properties of these programmes are just the sum of the properties of each course.

Elder-Vass (2005) speaks of the emergent properties of an entity as a consequence of the organisation of the parts, that is, of the maintenance of a stable set of relations between the parts that constitute them into a particular kind of whole (p. 320). Similarly, the emergent properties of a region are a consequence of the organisation of the singulars maintained by a stable relation among them that constitute them into a particular kind of a region. This implies that the emergent properties of MEd programmes as regions for teacher educators' professional practice are subverted by the limited relations between the courses that constitute these programmes. This, therefore, results in the MEd programmes becoming weak regions (see Section 7.6.3), produced by the *unstable organisation* of singulars with tenuous relationships between them.

7.6.3.5 MEd Professional jurisdiction

Professional jurisdiction is a concept introduced by Abbot (1988) (as cited in Gamble, 2010). It resembles Bernstein's regionalisation of knowledge. It is a concept that stresses the importance of combining courses with knowledge relating to the intended professional field of practice. The professional jurisdiction of a programme becomes weak if the programme is composed of a

number of courses with little consideration for the relevance and appropriateness of their knowledge to the professional development intended by the programme. A strong professional jurisdiction is achieved by a formalised knowledge base that makes connections with the roles of the profession (Gamble, 2010).

As previously mentioned, a student is supposed to take six out of 15 courses in the MA(Ed) programme and 14 out of 20 courses in the MEd programme. The MA(Ed) programme contains more mundane knowledge, in nine courses, than esoteric knowledge, which constitutes only six pedagogic and academic content courses for teacher educators. Four of these esoteric knowledge courses are in the list of optional courses (refer to Table 7.8) and hence not all MA(Ed) students are able to study them. In case of the MEd programme, although it has equal number of mundane and esoteric knowledge courses (10 of each), three of those esoteric (pedagogic and academic content) knowledge courses are optional courses (also refer to Table 7.9). Students of both MEd programmes, therefore, receive less esoteric knowledge (refer to Sections 7.5.1.1 and 7.5.1.2). On the other hand, the knowledge from the mundane courses, which are the individual disciplinary and general education courses, has limited relation to the esoteric knowledge (refer to Sections 7.6.1.1 and 7.6.2.1) and hence has weak connections with teacher educators' roles and functions. According to Abbot, professional jurisdiction is weakened when the knowledge base is too diverse. This must be countered by less attention to the relevance and adequacy of the knowledge in respect of professional practice. In this perspective, both MEd programmes have weak professional jurisdiction for teacher educator professionalism.

To summarise, the accumulation of multiple individual disciplinary and general education courses in both the MEd programmes is an attempt to achieve the programmes' goals of developing various specialisations from one programme. However, while multiple disciplinary courses possess knowledge that connects to their own disciplinary specialisations, most of the general education courses present an accumulation and repetition of knowledge that is not appropriate to teacher educators' professional practice. The knowledge in both the multiple disciplinary and the general education courses evinces quite a tenuous relationship to teacher educators' roles and professional practice. This weakens teacher educator professional jurisdiction in the MEd programmes. It also affects the development of those several

specialisations from the individual disciplinary courses that the programmes were intended to develop. This issue is discussed further in the sections that follow.

7.7 MEd specialisations

According to the interview responses and the MA(Ed) curriculum document, the goals of this programme, as explained in Section 7.4, are not only to develop teacher educators, tutors and Assistant Lecturers. The programme also intends to foster other specialisations, as one of its lecturers explains:

> The programme produces many different kind of graduates. It produces educational administrators, if for example a person want management then he/she specialised in management courses; it produces counsellors, if someone is interested on guiding and counselling issues he or she opt two guiding and counselling courses. So we say he or she will be dealing with guiding and counselling issues; it produces curriculum developers, so the one who is interested in curriculum and development he or she opt curriculum courses. So it produces many different kind of specialisations (Interview: D1).

In the same way, the main objective of the MEd programme at TUMA is to train teacher college tutors and university Assistant Lecturers who teach education courses to school teachers, as discussed in Section 7.4. But the programme also aims to produce other categories of agent, such as school heads, examination officials, policy makers, college principles, educational administrators, planners, and managers (refer to Sections 7.4.1 and 7.4.2). The programmes are therefore built up of multiple disciplinary courses and have *multiple specialisations*.

Bernstein discusses the relationship of classification to identity and to the specialisation of the category. He contends that the extent to which practices are specialised into categories depends entirely upon the relation between these categories. Each category has its own specific identity and its own specific boundaries (1990). Categories such as teacher educators, educational managers, administrators and curriculum developers are created, maintained and reproduced only if the insulation between the categories is preserved. The insulation between the categories creates a space that allows a category to become or remain specific.

In the case of the multiple discipline programme, each discipline has its own specific identity with strong boundaries. When they are put into a MEd programme, each brings into the programme its own specific specialisation that aims to produce specific categories of agents. They are strongly classified courses, as revealed in section 7.6.1.1, with clearly bounded

specialisations. They have "strong inner commitments centred in the perceived intrinsic value of their specific knowledge domains" (Beck & Young, 2005, p. 185). Their degree of specificity limits the integration and the professional relation to teacher educators' knowledge and practices. As Hordern (2016) cautions, the attempt to introduce multiple disciplinary singulars into a programme as an easy way towards compound specialisations may seem to underestimate the significance of how knowledge is structured and combined in professional formations. The accumulation of strong bounded disciplinary singulars gives these MEd programmes *strong classification across courses*, with the result that the programmes become *strongly classified* (C+).

Besides the multiple disciplinary courses, the general education courses, as revealed in section 7.6.2.1, are more strongly classified courses as they are not intending to produce any specialisations and are not directly related to any of the specialisations that the MEd programmes do intend to produce. Including such courses in these programmes and especially in the list of optional courses, and telling students that they specialise by taking optional courses it means preventing students from getting any specialisation. The accumulation of the general education courses which narrowly relate to any specialisation also create *strongly classified* MEd programmes due to the *strong bounded nature of these courses* to any other course in these programmes.

In sum, the MEd programmes are hardly *a specialisation* for teacher educators or the other disciplines. The accumulation of multiple disciplines has overlooked the purpose of the curriculum, which is "to support professional formation" and not to immerse students in multiple disciplines (Guile, 2014. p, 83).

7.7.1 Generative mechanisms underlying MEd specialisations and the quality of teacher educators

Various mechanisms might have combined to influence the situation of multiple specialisations existing in these two MEd programmes. *Structuring of the courses* is one of them. For the MA(Ed) programme, the requirement is that students take two optional courses in addition to four core courses. This requirement is not mentioned in the curriculum document, but the administrator who is also a lecturer on the programme added that specialisation is achieved by

the students taking two optional courses in specific discipline(s) in which he/she must also do a dissertation:

> …you study all courses but your specialisation will come during your dissertation on the area that you select to research like if for example you decide to write your dissertation on financing, after making this decision than you will have to take option courses in this area. So, MA(Ed) students have 4 core courses and 2 options courses. These option courses will determine one's specialisation (Interview: D1).

The question here is whether a specialisation can be achieved by taking only two courses. The question is relevant because in other programmes in the university, for example, the Master of Educational Management and Administration (MEMA), students study six core courses and two optional courses to qualify for a single specialisation.

Another question applies specifically to teacher educator specialisation: can a teacher educator specialise by taking two courses? This question creates another possible mechanism that might be controlling the programme specialisations. This mechanism is the *lack of awareness of the knowledge and skills required for the teacher educators' specialisation*. The MA(Ed) lecturer and administrator claimed that there are four knowledge bases that the designers of this programme thought were important for a teacher educator. She said:

> When they [designers] were developing this programme their aim was really to train teachers [teacher educators], in the first place those option [courses] were not that many. So, they thought for a teacher to study for a master's degree what course does he or she need and from which area. So they sat down and think and say: a teacher first need to know advance curriculum methods, so they put in the programme the CT [Curriculum and Teaching] course. A teacher need to know leadership aspects, and so they put one course on leadership, a teacher need to know teacher ethics and professionalism, so they put the EF course, a teacher need to know research methodology so that she/he can write dissertation, so they put in a Research Methodology course (Interview: D1).

Among the four knowledge bases that this interviewee mentioned, only three are in the list of the MA(Ed) core courses and the fourth, the one that the interviewee called EF is not even in the curriculum (see Appendix D, Table D.1). Moreover, with reference to the six key knowledge domains for teacher educators discussed in Section 7.5, above, only two courses, Curriculum and Teaching and Research Methods in Education, are part of these knowledge domains. Another key point is that the MA(Ed) main goal is to train teacher educators in teacher colleges and in universities and other higher education institutions, as well as administrators and educational

planners. However, the programme structure has rather been characterised as '*a general programme*' (Interview: D1; D2; D6). This forms the third mechanism underlying the nature of the MA(Ed) specialisations.

As noted in Chapter Two, the School of Education at UDSM has two departments and one unit: Department of Educational Foundations, Management and Lifelong Learning; Department of Educational Psychology and Curriculum Studies; and the Physical Education and Sport Sciences Unit. The administrators in the School of Education insisted on the general nature of the programme by acknowledging that "The MA(Ed) programme has no department because it is a general programme it has no specialisation, it is just under the School of Education" (Interview: D1). These statements contradict earlier statements from the same administrators that a specialisation is obtained from the course by choosing two courses and writing a dissertation in the same field. In the response quoted above, the administrator accepted that the programme is identified by the School of Education as a general programme because it lacks specialisation, and that is the reason why it had not been located in a department.

Furthermore, the administrator remarked: "I also did this programme [MA(Ed)] because during that time there were no specialisations so I had to take this MA(Ed), but if there were these specialisations then I would take MEMA (Master of Educational Management]" (Interview: D1). This suggests a mechanism existing in the contradictory views of academic staff in the School of Education that the MA(Ed) programme is "a general" qualification, but at the same time has "multiple specialisations". Together with the first two mechanisms, this could be contributing to the conditions hindering this programme both from achieving its main goal of training teacher educators, and of developing the other claimed specialisations.

Turning to the MEd curriculum at TUMA, the issue of the *structuring of the courses* in this programme is similar to that in the MA(Ed) programme. In this programme, students, in addition to 11 core courses, are supposed to take three (out of nine) optional courses (see Appendix D, Table D.2). Though the number of courses that students have to take has increased (6 in MA(Ed) compared to 14 in this programme), many courses do not increase the capacity of any one single specialisation so much as introduce more individual disciplines, as shown in the Table 7.11, below. Similar to the MA(Ed) curriculum document, the MEd curriculum document does not

state that specialisation is achieved by students taking optional courses. It does not also stipulate any requirement for what area of research students can choose for their dissertations.

