**MOSHI CO-OPERATIVE UNIVERSITY**

# EVALUATING THE EFFECTIVENESS OF THE IN-SERVICE TRAINING FOR ENGLISH FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHERS IN TANZANIA

**MOSHI CO-OPERATIVE UNIVERSITY**

# EVALUATING THE EFFECTIVENESS OF THE IN-SERVICE TRAINING FOR ENGLISH FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHERS IN TANZANIA

**BY**

**ENITHA MICHAEL MSAMBA**

**A THESIS SUBMITTED IN FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENT FOR THE AWARD OF THE DEGREE OF DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY OF THE MOSHI CO-OPERATIVE UNIVERSITY, MOSHI TANZANIA**

**NOVEMBER, 2023**

## DECLARATION AND COPYRIGHT

I, **ENITHA MICHAEL MSAMBA**, declare that this thesis is my original work and that it has not been presented and will not be presented to any other higher learning Institution for a similar or any other academic award.

**Signature**  **Date 16-11-2023**

## CERTIFICATION

The undersigned certify that they have read and thereby recommend for acceptance by the Moshi Co-operative University a thesis titled **"Evaluating the Effectiveness of the In-Service Training for English Foreign Language Teachers in Tanzania"** in fulfilment of the requirements for the award of a degree of Doctor of Philosophy of Moshi Co-operative University.

**Prof. William A.L. Anangisye**

**Date: 16-11-2023**

**Dr Erasmus A. Msuya**

**Date: 16-11-2023**

## DEDICATION

To my PARENTS and all the TEACHERS whom I have learned from over the years, may the LORD bless you and keep you. May the LORD make His face shine upon you and be gracious to you. May the LORD lift His countenance upon you and give you peace.

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I primarily thank God for the immeasurable overflowing grace, love and power throughout the study. I thank my supervisors, Prof. William A.L. Anangisye and Dr Erasmus A. Msuya, for taking me as their supervisee and for their support, mentorship and patience. I extend my gratitude to all respondents who willingly participated in the study. Special appreciation to *Deutscher Akademischer Austauschdienst* (German Academic Exchange Service) (DAAD) for sponsoring my studies and the Moshi Co-operative University (MoCU) for grating me with study leave and tolerance even when I could not graduate timely. I also thank all the Heads of the Department of Human Capital Management and Administration since 2016 for their unwavering support.

I am grateful to the family members: mum, Maria Mbunju and dad, Michael Msamba; aunties, brothers and sisters; our daughter, Faith Bosco Mutambira and her father, Bosco Mutambira, for their encouragement. I thank all the sisters who have helped us look after Faith over the years; my brother and sister-in-law, LORD bless them abundantly. To all my precious friends, colleagues and guardians in and out of Moshi Co-operative University, I am genuinely grateful for their emotional and physical support. I thank them for being my charitable supervisors, constantly asking how far I have gone with my PhD, checking if my sanity is still intact, asking *"pilau inaliwa lini"* and encouraging and cheering me that it can be done. Well, folks, we made it. Thanks to Laudin and Adamu for making sure that lunch was saved. I also appreciate my friends in ICT, Lukas, Daniel, God and Onesmo, for being one phone call away.

I thank Dr Alban D. Mchopa and Dr Bikolimana G. Muhihi for going through the document when it was still in the early stages and voluminous. Thanks to all the discussants, evaluators and PhD students who have helped shape the work in and out of the Directorate of Research and Postgraduate Studies (DRPS). I thank the internal and external examiners and the panelists of the viva voce presentation. Special thanks to my friends and colleagues: Dr Asteria Ngaiza, Dr Martina Mariki, Ms Grace Nolasco and Ms Irene Biseko, who showed up for the final presentations and made the day joyful. I finally thank my dearly beloved friend, Amos. G. Wakolela, for his friendship, fellowship and encouragement. I thank him for being a part of this journey. Be blessed, love.