Table 7.11 Showing large number of individual disciplinary option courses in MEd programme

Core courses		Option (elective) courses	
1.	Curriculum Planning, Theory, Design and Development	1.	Professional Ethics for Educators
2.	Comparative Education	2.	History and Philosophy of Education
3.	Research Methodology	3.	Special Education
4.	Test Construction Measurement, Educational Statistics and Evaluation	4.	Economics of Education
5.	Management of Education and School Administration	5.	Environmental Education
6.	Education Policy and Planning	6.	Adult Education
7.	Educational Psychology, Theories and Principle of Teaching and Learning	7.	Gender Development and Education
8.	Sociology of Education	8.	Information Technology
9.	Contemporary Education Issues in East Africa	9.	Design and Development of Teaching Materials
10.	Psychology of Human Growth and Development		
11.	Instructional Technology in Education		

The question asked of the UDSM programme, whether a specialisation can be acquired by taking just three courses, also applies to TUMA. The university also has a Master of Educational Management (MEM) programme, in which students take a number of courses to specialise in one field. Yet specialisation in areas like management is assumed to happen in the MEd programme, for students who take only two management courses (Table 7.11, above). And for some disciplines like Adult Education, there is only one course in the whole programme, but that one course is nevertheless expected to develop a specialisation.

The other two mechanisms, *lack of awareness of the knowledge and skills for the teacher educators' specialisation* and the programme being considered a *general programme* were also evident with respect to the MEd programme. One of the lecturers referred to this programme as a general one because, according to him, it covers various areas in education. He explained that:

> As a generalist a teacher is involved in evaluation, is involved in classroom manipulation and teaching and learning, is involved in decision making deciding whether learning is taking place or teaching is progressing in expected outcomes, and is also involved in guidance and counselling which means understanding the different factors that influence the process of teaching and learning. May be personality factors could be subject matter factors, it can be teaching/learning environmental factors, and it can be the teacher as the implementer factor/the teacher factor (Interview: U4).

The participant continued thus:

> For any educator or teacher, there are areas that he/she needs to be conversant with; one is Management and Education for sure. The other one is educational Curriculum Development and implementation. The third is Measurement and Evaluation, which helps the teacher or the educator to determine whether teaching is producing the expected outcomes that is students are learning the required skills and acquiring the expected type of knowledge, then Educational Research number four. A teacher again or educator has to learn how to make decisions based on objectives or results or outcome, so research is one way of helping the teacher to avoid making subjective decisions that are not based on any strong evidence, so research is an important component of the teacher (Interview: U4).

However, to an additional question about how a master of education qualification should be for educators, he responded that:

> …as one goes up to the graduate studies at master's level, one can then specialise in one of those areas, can specialise as in curriculum, can specialise in educational research, can specialise in measurement and evaluation, and can specialise in the teaching and learning in terms of classroom implementation. So it is at master's level that one would then go into specialised types of knowledge (Interview: U4).

From these responses it might be inferred that the issue lies not only in the *lack of awareness of the knowledge and skills for the teacher educators' specialisation*, but also in understanding *who a teacher educator is* and *what a general programme means*.

7.7.2 Synthesis of the arguments

The curriculum components analysed in Sections 7.5 and 7.6 constitute the mundane and esoteric knowledge in both MEd curricula. Section 7.6.3 investigated these courses in detail and revealed that their weak relations lead to the formation of weak regions for the professional practice of teacher educators. The argument was made that appropriate and adequate singulars strengthen the relations and integration between them, resulting in the formation of strong region. A strong region for teacher educators' professional practice was revealed to be essential in enabling them to receive deep, well-conceptualised teacher education relevant to their role of teaching teachers.

Section 7.6.3.4 discussed the emergent properties of the MEd programmes in relation to the stability of the regions, which depends on the strength of the professional relations among their singulars. The emergent properties of these weak MEd regions for teacher educators professional practice were unstable due to the lack of *significant* relations between the singulars. It was also revealed (see Section 7.6.3.5) that several courses in the various education disciplines that

constitute these programmes each claimed to develop a specialisation, and this led to a weak teacher educators' professional jurisdiction. The investigation further revealed that the attempt to develop several specialisations from these programmes by accumulating diverse disciplinary courses might have disregarded the value of appropriate and adequate relational knowledge for a professional.

Another MEd component that has been analysed from the curriculum documents is the instructional strategies. The analysis of this component also involves investigation of the balance between theoretical knowledge and practical knowledge, and of curriculum activities in relation to the quality of teacher educators' practices.

7.8 Framing of instructional discourse of MEd instructional strategies

As revealed earlier in Section 7.3, neither of the MEd curricula contains general instructional strategies. It appears that lecturing is the main strategy for knowledge transmission, with a minimum of discussion and presentations. Interview questions asked of lecturers about how they teach the courses revealed that they mostly also used lectures, as verified by one of the MA(Ed) lecturer: "through lecture, mainly through lecture, we do also seminar, discussion, presentations from students" (Interview: D2).

Instructional discourse in the MEd programmes is categorised as having strong or weak framing in relation to the control that lecturers have over the selection, sequencing and pacing of content and instructional strategies in the MEd curriculum. The analysis revealed that both MEd curricula have only implicit indications of how the knowledge is to be taught. This situation gives lecturers considerable scope for decision making on how to implement the curriculum. This means that lecturers have control over selection, sequence and pacing of the instructional strategies despite the fact that the curriculum documents do not restrict or instruct the lecturers to adjust the stated strategies. This implies *weak framing* (F-) of instructional discourse for the MEd programmes. This is supported by the responses from some of the lecturers in the MA(Ed) programme, as shown in the extract below:

> Of course we have invent a modality of delivery: discussions, mini research, writing major papers and whatever. But the first thing for them is to be in groups and give them… we normally give them the topics, of course from the course outline, and we do normally

> group discussions, that's the most dominant approach to teaching the course (Interview: D4).

This lecturer also claimed that "lectures are at very minimum in this level [postgraduate], it is not a dominant approach to teach the course. We mainly use discussions, writing papers, library visit and so on" (Interview: D4). Another lecturer in the MA(Ed) programme who is also an administrator confirmed that:

> These days we have moved from units [to credit] so we are supposed to involve students much I have forget to what percentage, so students these days have many works. Independent learning is also counted in the credit, this was not there before. So nowadays students are required to do more independent studies, this [independent studies] was not there before; so lectures have been reduced and much focus is on discussion, group discussions, independent studies, and presentations, student presentations (Interview: D1).

In case of the TUMA MEd curriculum document, the list of instructional strategies is identical in all courses, as shown in the excerpt below:

> **Methods of Instruction**:
> - Small group and individual assignments and presentation followed by class discussion.
> - Lecturer [*sic*]/Direct instruction
> - Role play
>
> **(TUMA. MEd curriculum document, 2009)**

Although the list indicates only four methods of instruction, there is no instruction to course lecturers to change or adapt those repeated strategies. Some lecturers, nevertheless, described their own framing/control over the instructional strategies. A lecturer of three of the MEd courses revealed how he selected, sequenced and paced different methods that, according to him, were more relevant for his courses.

> I go with general questions if it is about learning I prepare about 5 questions on learning and this is based on their own experiences, they write I ask them to write. If it is about evaluation, I ask them questions about evaluation, if it is about development I ask then some general questions about development. So after I have asked them we go and discuss what was [were] the answers for these questions all round, at the end of it I then say OK I introduce the course and the course basically has got some relationship to the questions I have asked them to answer. So I introduce the broad interpretation or understanding of the course to the students in that way. Then I take/collect those assignments and went [go] mark them to see how much knowledge they have; general is it may be about the particular subject very general and then I go back and say OK your answers were good we are going

> to build on 1,2,3,4... which is coming from your answers, and that means I'm using basically what we call prior learning experience. So basically, I build from the student experiences and on that base them they see that the lecturer understands us and we understand him and we go on (Interview: U4).

It was mentioned earlier in this section that the MEd curriculum documents do not contain general instructional strategies, and that the instructional strategies in most courses involve lecturing as a main strategy with a minimum of discussion and presentations. However, the literature argues that teacher educators cannot simply lecture in order to teach student teachers how to teach. They need to be able to model learning theory and pedagogy in their own practice. Hence, lecturers of the MEd programmes need to be able to demonstrate and model different teaching strategies while teaching teacher educators, making their teaching explicit in showing teacher educators how to model their own practices for student teachers.

7.8.1 Awareness of teacher educators modelling instructional strategy

Neither MEd curriculum document mentions an important instructional strategy for teacher educators' professional practice, namely modelling. Expert teacher educators concur that every teacher educator serves as a role-model and a teaching model for student teachers (Lunenberg et al., 2007; Swennen et al., 2008; Ben-Peretz et al., 2010). It is a central aspect of the work of educators who teach teachers. It is essential to the process of learning about teaching and teaching about teaching (Berry, 2009; Loughran, 2014). It has been specified as one of the principles that guide curriculum design for teacher educators' programmes (Korthagen et al., 2006). Personal communications with the MA(Ed) lecturers and lecturers who teach other MEd programmes at UDSM and other universities revealed that most of them do not know what modelling is and do not know that it is an instructional strategy, as revealed in the excerpt below:

> **Researcher**
> Professor, you said you are not a lecturer of teaching methods but, well, you teach Curriculum and Teaching course [of the MA(Ed) programme], I just want to ask you what you know about modelling.
>
> **D7**
> What exactly do you mean when you say modelling? Do you mean how do I become a role model to my students? ...One very important thing about me is to be honest not to cheat and to be fair, if you as a teacher you cannot be fair you are not a model, if you have students you treat differently you are not a good model (Personal communication: D7).

The literature suggests that modelling is complex and difficult to do and needs to be developed by both experts and beginning teacher educators (Loughran & Berry, 2005; Berry, 2009; Swennen & van der Klink, 2009). Expert teacher educators need to be able to explicitly model to beginning teacher educators "the thoughts and actions that underpin one's pedagogical approach" (Loughran & Berry, 2005, p. 193), exposing their own practice of pedagogy in supporting learning (see also Zeichner, 2005; Wilson, 2006; Loughran, 2014). Skills, expertise and knowledge are exposed, articulated and communicated, so that the pedagogy of teaching is appropriately highlighted and understood by beginning teacher educators (Loughran & Berry, 2005; Zeichner, 2005). In addition to modelling their pedagogical approach, expert teacher educators also need to model reflective practice and the self-study aspects of effective teaching (Kosnik, 2007).

Beginning teacher educators serve as models for their students through their teaching about teaching. They need to model their teaching by exposing their practice of pedagogy, and their views and theories should be reflected in their own practice (Swennen & van der Klink, 2009). They are expected to be good models of the kind of teaching they are trying to promote among the student teachers (Ben-Peretz et al., 2010).

7.8.2 The balance between academic content knowledge and pedagogical knowledge and practical activities

It has been argued that a curriculum that provides a framework for professional development can become destabilised by inadequate forms of recontextualisation that do not take full account of the needs of professional practice (Hordern, 2016, p. 432). The following sections analyse the balance of academic content knowledge or theoretical knowledge against pedagogical knowledge. The sections also analyse practical activities in teaching and course assignments as well as the link and integration between theory in the MEd courses and practical activities and knowledge application.

7.8.2.1 Academic content/theoretical knowledge vis-à-vis pedagogical knowledge

As indicated above, the two MEd curricula do not encompass adequate pedagogical knowledge. The analysis in Section 7.5.1 indicates that there are too few pedagogical knowledge courses in

these programmes. Out of 15 courses in the MA(Ed) programme, only three are pedagogical knowledge courses and only one of the three is a core course. There are only four pedagogical knowledge courses out of 20 in the MEd programme, three of which are core courses. The reason for this situation, as suggested in Section 7.5.1.1.2, could be the entry requirements for the programmes; that is, the programmes admits qualified school teachers who have studied pedagogical courses during the requisite Bachelor of Education degree.

7.8.2.2 Practical activities, tasks and teaching practice

Analysis of the MEd curricula assessments and responses from the lecturers revealed that there is a strong focus on pencil and paper assignments and less on practical tasks and activities. Participants' responses (see the excerpt below) as well as curriculum documents revealed that neither programme involves teaching practice. This too may be attributable to the programmes' entry qualifications, the assumption being that the students are school teachers who have enough school teaching experience not to need any more teaching practice.

> Teaching practice is not needed for Master students because most of the people taking this [MA(Ed)] already have their basics in teaching (Interview: D3).

The assessments in both curriculum documents and the course outlines involve mainly book critiques, topic reviews and case studies as writing assignments, with quizzes and tests for knowledge evaluation. Little attention is paid to hands-on practical activities. One of the lecturers explained how he assessed students when teaching three MEd courses at TUMA, saying: "sometimes I would give them topics and tell them what kind of reference sources they should consult and they would do that" (Interview:U4). A lecturer in the MA(Ed) course also indicated that:

> We have what we call continuous assessment or course work, which is also divided into small activities like major paper, so every learner or a student must produce a major paper on an area of his/her interest. Normally I give them a number of topics and see that they have freedom to choose the topic from which they can make… I give them broad areas in education so that they choose the topic of their own interest that is for major paper. Then I have a quiz which aims at making them… well busy, so a quiz. And we have a group presentation as I said earlier. Yah so mainly three activities: quiz, major paper and group presentation (Interview: D4).

The interview responses of some of the MA(Ed) lecturers indicate that they were trying to make their courses more activity-driven by involving students in practical activities. In, for example, the Research Methods in Education course, the lecturers were trying to make the course more effective through assignments that involve knowledge *application* activities:

> …our assignments are to make them [students] get hands on skills. So we are telling them to write a mini research, we tell them to think about any topic of their interest, we tell them to write the topic, to state the problem, write the background, provide objectives, provide research questions, go to the field and collect data, analyse the data. So it become like a kind of mini research (Interview: D1).

However, Section 7.5.1.2.3 revealed that *time* was a constraint for this course, affecting both the implementation and student achievement. It affects the appropriateness of teaching and the content of the course, which in turn affects students' effective uptake of research knowledge and skills.

7.8.2.3 Linking theory to practical activities and knowledge application

During the interviews with the Research Methods in Education lecturers on the MA(Ed) programme, two scenarios that relate to the weak link between theory and knowledge application were noted. These scenarios relate to the absence of teaching and learning resources that was revealed in Chapter Six, Section 6.5.2.2.7.

In the case of the quantitative research section of the Research Methods in Education course, while the university has SPSS software, the lecturer complained about the lack of computers for practical research activities and skills application:

> Not everybody has a computer in front to try it him or herself and therefore when they do they work, sometimes the work is in group work, so you are not sure if each individual does the skills or he shared in the group and only one did the work. Because such work will usually make a group work, five people together and they do the questions and then they submit. So I think if they had a computer lab where everybody sits in front of the computer and open SPSS and do it practically it could help them a lot to conduct research and also to be able to interpret research when they see it (Interview: D3).

For the qualitative research approach in Research Methods in Education, the university does not have any qualitative analysis software, so the lecturer ends up just mentioning the software names:

> We don't have software to teach students how to do data analysis. We don't have Nvivo or anything, so we just mention them that there are these and this software but the university doesn't have, we are telling you their names so that when you go to do your PhDs in other countries and here these names it doesn't become as a surprise. So, we don't teach computer assistance qualitative analysis software we just mention the names of the software (Interview: D1).

Both situations illustrate that the students do not have access to the necessary resources to link the theory part of the knowledge they learn with practical skills.

7.8.2.4 Integrating theory into practical activities and knowledge application

As revealed above, assessment in the MEd programmes focuses mainly on pencil and paper assignments rather than practical tasks, which in turn limits the integration of theoretical knowledge with practice. In the case of the MEd programme in TUMA, this was caused by limitations of time resulting from the fact that part-time lecturers taught most of the courses (Section 7.5.1.2.2). Also, the sheer accumulation of 14 courses (11 core and three optional courses) in the programme might have contributed to the lack of time for students to be given and/or get time for practical activities assignments.

While students in the MA(Ed) programme only study four core and two optional courses, they and their lecturers also complained about them on the grounds that they were very full and dense. Furthermore, the Advanced Curriculum Development lecturer complained that students were not able to do real classroom activities due to the time difference between when the classes are taught and the university college hours. The situation is that the course lecturers want to use Dar es Salaam University College of Education (DUCE) for the course's practical activities. However, the lecturers usually teach the course to the regular MA(Ed) students together with the evening MA(Ed) students in the evening, by which time the college teaching hours are already over:

> I want them to exercise with really students and expectation… because university is… we have demonstration schools like DUCE... And you know the difficulty is… what is a challenge for this is, in this group of MA(Ed) we have regular and evening [students]. So

> when you plan to implement in normal school time you will find that, that is not very possible for evening classes who normally attend this from 11 or no from 5pm…the timetable normally the session [lesson] begin from 5pm so that we can mix them... So, you can see these difficulties… that's why we fail to implement it with students (Interview: D5).

Although the lecturer explained that the students do classroom practice in their lecture rooms with their fellow students acting like school teachers, she admitted that the practice is not that realistic because the audience does not consist of real students.

7.8.2.5 Pedagogical knowledge, practical activities and the effect of the absence of teaching practice on the quality of teacher educators

In addition to inadequate pedagogical knowledge, practical activities and knowledge applications, the MEd programmes, as indicated in Section 7.8.3.2, do not encompass teaching practice or on-the-job follow up. As one of the MEd lecturers said, "I would have wished to see these students apply knowledge and skills they have learned from my teaching. So for sure they have the knowledge, how they are going to apply it I don't know" (Interview: U4). These three deficiencies might have a negative impact on the quality of teacher educators. That same lecturer (quoted above) displayed his concern about this by saying: "Well you see the problem sometimes in this particular programme is time limit. What I'm saying is if you really want to establish whether a course or courses have contributed to a student development then you need to see that student not only performing theoretical activities like tests and so on but you need to see him/her apply that knowledge" (Interview: U4).

Being or having been school teachers means these MEd students do have teaching experience, but school teaching is not the same as teacher teaching, something upon which the literature insists. Grossman et al. (2009) argue that "teacher educators need to attend to the clinical aspects of practice and experiment with how best to help novices develop skilled practice" (p. 274). Although one's ability as a school teacher can be an entry point to teacher education, the new "role demands a focus on knowledge about, and learning of, teaching in new and different ways such that expertise as a teacher can in fact have limited applicability in practice as a teacher educator' (Berry, 2007, p. 306). The way in which teacher educators work with student teachers,

and the manner in which they construct their teaching about teaching reflects their evolving identities as teacher educators (McKeon & Harrison, 2010).

Furthermore, there is evidence to suggest that not only is the practice of teaching teachers different from that of teaching school children, but also that the demands of teacher educators' working context differ from those of the school environment (Field, 2012; Goodwin & Kosnik, 2013;). Authors stress that school teachers who start to work in a different, and often larger, organisational context like teacher colleges or higher education institutions have to develop specific knowledge and skills to work with adult students, and to work with different pedagogical and assessment methods (Murray & Male, 2005; Swennen et al., 2010; Loughran, 2014).

7.9 Classification of the MEd course objectives

As indicated in Chapter Four, classification principles characterise the objectives of courses within a programme as weakly or strongly classified depending on whether or not they refer to the main goals of the programme. Analysis of the objectives of the courses revealed that some of the courses, though they were labelled as being singulars for a specific specialisation, had objectives that referred to the broader programme goal of building teacher educator professional knowledge and practice. That is, the course objectives relate to programme goals, meaning that the course objectives are not insulated from course specialisation. These are therefore *weakly classified* (C-) objectives. Other courses have objectives that are *strongly classified* (C+), in that their specialisation is somewhat insulated from the main goals of the programme.

7.9.1 Strongly classified course objectives

Strongly classified course objectives are the case for most of the disciplinary courses that were added to the programmes to achieve different specialisations; for the general education courses that focus on no specialisation; as well as for some of the academic content knowledge and pedagogical knowledge courses in both programmes. The various disciplinary courses in both MEd programmes, for example, Adult Education and Adult Learning, have *strongly classified* (C+) objectives. Their objectives require students to acquire the knowledge and skills peculiar to those disciplines (refer to Section 7.6.1.1). Thus the objectives of the Educational Policy and

Planning (in the MEd curriculum) and the Policy, Planning and Administration (in the MA(Ed) curriculum) courses focus on provision of knowledge on planning and educational policy.

The strongly classified nature of the course objectives was not only revealed in the statements of objectives of these courses, but also in the lecturers' responses. A lecturer of four MEd courses in TUMA including Gender Development and Education, and Management of Education, and School and Administration was asked what the focus was when teaching these courses. Her answer was "students to acquire knowledge and develop skills and right attitudes in the practice of these areas" (Interview: U5). As these objectives (the knowledge, skills and attitudes mentioned) refer only to individual course specialisation, they have little bearing on the main programme goals of building teacher educator professional knowledge and practice.

7.9.2 Weakly classified course objectives

A good example of a course that has *weakly classified* (C-) objectives is the Research Methods in Education course in the MA(Ed) at UDSM. Here the objectives refer to broader programme goals. All the students from the four master's programmes in the School of Education at UDSM take this course. They are all taught in one class and the main aim of the course, according to one of its lecturers, is: "to enable students to get skills on how to conduct research in education" (Interview: D1). The MA(Ed) curriculum document and the course outline provide a description of this course as follows:

> This course is meant to help researchers and practitioners to be able to acquire knowledge and skills to describe an education event or situation accurately and vividly so that it can be thoroughly understood. Similarly, it is supposed to help gather information and data for predicting what teaching or learning strategies work in fostering learning. In addition, it strives to improve their knowledge about education in general and the practice of education, e.g., teaching, supervision, and management decisions. Finally, it is expected to enrich their knowledge and skills to explain why the situation is as it is in the education enterprise (UDSM. MA(Ed) curriculum document, n.d., p. 45).

The lecturer in qualitative research in this course described how they make sure they achieve the course objectives:

> When we teach the course, the course is only general but you try as much as possible to make students learn that everyone has to produce a research topic of his or her own interest depending on the specialisation. So we give them assignments, we are telling them to write a mini research, So, everyone chooses the area which he or she think it's

> of his or her own interest. When we correct this assignment, we also mark it according to their specialisation. For example, a student from MEMA programme we don't expect him or her to have a general topic like 'factors affecting teaching and learning of science'. With that topic, I will tell him or her this is not your area, you are in the field of education management so think about policies or planning or leadership etc. That is how we do it (Interview: D1).

In the TUMA MEd curriculum document, the course, Test Construction, Measurement, Educational Statistics and Evaluation, for example, though it is labelled as being a course specific for examination officials, its objectives refer to the broader programme goals of building professional assessment practices:

> The purpose of this course is students to study in-depth uses and limitations of a variety of assessment methods and tools including tests. They will study different types of tests, objectives for administering each of them. They will also study different test constructions, validity and reliability of results holistic and analytic formative and summative evaluation including analysis of educational statistics. The integration of curriculum, instruction and assessment will be emphasised (TUMA. MEd curriculum document, 2009, p. 20).

A course in the MA(Ed) programme with a similar categorisation is Advanced Curriculum Development. It is an optional course taught by two lecturers, the advanced part of the core course Curriculum and Teaching (Interview: D2; D5). This course is also labelled as a course specifically for curriculum developers, despite its objective referring to the main programme goal of developing teacher educators who train school teachers. The lecturer on the course contended that the course's "main intention is to offer specialist knowledge to curriculum developers, to individual whose job is the development of curriculum" (Interview: D5). Another lecturer on this course also insisted that

> This one [Advanced curriculum development course] is not targeting per se teachers of teachers. This one is targeting curriculum specialist, people who work with institute interested in or working or work with…. do jobs related to curriculum development. … like NACTE [National Council for Technical Education] like TIE [Tanzania Institute of Education] curriculum evaluation, curriculum development, those kind of institutions (Interview: D2).

Although both lecturers characterised the course as designed for curriculum developers, its objectives refer to building teacher educators' curriculum development professional practice. Besides, the administrator (and a lecturer) in the School of Education at UDSM concur with the

literature by referring to the curriculum course in the MA(Ed) as one of the education areas that designers of the programme targeted for teacher educators (refer to Section 7.7.1).Having shown that both MEd curricula have courses with strongly classified objectives and courses with weakly classified objectives, I now explore the evaluation criteria of the MEd courses.

7.10 Evaluation criteria

UDSM and TUMA, as discussed in Chapter Six, Section 6.2, are the fields of reproduction that define the measures to determine the achievement of the MEd programme goals and course objectives. The members of staff are the agents who regulate the evaluation rules that assessing the attainment of knowledge. The rules regulate the evaluation criteria for assessing knowledge and skills acquisition, as a measure of the achievement of the curriculum and course objectives. This section analyses the evaluation criteria of the MEd curricula using Bernstein's concept of framing.

7.10.1 Framing of courses evaluation criteria: Evaluation-what and evaluation-how

As described in Chapter Four, Section 4.5.2.2.1, the framing of the instructional discourse of evaluation criteria refers to both the evaluation-what, i.e. what knowledge is assessed, and the evaluation-how, i.e. how it is assessed. The instructional discourse is weakly framed (F-) when the evaluative criteria are implicit. This means that lecturers have control over how to assess the curriculum content. When the evaluative criteria are specified and explicit, the instructional discourse is strongly framed (F+), meaning that lecturers have a limited say in decisions about evaluation criteria.

In the MA(Ed) curriculum document the evaluation criteria only specify the grades and the types of assignments, i.e. how the knowledge is to be assessed (as shown below), and hence are weakly *framed* (F-):

Evaluation Modalities	
Major paper	20%
Seminar presentations	10%
Annotated bibliography	10%
Book critique	10%
University examination	50%
Total	100

(UDSM. MA(Ed) curriculum document, n.d., pp. 55-56)

The MA(Ed) curriculum document recommends that course instructors specify the grades awarded for each type of assignment. This means that the MA(Ed) lecturers have control over the selection, sequencing and pacing of their course assignments for assessment. However, the analysis of many course outlines shows less attention being paid to framing the evaluation criteria. For some of the course outlines, the assessments do not even indicate the type of assignments to be assessed. Examples of these assessments are that of the Curriculum and Teaching, and Research Methods in Education courses as shown in the excerpt below:

> **Course Assessment**
> - Course work = 50%
> - Final university examination = 50%
>
> **(2014/2015 Curriculum and Teaching course outline, MA(Ed) programme).**

> **Course assessment for Research methods in education**
> The assessment for this course involves three main stages as follow:
> i) In-class assignments and/or exercises: 20%
>
> **(UDSM. MA(Ed) curriculum document, n.d., p. 48)**

These evaluation criteria are still implicit, as they mention only the terms *assignment* or *course work,* without indicating the type of assignment or specify what tasks will be involved in the course work. In addition, there is no indication of what knowledge will be assessed in the course work and the assignments. In other words, both the evaluation-what and the evaluation-how are still implicit.

Among the MA(Ed) course outlines analysed, only one has explicit evaluation criteria with explicit mention of the knowledge to be assessed and the type of assignment to be set to assess the knowledge. This means that the lecturer takes advantage of the weak framing (F-) of the evaluation criteria in the curriculum documents to determine and specify the assessment of his or her course. The solitary exception was found in the course outline of the Comparative Education course, as shown in the excerpt below:

> **Evaluation**
> a. Course work
> 1. Presentation 10% (Group work/activity)
> 2. Article Critique 15% (Due Week 8)
> 3. Semester Paper 25% (Due week 10)
> b. University Examination 50%
> **Total 100%**

About the Article Critique

1. Summary of the contents of the article assessing whether or not the author's main ideas are clear from the summary/conclusion, and whether there are any unnecessary details (specify them if any). What suggestions does one make about the summary?
2. The critique has to analyse the extent to which the content and context are "relevant" to the historical material conditions of Tanzania. It has to be critical, set forth in a logical way and documented by references to other readings and speculations but these have to be based on a clear theoretical framework that is well documented.
3. The article should be published between 2011 and 2013 and preferably choose one that is related to your area of intended research problem/theme for your dissertation.
4. Your paper should not exceed 8 type written pages, double-spaced using font 12.

About the Semester Paper

You are free to choose any theme of your interest. The paper should be comparative in nature and you are strongly advised to gear your theme and literature on issues of your intended dissertation problem. Such early preparation should enable you to be on the right footing for your research proposal.

The final paper should be typed, lucid, and brilliant of length 15 pages using font 12 (double space).

(2012/2013 Comparative Education course outline, MA(Ed) programme).

In case of the MEd curriculum document, there are implicit evaluation criteria which only specify the grades of the assignments and university examination, and hence are *more weakly framed* (F-) evaluation criteria:

Student assessment

Course work 40% constituting
Assignment I: 20%
Assignment II: 20%
End of semester examination: 60%

(TUMA. MEd curriculum document)

As the curriculum evaluation criteria were largely implicit, the expectation was to find explicit course assignments and grades in the course outlines. But analysis revealed that the same approach to assessment had been repeated for all the courses in the MEd curriculum.

The literature maintains that explicating the evaluative criteria is a crucial aspect of a pedagogic practice to promote students' grasp of higher order thinking skills (Morais, as cited in Hoadley & Muller, 2009). Explicit evaluation criteria have also been shown to improve students' achievement (Hoadley & Muller, 2009). It was explained above that the role of agents in Bernstein's field of reproduction is the transmission of knowledge. This field regulates

evaluative rules which decide what measures are to be used to assess the acquisition of the knowledge. The situation discussed here seems to imply that lecturers in both MEd programmes who do not take the advantage of *weakly framed* (F-) evaluation criteria of the two curricula to create explicit measures to assess students are not active agents in the field of reproduction. This may impact students' achievement and thinking skills.

7.11 Course references

One of the issues investigated in Chapter Six was the availability of teaching and learning materials and resources in TUMA and UDSM. Site visit observation revealed that many library resources, especially books at UDSM, are old and outdated. This also applied to the reference lists in the MA(Ed) curriculum documents and in the outlines of the individual courses.

The analysis revealed that while some of the course outlines had recent and relevant references, others had lists containing old and outdated references, no matter how current the course outlines were. Below is a list of references from the 2014/2015 Curriculum and Teaching course outline:

Some Selected and Recommended Reading Materials

1. Goodson, I. (1988). The Making of Curriculum. Falmer Press.
2. Kelly, A.Y. The Curriculum: Theory and Practice, Harper & Row, 1977 (Second Ed) 1982.
3. Lawton, D. (1973). *Social Change, Educational Theory and Curriculum Planning*, University Books.
4. Marsh, Collin & Willis, George (1995). *Curriculum: Alternative Approaches, Ongoing Issues*. Merrill. Prentice Hall., Inc. Englewood Cliffs. New Jersey. Columbus. Ohio. ISBN: 0-02-428113-1.
5. Posner, G. 1. (1992). *Analyzing the Curriculum*. McGraw-Hill, Inc.
6. Taba, H. (1962). *Curriculum Development Theory and Practice*. Harcourt, Brace & World.
7. Tyler, RW. (1950). *Basic Principles of Curriculum and Instruction*. University of Chicago Press.
8. Van den Akker, J, Kuiper, W, Hameyer, U (2003). *Curriculum Landscapes and Trends*.
9. Wheeler, D. K (1967). *Curriculum Process*, Hodder and Stoughton
10. Zais, S. R (1976). Curriculum Principles and Foundations, Thomas Y. Crowell
11. Njabili, A F. (1999). *Public Examinations: A Tool for Curriculum Evaluation*, Mture Educational Publishers
12. Giroux, H., Penna, A., Pinar, W.F. (1981). *Curriculum and Instruction*. Berkeley M. Cutchan Publishers. Co.
13. Golby, M., Greenwald, 1. & West, R. (Eds.). (1975). *Curriculum Design.* Croom Helm.
14. Hargreaves, A (1989). *Curriculum and Assessment Reform*. Open University Press. Milton Keynes.

15. Osaki, K. & Pendaeli J. (1991). *Curriculum Development for Teacher Education*. Dar es Salaam. UDSM on special reserve.
16. Stenhouse, L. (1973). *An Introduction to Curriculum Research and Development* Heinemann.

(2014/2015 Curriculum and Teaching course outline, MA(Ed) programme)

A good example can be found in the course outline of Research Methods in Education, which contains some recent and relevant books like the 2010 (eighth edition) of Ary et al.'s *Introduction to research in education*. However some of these books are not available in the resource centre or in the main library. Some of the listed editions like *Research methods in education* of 2010 by Cohen et al. are not available; the library has the sixth edition of 2007. The most recent research methods book available in the UDSM main library is, according to the library OPAC, the 3rd edition of 2014 *Research methodology: methods and techniques* by Kothari and the 2014 *Mixed methods social networks research: design and application* by Silvia Dominguez and Betina Hollsteun. The analysis showed that the list of references in the Research Methods in Education course outline does not contain several essential research books, yet library observation revealed that some of these listed books (if not the latest version) are available.

As revealed in Chapter Six, the shortage of books at the UDSM was also noted by MA(Ed) lecturers, one of whom said:

> You see you give students an assignment of presenting the education system in South Africa now, and book are not available in the library, so what you do is to ask them to go to the embassy of South Africa. And there they talked to people there and then they come to share the experience with their colleagues. (Interview: D4)

This, as was stressed by lecturers in Chapter Six, Section 6.5.2.2.7, has consequences for the development of quality students. The lack of up-to-date and appropriate books (and other reference materials) deprives MA(Ed) students from accessing significant knowledge about new developments in teacher education and constrains them from leaning new practices of teaching. It also affects their ability to create new knowledge in different teacher education fields, including research and curriculum design.

7.12 Synthesis of the argument

The discussion in Section 7.8 and subsequent sections has focused on the analysis of several curriculum components of the two MEd programmes. In summary, the findings revealed that, in addition to the general inadequacy and irrelevance of the knowledge contained in the courses for teacher educators, a lack of appropriate instructional strategies, insufficient practical activities, outdated reference materials, and strong classified course objectives also contributed to constraining the development of quality teacher educators.

7.13 Conclusion

The central aim of the chapter was to investigate what knowledge was privileged and how it was selected in the programmes under review. Bernstein's concept of classification was used as an analytical tool to explain how MEd curriculum courses are selected and recontextualised in the professional world of work of teacher educators. The main conclusion reached in this chapter was that both MEd programmes form weak regions for teacher educators. This is because of the accumulation of courses unrelated to teacher educators' roles and functions.

According to the literature, changes in higher education are taking place in the production and application of academic knowledge (Barnett et al., 2001). For most academics, an institutional loyalty has become secondary to a disciplinary loyalty, with the recognition that the practice of a profession within a curriculum is framed by the deep, underlying disciplinary structures of the professional field of knowledge (p. 436; see also Bernstein, 2000; Wheelahan, 2010). Weak regions, Muller (2009) argues, do both the professional community and academia a disservice, and therefore deserve strengthening (p. 215). It is important to consider ways in which a region maintains its strength and durability (Hordern, 2016).

The chapter also discussed the possible generative mechanisms underlying the selection of the components in the MEd curricula. Entry qualification, for example, was identified as a possible mechanism behind the inadequate scope of teacher educators' knowledge in the MEd curricula, and the absence from the programme of teaching practice.

This and the previous chapter comprised analysis, interpretation and discussion, answering the two research questions. The next chapter synthesises and concludes the study.

Chapter Eight
Synthesis and Conclusion

8.1 Introduction

This chapter synthesises the main findings of this study, by recalling and addressing its goal: *to uncover, identify and explain the conditions enabling and/or constraining two Master of Education programmes' development of quality teacher educators*. The chapter starts with a brief summary of the research process, followed by summary of the research findings. There then ensues a discussion of the conditions constraining the MEd programmes' development of quality teacher educators. The chapter presents the lessons learned from the study and recommends adjustments to enable the MEd programmes to realise their aim of developing quality teacher educators. The chapter also considers the implications of the findings and the significance of the study, makes some proposals concerning implementation, and suggests possible further research.

8.2 Research process

This research analysed the establishment, conceptualisation, design and selection of the curriculum components of two MEd programmes in selected universities in Tanzania. The objective was to determine whether these enabled or constrained the development of quality teacher educators. The research also aimed to identify possible mechanisms that may have influenced the establishment, conceptualisation, design and selection of the MEd curriculum components in relation to the quality preparation of teacher educators. The study was guided by the following questions:

1. What are the contextual power structures and the underlying causal mechanisms that generate and shape the establishment, conceptualisation and design of selected MEd programmes in Tanzania?
2. What are the generative mechanisms underlying the selection of the curriculum components of these MEd programmes?

I employed Bernstein's conceptual vocabulary and the perspectives of critical realism to answer the research questions. I worked with Bernstein's theory to develop an external language of description to guide the analysis of the MEd curriculum components and the establishment, conceptualisation and design of the curriculum content. Critical realist ontological depth helped

me to uncover the possible mechanisms beneath the surface appearance of the two MEd programmes, so as to explain their establishment, conceptualisation and curriculum design. Critical realist ontological depth specifically enabled me to uncover possible mechanisms underlying the selection of the knowledge included in the two selected MEd curricula.

Three methods were used to collect the data that was analysed to develop the key findings of the study. The first involved the collection and study of various documents, to find out what is said about the university programme in general and the two MEd programmes in particular, in relation to teacher educators' professional knowledge and skills. The strength of this method was that it stimulated the development of empirical findings and corroborated things that were said by participants. This was the second method, interviews conducted with administrators, designers and lecturers, to ascertain their views on the establishment, conceptualisation, and curriculum design of the MEd programme with which they were involved. Observation was the third data collection method, aimed at assessing the infrastructure, teaching and learning resources, facilities and services at the two universities. Literature in the field of the education of teacher educators was consulted, to determine what experts have had to say about the preparation of teacher educators. This was useful because sources from outside the two cases introduced new and different perspectives on quality teacher educator preparation programmes.

8.2.1 Critical self-reflexivity

In the third section in Chapter One, I described my motivation for conducting this study. In Chapter Five, Section 5.9.2, I explained how I dealt with the threat to validity stemming from my occupation as a quality assurance officer in the Tanzania Commission for Universities (TCU). I was aware of the need to manage any possible tension arising from my being simultaneously a quality assurance official and a qualitative researcher trying to understand a phenomenon. Throughout the research process, I constantly engaged in reflexivity by critically examining my reasons for undertaking this research and my choice of topic. I carefully examined my reasons for choosing the theoretical frameworks, the site and participants for the study. I also reflected on the processes that I followed in analysing and interpreting the data, as well as in presenting the findings.

8.3 Summary of research findings

The findings with respect to the first research question were as follows. While there was limited information about the establishment and the way that the MA(Ed) programme at UDSM was designed, possible underlying mechanisms constraining effective implementation of the programme are the scarcity and/or irrelevance of resources and facilities, which tends to affect lecturers' teaching and students' learning of knowledge and skills. The concern with the MEd programme at TUMA is not just the implementation but also the curriculum design preparation. Whereas the university has satisfactory resources, facilities and academic services for Master's programme provision, the lack of an appropriate design team and adequately qualified teaching staff are among the conditions that affected both the selection of curriculum components and their effective implementation. The absence of standards and teacher educators' competences are additional mechanisms that could influence the quality teacher educators' preparation in both programmes.

Regarding the second research question, my analysis indicates that in addition to there being inadequate knowledge for teacher educators in both MEd programmes, an accumulation of inappropriate knowledge resulted in these programmes being weak regions for teacher educators' professional field of practice. Possible mechanisms underlying the inadequate inclusion of teacher educators' knowledge include programme entry qualification, the curriculum arrangement of core and option courses, the size of the curriculum and course content, the instructional time and the practice of hiring part-time lecturers. A lack of awareness of the knowledge and skills appropriate to teacher educators' specialisation and the absence of recontextualisation principles to guide the appropriate selection and recontextualisation of the relevant teacher educator courses, were mechanisms identified as possible causes for the weak regionalisation of the knowledge in the MEd programmes.In addition, inappropriate instructional strategies, insufficient practical activities, outdated reference materials, and strongly classified course objectives also impacted on the quality of the professional development of the teacher educators.

During the interviews with the administrators and lecturers, two main issues were noted. The first is that some of the participants have realised the weakness of these MEd programmes through the establishment of other MEd programmes where these weaknesses have been

addressed. One of the administrators at UDSM School of Education, who is also a lecturer in the MA(Ed) programme, described the lack of focus in this programme and explained how the issue has been resolved in new programmes established in the UDSM colleges. A similar scenario occurred at TUMA. One of the faculty administrators shed light on why the MEd programme did not get enough applicants and hence had to stop. He mentioned several issues concerning the programme, including its content weakness (refer to Chapter Six, Section 6.5.1.1) and the shortage of qualified lecturers (refer to Chapter Six, Sections 6.5.2.2.4). He noted that the issue of curriculum content had been taken care of in the Master of Educational Management programme, and that the new programme was attracting sufficient applicants.

It has been found, as is argued in Section 8.4, below, that in both situations the nature of the programme content does affect the quality of the graduates. It has also been found that some of the administrators and lecturers not only agree about the weaknesses of the content of the MEd programmes, but also have ideas about what to do to improve the quality and provision of these programmes for quality teacher educators. In the section below, I provide a discussion of the conditions constraining the development of quality teacher educators by MEd programmes.

8.4 Conditions constraining quality in the professional development of teacher educators

With regard to the research findings, I make the following arguments about conditions constraining the development of quality teacher educators by the MEd programmes:

8.4.1 Weak regionalisation of the MEd programmes

The MEd programmes with their regionalisation of knowledge from multiple disciplines differ in a number of ways from regions such as medicine or engineering. Such programmes, in Muller's words "are more diffuse, fluid and less organised, and consequently send out more ambiguous, frequently contradictory signals about professional requirements to the academy" (Muller, 2009, p. 214). The specifications and teacher educator professional roles are distorted and unclear in these MEd programmes. The pedagogical and academic content knowledge for teacher educators are under-specified. The consequence of this under-specification is a weak professional identity compared to professions like medicine and engineering (refer to Chapter Three, Section 3.7). The overall consequence is likely to be a weakening and devaluing of the profession.

Bernstein talks of regions as the knowledge structures that underpin professional knowledge. Regions involve the recontextualisation of a collection of singulars, with the consequence that there "necessarily is a weakening of the classification of the component discourses that the region recontextualises for its own purposes" (Beck & Young, 2005, p. 187). Moreover, while singulars face inwards, regions face outwards to various fields of practice in the everyday world (refer to Chapter Four, Section 4.5.2.1.2). This, according to Beck and Young (2005), would seem to suggest that the identities associated with regions might be more diffuse, such as in the case of the 'classical' university regions such as engineering, medicine and architecture (p. 187).

8.4.2 Higher education and customer demands dominance

The perceived demand for a general education qualification, arising directly either from the customers (students) or universities, results in a number of disciplines or specialisations within a single programme. This is the nature of the courses in the MEd programmes (refer to Chapter Seven, Sections 7.6.1.1 and 7.7), leading to the creation of several regions in one programme. As a result, the specialised knowledge needed by the would-be professional, the anticipated region of the teacher educator professional field of practice, becomes weak (refer also to Chapter Seven, Section 7.6.3). Thus university programmes are subjected to dominant market or commercial logics that shape practice and exacerbate dislocation from sources of disciplinary knowledge, leaving programmes' professionalism weakly developed (Hordern, 2016, p. 441). Professional work is pervaded by market or bureaucratic imperatives that challenge ideals of professional autonomy or community (Hordern, 2016).

Although this situation may in a certain light seem to take into account students' desires and serve to broaden access to many professions, it also has a negative effect on the quality of the profession that the programme intends to develop. This is because the multiple regions in a programme become increasingly dependent on the requirements of the multiple external fields of practice to which the programme is linked. In this way, the programmes become less dominant in shaping the content of the main region, and the MEd programme's main goal of developing quality teacher educators becomes blurred and hard to reach (refer to Chapter Seven, Section 7.4.4).

The findings of this study support the arguments made in the literature, to the effect that the choices have to be made to involve essential sources or orientations in the selection of the knowledge for a particular profession. This is evident from van den Akker (2003, p. 7), who remarks: "the result of adding up all kind of wishes, students' or consumers' and institutions' wishes, is that curricula tend to get overloaded and fragmented. Implementation of such incoherent curricula eventually tends to lead to student frustrations, failure, and dropout" (refer to Chapter Seven, Section 7.7).

8.4.3 University administration autonomy

Two conditions relating to university administration autonomy constrain the development of quality university programmes, including the MEd programmes. The first is prioritising consideration of student demands over national needs. University administrators are increasingly forced to structure programmes to meet the perceived demands of students (refer to Chapter Six, Section 6.3.3.2). External forces increasingly shape the terms on which singulars contribute to regions. Regionalisation is partly driven by student specialisation demand-led calculations on the part of university administrators, whose main concern is to maximize the number of applicants for programmes in their institutions. Such pressures directly affect programme courses, which are the singulars within the regions. Singulars are increasingly strongly classified; course modules and topics become fragmented, and the unity and interrelations among courses are simultaneously eroded in the attempt to force every student's specialisation demands in a programme (Beck & Young, 2005).

A second condition is the power of university administrators over the curriculum design process – their power over what to be included in the curriculum, who to be involved in the design process, and how the process is to take place, can have a huge effect on the quality of the programmes (refer to Chapter Six, Sections 6.3.3.3 and 6.3.4.1). If the curriculum process is not carefully considered, the administrators' actions, for whatever reason, might results in a programme that is not effective in developing quality graduates (refer to Chapter Six/Section 6.5.2.1).

8.4.4 University regulations and public universities

The historical background of university regulation is another condition constraining the development of quality teacher educators by MEd programmes. The first university regulatory body, the Higher Education Accreditation Council, regulated only private universities. Public universities regulated their own programmes (refer to Chapter Two, Section 2.5.2.2), and the quality of some self-approved programmes was doubtful (URT. MoSTHE, 1999; TCU, 2016). Programmes such as the MA(Ed) at UDSM, which was designed over forty years ago, has been cannibalised by other universities to make their own programmes (refer to Chapter Six, Section 6.3.2.1). The historical, political and academic influence of the University of Dar es Salaam is an added factor contributing to this tendency. The analysis in Chapter Seven reveals the inadequacy and irrelevance of the knowledge for teacher education in the MA(Ed) programme. This has resulted in the replication of poor quality, in the form of the MEd at TUMA, a situation that constrains the development of quality teacher educators. The Tanzania Commission for Universities (TCU), which is now mandated to regulate all universities, is currently facing a challenge in this regard.

8.4.5 TCU programme approval process

The process of approval of programmes at TCU applies to new programmes. Old programmes can continue to exist as they are, while their duplication in new programmes is also continuing. The process of approval of these new programmes is also a vexed issue, as it involves peer reviewers who have often been involved in one way or another in designing the programme to be approved. The MEd at TUMA is an example of such a case. While there were recommendations from TUMA academic staff for changes to the content of its curriculum, the programme was nevertheless approved by peer reviewers at TCU. Both conditions constrain the development of quality teacher educators by such programmes.

8.4.6 Misunderstanding, misconception and/or weak recognition of teacher educator roles and functions

The misunderstanding and/or misconception of teacher educator roles and functions is a constraining factor for MEd programmes to develop quality teacher educators, as the question of what knowledge these future professionals need to receive can be answered inappropriately. The

shutdown of the MEd programme at TUMA highlighted students' dissatisfaction with the programme content, which did not seem to relate to what they are supposed to do after they finish their studies. It was revealed that inadequate pedagogical knowledge for teacher educators creates complications for them when they need to develop effective learning among their student teachers (refer to Chapter Seven, Section 7.5.1.1.1).

The body of literature on the knowledge demands for teachers argues that teachers who have deeper pedagogical knowledge of teaching are more effective at teaching their students. This argument is also valid for teacher educators. Loughran (2007) claims that:

> Just as the transition from student to teacher offers new and important insights into learning about teaching when developed from the perspective of a student of teaching, so too the shift from classroom teacher to teacher educator is equally important when framed from a teacher educator's perspective. (Loughran, 2007, pp. 13-14)

There is a view that teacher educators need a more comprehensive pedagogy for teacher education. In their article *From teacher to teacher educator: reframing knowledge in practice*, Dinkelman et al. (2006) declare that "it was in practice that they [teacher educators] met the challenges of their transition head-on, and it was in practice that the boundaries separating [school] teaching from teaching teachers began to emerge" (p. 124). Berry (2009) also confesses that as a beginning teacher educator she immediately came to realise that she could not simply transfer that which she knew into the new teacher educator's context and into the minds of the student teachers in her classes (p. 310).

There are many examples of research, especially self-studies, which examine teacher educators' practices in relation to teaching education in different contexts (e.g. Zeichner, 2005; Kosnik, 2007; Kane, 2007; Craig, 2008; Minott, 2010; Boyd & Harris, 2010; Wood & Borg, 2010; Trent, 2013). Self-study researchers provide a way for teacher educators to describe and interpret their pedagogies. These studies found that there is no doubt that most teacher educators, as is the case for both MEd programmes investigated in this study, do not receive sufficient education in teaching student teachers (Korthagen et al., 2005). The literature reveals how school teachers with little pedagogical knowledge of teaching teachers struggle in their journey to become

teacher educators. Williams and Ritter (2010) talked of a teacher educator who had approximately 25 years' experience of teaching in primary schools in Australia. This teacher educator, although she taught for four years in a casual tutoring position in teacher education programmes while undertaking her doctoral studies, did not feel that she had developed a strong identity as a teacher educator. Rather, she identified herself more strongly as a primary teacher working on the periphery of academia (pp. 78-79).

The study findings revealed several other conditions that constrained the MEd programmes' development of quality teacher educators. These included a lack of awareness of the needs of teacher educators, a lack of resources, time constraints, the absence of recontextualisation principles, the non-existence of a professional association of teacher educators and a consequent lack of standards and competences for teacher educators, and a weakly framed research knowledge base for teacher educators.

8.5 Lessons learned from the study

With regard to the constraining conditions described above, a number of lessons were learned from the study. This section discusses specific lessons to be learned from the study for specific groups of stakeholders involving in the process of curriculum design and decision making.

a) University administrators

University administrators and their decision-making bodies have a fundamental role to play in the quality of programmes. They always have the final say in the development of programmes (refer to Chapter Six, Section 6.3.3.2), and often their approach directly affects students' learning outcomes (refer to Chapter Six, Section 6.3.3.3). A sustained commitment to quality programmes by management is necessary for leading the whole institution towards the common goal of developing quality graduates. They should discuss the means for implementing the programmes, measuring progress and evaluating them, to identify possible problems. Administrators should be mindful of motivating deans and heads of departments in this direction. Involving lecturers in designing and refining programmes promotes a sense of ownership; ignoring their input is demoralising (refer to Chapter Six, Section 6.5.2.1). Thus there must be an effective forum for discussion and the sharing of experience between administrators and lecturers on the effectiveness of programmes being developed (refer to Chapter Six, Section 6.3.4.1). Adequate

time, human resources and facilities must be available prior to the planning and implementation of programmes (refer to Chapter Seven, Sections 7.5.2 and 7.8.3.4; also refer to Chapter Six, Sections 6.5.2.2.5 and 6.5.2.2.7 and 6.5.2.2.8). Students should be mobilised, voicing their opinions and helping to define their needs and that of society in relation to quality teaching and the design of programmes.

b) Lecturers

Much of the success of the quality implementation of programmes depends on their implementers, the lecturers (refer to Chapter Six, Section 6.5.2.2.5), and on access to and use of instruments and resources (refer to Chapter Six, Sections 6.5.2.2.7 and 6.5.2.2.8; also refer to Chapter Seven, Section 7.11). Quality teaching requires lecturers to think about their own role in the production of quality graduates, keeping learning alive by, for instance, raising concerns about the appropriateness of the selected knowledge, adequacy of teaching methods, facilities, equipment, qualified academic staff and teaching/learning environment (refer to Chapter Six, Section 6.5.2.1). They can best contribute if invited to serve as evaluators on a par with academic reviewers.

Lecturers' continuous professional development is an important point to be considered for quality curriculum design and implementation. While a well-designed knowledge base needs to be developed in the MEd curricula for teacher educators, lecturers in these programmes need to be encouraged to participate in continuous professional development to ensure that they remain up-to-date theoretically and in research approaches and methodology (refer to Chapter Seven, Sections 7.6.3.3 and 7.7.1). This should include engagement with new and emergent pedagogical approaches and activities, and research drawing on global and local knowledge (refer to Chapter Seven, Section 7.8.1). Communities of practice or research networks in the discipline or education in general, both within and outside universities, are possible forms of support to encourage the development of critical perspectives in research and in education (refer to Chapter Seven, Section 7.6.3.3). There appears to be a need for courses and other activities such as workshops and seminars for lecturers, to help them to update their professional competences in order to gain a more critical perspective on their teaching and research context.

c) Students

Students, the primary beneficiaries of programmes, can be a force in promoting programme quality. They can collaborate with administrators, designers and lecturers in defining a quality programme for their future needs (refer to Chapter Six, Section 6.3.4.1). Like lecturers, students can keep the discussion alive by raising concerns about teaching and learning environments, quality of content, resources, and teaching methods. They can introduce new ideas and influence the university on quality teaching and learning by raising possible problems.

d) Ministry and its policy makers and regulatory bodies

These special bodies dedicated to the formulation and development of policies and university regulations play a pivotal role in sharing information and supporting institutions in the implementation and monitoring of these policies to ensure the quality of programmes, facilities, resources, and the teaching and learning process. These bodies should help the universities work with the policies and regulations while concentrating on their core mission, to ensure that universities deliver quality human resources through quality curricula and effective implementation.

While universities have been given the freedom to design their own programmes, including teacher education programmes (refer to Chapter Six, Section 6.2), the Ministry of Education through its policy makers and organisations such as the Tanzania Institute of Education (TIE) and the Department of Teacher Education, which deals with the training of school teachers, need to work hand-in-hand with university teacher education systems to harmonise the curriculum content of teacher educators with what a school teacher actually needs to know and be able to do. This might result in greater awareness, recognition and understanding of the qualifications, needs, roles and functions that a tutor and an Assistant Lecturer need to acquire and perform for the quality teaching of school teachers.

While the process of programme approval currently involves new programmes, the TCU should ensure that all existing programmes be reviewed on a regular basis. The approval process of new programmes and the review of old ones should involve reviewers from outside Tanzanian universities, from professional bodies, education NGOs, professional schools such as the School of Law, as well as other education institutions inside and outside Tanzania and Africa, so as to

enhance the quality of curriculum content (refer to Chapter Six, Section 6.4.2.3). This may not only help to avoid curriculum duplication by excluding reviewers who in one way or another have participated in developing the programme under review, but should also ensure that Tanzanian universities keep up with curriculum demands in a changing world. It should also encourage Tanzanian university curriculum developers (and administrators) to shape, improve and update their own professional development. They may learn new and emerging approaches in curriculum design and quality, and be able to comprehend more clearly the purpose of teacher education and other academic programmes. Figure 8.1, below, illustrates the involvement of all stakeholders in the development of quality university programmes.

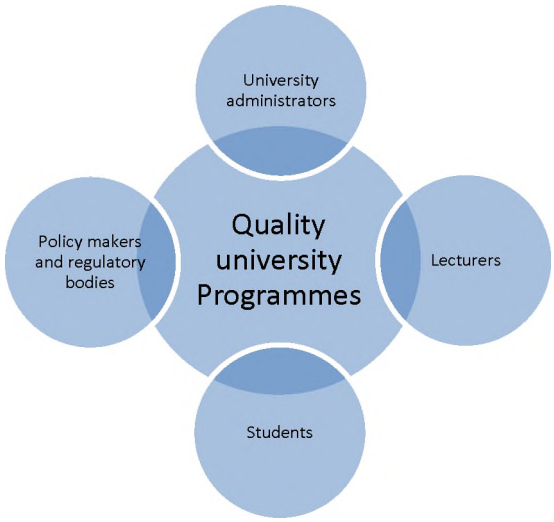

Figure 8.1 Stakeholders' involvement in the development of quality university programmes

8.6 Significance of the study

I believe that the findings of this research can provide practitioners, educators and stakeholders in the field of teacher education in higher education with an understanding of the complexity of the establishment, conceptualisation and design of teacher educators' preparation programmes in Tanzania. The insights provided by this study may assist the two universities that participated in the study to improve their curricula design. The insights may also inform policy makers and regulatory bodies about curriculum quality enhancement in the education of teacher educators, so as to improve the quality of school teachers and the education system as a whole.

The study process itself may benefit the participants through what Lather (1986) calls "catalytic validity", "the degree to which the research process re-orients, focusses, and energises participants in knowing reality in order to better transform it" (p. 67). That is to say, participants may benefit from the interaction and sharing of ideas with the researcher in the interviews and other activities (refer to Chapter Five, Section 5.9.2).

The education of teacher educators in Tanzania has not been thoroughly researched (refer to Chapter Five, Section 3.11). Through this study, it is to be hoped, other scholars will become aware of the need for research in the area, and may want to carry out further research into other pertinent issues such as programme implementation, designers and lecturers' power in the development of quality teacher educators, and the participation of different stakeholders in the university senate and their possible influence on the design quality and approval of the programme. In this way, scholars and practitioners in the field could expand and deepen their understanding of the education of teacher educators in higher education.

Lastly, I provided evidence of how critical realism, with its depth ontology, can enable a deeper understanding of educational phenomena. No similar study has been undertaken on Master's degree teacher education programmes in Tanzania.

8.7 Reflections

This research analysed the establishment, conceptualisation, design and selection of the curriculum components of two MEd programmes in selected universities in Tanzania. I carried out the study with a view to understanding whether these enabled or constrained the development of quality teacher educators.

The study was based in the field of recontextualisation, or the appropriate selection and relocation of knowledge in order to create a MEd teacher educator curriculum. It included some consideration of the field of production to get some indication of how active Tanzanian universities are in creating new knowledge. The study also included some consideration of the field of reproduction through a brief look at the evaluative criteria used in assessing MEd students' knowledge acquisition. If I were to undertake research like this again I would focus on the field of production, to examine where MEd teacher educator knowledge comes from, and

whose knowledge it is. This could help promote insight into their professional preparation. Research in the field of reproduction or knowledge transmission could illuminate ways in which the curriculum is enacted, and this could provide more evidence of the forms of knowledge and practices expected of students, and the ways in which students are being trained to become teacher educators in tertiary and higher education institutions.

The methodology of the study was limited to three methods of data collection, involving mainly three groups of participants, administrators, MEd curriculum developers and lecturers. If I were to undertake this type of research again, I would add more participants, including former MEd students (beginning teacher educators) and their student teachers, to explore their perceptions and experiences with regard to preparation for and the practice of being a teacher educator. This would involve the addition of more methods of data collection, including classroom observation and focus group discussion.

8.8 Implementation

As a conclusion to this thesis, I outline possible implementation of the insights it offers concerning the development of quality teacher educators. The central point to be considered is how the MEd curriculum can be changed for the better. Two changes need to be considered. The first is for the designers to focus on a crucial social problem. In case of the MEd programme, the problem could be the poor quality and performance of school education that persist in Tanzania. Such a problem should foster the need to develop quality teacher educators (Assistant Lecturers and tutors), as revealed in Chapter Six, Section 6.3.1. It is essential to conduct a needs assessment for quality curriculum design. The needs assessment will guide the curriculum developers to select knowledge specific to the particular learners' needs that the programme is aimed at meeting. As revealed in Chapter Six, Section 6.3.1, there were no needs assessments conducted ahead of the introduction of the MEd programmes. As a result, they were an attempt to produce several kind of graduates, with none of them receiving sufficiently specialised training (refer to Chapter Seven, Section 7.7).

The second change is to move away from compound specialisations resulting from the addition of multiple disciplinary courses to the programmes. The research suggests that a MEd programme should be focused on a particular discipline, such as the preparation of teacher

educators, and hence establish criteria for relevant and appropriate knowledge. Efforts must be made during the process of curriculum design to select only components that are relevant and appropriate for the achievement of the programme's goals. I argue for the need for measures to be put in place to ensure that better decisions are made about the selection of curriculum components and the involvement of suitable stakeholders in curriculum change, for the betterment of the curriculum in developing quality graduates.

8.9 Further research

1. This research investigated how MEd programmes were established, conceptualised and designed, and analysed the selection of their curriculum components. According to Posner (2004), curriculum analysis can be conducted in two important areas, curriculum selection and curriculum adaptation. Further research on the MEd programmes could, therefore, focus on curriculum adaptation.
2. The study involved only two MEd curricula. A comparable study involving more programmes would be useful.
3. More research on these two programmes or other MEd programmes might be conducted, to analyse the implementation process through classroom observation. This would provide insight into what happens when curriculum enactment takes place at the level of the classroom.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

List of Master of Education programmes in Tanzania

S/N	Universities/University Colleges	Status	Region	Master education programmes
1.	University of Dar es Salaam (UDSM)	Public	Dar es Salaam	1. Master of Arts (Education) 2. Master of Education (Science Education)
2.	St. John University of Tanzania (SJUT)	Private	Dodoma	3. Master of Arts in Education
3.	Open University of Tanzania (OUT)	Public	Dar es Salaam	4. Master of Education (M. Ed)
4.	University of Dodoma (UDOM)	Public	Dodoma	5. Master of Arts (Education)
5.	Ruaha University College (RUCO)	Private	Iringa	6. Master of Education (M. Ed) in Curriculum and Instruction
6.	Mwenge University College of Education (MWUCE)	Private	Moshi	7. Master of Education
7.	Teofilo Kisanji University (TEKU)	Private	Mbeya	8. Masters of Arts in Education
8.	Tumaini University Makumira (TUMA)	Private	Arusha	9. Master of Education
9.	Aga Khan University – Tanzania Institute of Higher education (AKU-TIHE)	Private	Dar es Salaam	10. Master of Education (Teacher Education)
10.	University of Iringa (UI)	Private	Iringa	11. Master of Arts (Education)
11.	Stefano Moshi Memorial University College (SMMUCO)	Private	Moshi	12. Master of Education
12.	University of Bagamoyo (UoB)	Private	Bagamoyo	13. Master in Education and Allied Sciences

APPENDIX B

Summary of standards for the Dutch Association of Teacher Educators (VELON)

Fundamental of the work of teacher educators:

The teacher educator:

- Work simultaneously on the following three levels:
  1. Understand the development of pupils
  2. Facilitate and supervise the student teachers' development
  3. Is able to steer his or her own professional development
- Focuses on the development of participants. The teacher educator stimulates the participants to take the responsibility for their own development and values the contribution of the participants
- Is a role model for (prospective) teachers

Interpersonal and pedagogical

The teacher educator:

- Create a safe (working) atmosphere
- Support the development of professional identity of the participants
- Stimulate the development of values of the participant and is concise of his or her own values

Pedagogy of teacher education

The teacher educator:

- Create an inspiring and stimulating learning environment
- Acknowledges differences between participants and if necessary is able to act upon them

Working in an organization

The teacher educator organizes his or work and private time well. S/he improvises when necessary.

Working with colleagues

The teacher educator makes his or her educational views and concept explicit, is able to relate them to the views and concepts of colleagues and institute and is able to discuss these

Working in a broad context

The teacher educator has a relevant (inter) national network

Working at one's own development

The teacher educator reflects systematically on his or her own pedagogical approach and (teaching) behavior towards students, colleagues and others

Sources: Koster & Dengerink, 2001; Murray et al., 2009; see also Smith, 2005

APPENDIX C

Summary of standards for the US Association of Teacher Educators (ATE)

According to USA Association of Teacher Educators (ATE), accomplished teacher educators demonstrate the following standards:

Standard 1 Teaching

Model teaching that demonstrates content and professional knowledge, skills, and dispositions reflecting research, proficiency with technology and assessment, and accepted best practices in teacher education.

Standard 2 Cultural Competence

Apply cultural competence and promote social justice in teacher education

Standard 3 Scholarship

Engage in inquiry and contribute to scholarship that expands the knowledge base related to teacher education.

Standard 4 Professional Development

Inquire systematically into, reflect on, and improve their own practice and demonstrate commitment to continuous professional development.

Standard 5 Program Development

Provide leadership in developing, implementing, and evaluating teacher education programs that are rigorous, relevant, and grounded in theory, research, and best practice.

Standard 6 Collaboration

Collaborate regularly and in significant ways with relevant stakeholders to improve teaching, research, and student learning.

Standard 7 Public Advocacy

Serve as informed, constructive advocates for high quality education for all students

Standard 8 Teacher Education Profession

Contribute to improving the teacher education profession.

Standard 9 Vision

Contribute to creating visions for teaching, learning, and teacher education that take into account such issues as technology, systemic thinking, and world views.

Indicators and suggested artifacts – are found on the ATE website (http://www.ate1.org/pubs/uploads/tchredstds0308.pdf).

Sources: Standards for teacher educators, n.d.; Murray et al., 2009; Smith, 2005

APPENDIX D

Table D-1: UDSM MA(Ed) courses

Core courses: Codes and names			**Option (electives) courses: Codes and names (students to choose 2)**
Semester I	**Semester II**	**Semester III**	
EF 601: Comparative Education	EF 600: Research Methods in Education	FE 699: Dissertation	EP 603: Psychology of Child Development EP 604: Theories of Teaching and Learning EA 602: Management of educational institutions and projects EA 603: Educational Planning and Financing CT 607: Advanced Curriculum Development PE 601: Youth and Sports Development PE 602: Economics and Marketing of Sports EF 602: Sociometrics and Microanalysis AE 600: Adult Learning AE 601: Open and Distance Learning AE 602: Management and Financing Adult Education
EA 601: Policy planning and administration	Option 1		
CT 600: Curriculum and Teaching	Option 2		

Source: UDSM. MA(Ed) curriculum document, n.d.

Table D-2: TUMA MEd courses

Year 1				Year 2		
Semester I: Codes and names		**Semester II: Codes and names**		**Semester III: Codes and names**		**Semester IV**
Core courses	**Option (electives) (students to choose 1)**	**Core courses**	**Option (electives) (students to choose 1)**	**Core courses**	**Option (electives) (students to choose 1)**	**Core**
EDU 400: Curriculum Planning, Theory, Design and Development	EDU 404: Professional Ethics for Educators	EDU 407: Management of Education and School Administration	EDU 411: Economics of Education	EDU 500: Contemporary education issue for East Africa	EDU 503: Gender Development and Education	EDU 506: Dissertation
EDU 401: Comparative Education	EDU 405: History and Philosophy of Education	EDU 408: Education Policy and Planning	EDU 412: Environmental Education	EDU 501: Psychology of Human Growth and Development	EDU 504: Information Technology	
EDU 402: Research Methodology	EDU 406: Special Education	EDU 409: Educational Psychology, Theories and Principle of Teaching and Learning	EDU 413: Adult Education	EDU 502: Instructional Technology in Education	EDU 505: Design and Development of Teaching Materials	
EDU 403: Test Construction, Measurement, Educational Statistics and Evaluation		EDU 410: Sociology of Education				

Source: TUMA. MEd curriculum document, 2009

APPENDIX E

Reference list of a TUMA MEd student dissertation

Kothari, C. (2004) *Research Methodology: Methods and Techniques*: New Age International Publication, New Delhi.

Kothari, C. (2006) *Research Methodology:Methods and Tecniques:* Revised second Edition, New Age International Publishers, New Delhi.

Kumar, M. (2006) *Research Methodology: A step by step guide for beginners.* Sage, London

Michelle, H. (2001) *Parents academic expectation, children perception and the reading achievement of children at varying risk,* North Carolina University, North Carolina.

Omary, M. (2011*). Concepts and Methods in Education Research.* Dar es salaam: Dar es salaam University Press

Seidman, D. (2001) *Interpreting Qualitative Research, A guide for Research in Education and Social sciences: New York Teachers College Press.*

Silvia, D. (2000) *Data analysis: A Bayesian tutorial* (second edition), Oxford University Press, London.

Wilkson, B. (1999*). Statistical Inference*. Boston: Macmillan.

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Silvia, D. (2000) *Data analysis: A Bayesian tutorial* (second edition), Oxford University Press, London.

Wilkson, B. (1999*). Statistical Inference*. Boston: Macmillan.

APPENDIX F

Course content of Philosophy of Education or History and Philosophy of Education courses of different undergraduate education programmes in different universities in Tanzania

I. Bachelor of Science with Education of Mount Meru University (MMU)

EF1102B: Philosophy of Education

Course Content

1. Definition of Philosophy.
2. Philosophy as a field study.
3. Purpose of education philosophy.
4. Problems of Philosophy of Education
5. Traditional philosophies of education.
6. Historical background - Greek philosophers; Plato, Socrates, Aristotle, Sophists & other impact on education today.
7. Philosophy of Education in Africa.
8. Definition and values of Education in Tanzania, major problems and possible solutions.
9. Contemporary theories of schooling: Humanism, behaviorism, new progressivism and essentialism.
10. Modern Philosophies of education.
11. Methods of philosophical inquiry.
12. Contemporary themes in Philosophy of Education in Africa.

(MMU. Bachelor of Science with Education curriculum document, 2015, p. 124)

II. Bachelor of Arts with Education curriculum of Stefano Moshi Memorial University College (SMMUCo)

EDU 111: History and Philosophy of Education

Course Description

The course intends to introduce students to the development of education and the prominent philosophers who contributed ideas in the field of education. It will deal with contemporary educational problems facing Africa today and efforts made to control them.

Course Content

i. History of Education
ii. Philosophies and great thinkers from ancient time to present.
iii. Branches of philosophy.
iv. The contribution of Western philosophers
v. The contribution of African Philosophers.
vi. Systems of education in different societies.

(SMMUCo. Bachelor of Arts with Education curriculum document, 2016, p. 19)

III. Bachelor of Science with Education of Teofilo Kisanji University (TEKU)

TED 101: History and Philosophy of Education

History of Education

Course Contents:

- The Concept 'History of Education'.
- Importance of studying History of Education.
- Education in Ancient India, China and Egypt.
- The Greco – Roman education.
- The Jewish – Christian Education.
- The Islamic Education.
- The Rise of Universities.
- Education during the Renaissance and Reformation periods.
- Realism in education (17th Century).
- Naturalism in Education (18th Century).
- The nineteenth century: Science, nationalism and education.
- The progressive and Radical Education (20th Century).
- The African indigenous Education.
- Colonial Education in the British and French colonies in Africa.
- Historical Development of Education in Tanzania.

Philosophy of Education

Course Contents

Topic 1: Philosophy and Education

Meaning, scope and functions of philosophy of Education

- Concept of philosophy as an attitude; an activity.
- What is philosophy of education?
- Branches of philosophy related with education: Metaphysics, Epistemology, Axiology and Logic.
- The importance of philosophy to teachers/educators

The nature and purpose of education:

- The meaning of education
- Context of education: Formal, non-formal, and informal
- Education as tri-polar process
- Education as an outcome
- The individual man, society and education

Topic 2: Philosophical Thoughts in Education

Classical World Philosophies and Modern Philosophies of Education (2.7 – 1.12)

- Idealism
- Realism
- Naturalism

- Humanism
- Liberalism
- Pragmatism
- Existentialism
- Perennialism
- Essentialism
- Progressivism
- Constructivism
- Critical Theory

Topic 3: Traditional African Approaches to Education

- Concept of tradition and its limits
- "Tradition" in African traditional education: aims, knowledge base, method and media/resources.
- Implications of "traditional education" for educational goals, curriculum and instruction

Topic 4: Philosophical Analysis of educational issues and problems

- Democracy and education
- Liberation and education
- Conscientisation and lifelong learning
- Work, production and self-reliance education

(TEKU. Bachelor of Science with Education curriculum document, 2015, pp. 119-121)

IV. Bachelor of Education curriculum of Mzumbe University

EDU 300: Philosophy of Education

Course Descriptions

This course aims at introducing teacher trainees to the field of philosophy of education. It is designed to prepare teacher trainees for a meaningful explanation and interpretation of different terms, fundamental questions of philosophy, branches of philosophy and identification of different philosophers and their associated ideas; and how to apply their ideas in different aspects that pertain to education.

Course Contents

1. Definition of terms:

- Definition of philosophy and philosophy of education
- Metaphysics
- Epistemology
- Axiology
- Traditional philosophical systems

2. Approaches of studying philosophy of education

3. Metaphysics: What is "Real"?

- Idealism and reality
- Realism and reality
- Classical and religious realism
- Scientific realism
- Pragmatism and reality
- Existentialism and reality

4. Epistemology: What is "Knowledge"?

- Idealism and knowledge
- Realism and knowledge
- Pragmatism and knowledge
- Existentialism and knowledge

5. Axiology: What is "Value"?

- Idealism and values
- Realism and values
- Pragmatism and values
- Existentialism and values

6. Applicability of Philosophy in the Classroom Settings (Metaphysics, Epistemology and Axiology and Education)

7. Analytic Philosophy (Critique of Language:

- Principia Mathematica
- Empirical assertions
- Logical analysis of language
- Essentialism
- Progressivism
- Reconstructionism
- Perennialism and the Paedeia curriculum

8. Applicability of Philosophy in Learning

9. Logic:

- Logical reasoning
- Rights (why right?)
- Interests

10. Value Judgement in Education:

- Theories of values
- Values and valuing.

11. Critical Thinking in Education:

- What is critical thinking?
- Critical spirit/critical attitude
- Disposition and willingness
- Impartially
- Evidence and reasoning.

12. Normative, Cognitive and Creative Dimensions of Education:

13. Non-Western Philosophy:

- Ancient – Egypt (The Book of the Dead)
- Enlightenment – Ethiopia (The Treatise of Walda Heywat)
- Contemporary perspectives in philosophy and African Culture (The African Philosophy)

14. The Contribution/Influence of Philosophy in Contemporary Issues on Education:

- Summary: towards own education and philosophy
- Current research issues on philosophy of education

(MU. Bachelor of Education curriculum document, 2012, pp. 88-89)