## TABLE OF CONTENTS

## LIST OF TABLES

## LIST OF FIGURES

## LIST OF APPENDICES

## LIST OF EXTRACT

## LIST OF ACRONYMS

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| BEST | - | Basic Educational Statistics in Tanzania |
| CAQDAS | - | Computer Assisted Qualitative Data Analysis |
| CBC | - | Competency-based Curriculum |
| CBLT | - | Competence-Based Language Teaching |
| CoL | - | Communities of Learning |
| CPD | - | Continue Professional Development |
| CSEE | - | Certificate of Secondary Education Examination |
| DAAD | - | *Deutscher Akademischer Austauschdienst* (German Academic Exchange Service) |
| DAS | - | District Administration Secretaries |
| DED | - | District Executive Director |
| DEO | - | District Education Officer |
| DPD | - | Direct Professional Development |
| ECL | - | Ethnic Community Languages |
| EFL | - | English Foreign Language |
| EQUIP | - | Education Quality Improvement Programme |
| ESDP | - | Education Sector Development Programme |
| ESR | - | Education for Self-Reliance |
| ETP | - | Education and Training Policy |
| ETP | - | Education Training Policy |
| GoT | - | Government of Tanzania |
| ICT | - | Information Communication Technology |
| INSET | - | In-Service Training |
| JICA | - | Japanese International Cooperation Agency |
| LANE | - | Literacy and Numeracy Education Support (LANES) |
| LCP | - | Learners-Centred Pedagogy |
| LGAs | - | Local Government Authorities |
| LoI | - | Language of Instruction |
| MoEST | - | Ministry of Education, Science and Technology |
| MoEVT | - | Ministry of Education and Vocational Training |
| MoI | - | Medium of Instruction |
| NECTA | - | The National Examinations Council of Tanzania |

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| NF | - | National Facilitators |
| NF-TCPD | - | National framework for Teachers Continue Professional Development |
| PD | - | Professional Development |
| PDTE | - | Postgraduate Diploma in Teacher Education |
| PMO-RALG | - | Prime Minister Office – Regional Administration and Local |
| PO-RALG | - | President's Office – Regional Administration and Local Government |
| RAS | - | Regional Administrative Secretary |
| REO | - | Regional Education Officer |
| RF | - | Regional Facilitators |
| SEDP | - | Secondary Education Development Plan |
| STEP | - | Student Teacher Enrichment Programme |
| TCPD | - | Teachers Continue Professional Development |
| TIE | - | Tanzania Institute of Education |
| TRCs | - | Teacher Resources Centres |
| UNESCO | - | United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization |
| URT | - | United Republic of Tanzania |
| ZPD | - | Zone of Proximal Development |
| CERI | - | Centre for Educational Research and Innovation |
| OECD | - | Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development |
| PEELI | - | Punjab Education and English Language Initiative |

## ABSTRACT

In 2005, the curriculum for the English language in ordinary secondary schools in Tanzania was transformed from a content to a competency-based curriculum. The change necessitated the government and other education stakeholders to commit to regular teachers' in-service training, whereby training of English foreign language teachers (EFL) (among others) was made a priority. However, despite the efforts, the inadequate proficiency of EFL teachers in implementing competency-based English language teaching persists. Moreover, in-service training (INSET) is frequently mentioned among the limiting factors. Yet, while INSET is to blame, an in-depth evaluation of their effectiveness is missing. Therefore, the study evaluated the effectiveness of in-service training in helping EFL teachers interpret the competency-based syllabus and teach its components. The study was guided by social constructivism theory, andragogy theory and Stakes' responsive evaluation model. Methodologically, the study was conducted in the Kilimanjaro and Manyara Regions, and guided by an interpretive research philosophy and a qualitative research approach. The narrative research design was used to collect data from district and zonal education officers, trainers, trainees and heads of schools involved in designing and implementing INSET at the regional levels. Thirty-four-purposely-selected participants were interviewed, and other data were obtained using documentary reviews. All data were thematically analysed using ATLAS.ti. and manually. The overall findings suggest that the in-service training was partially effective. Respondents positively appraised the INSET on its relevance, incentives, content, teaching methods, trainees' involvement during the lesson and its impact on knowledge. However, the context was affected by a lack of content customisation, limited training duration and poor cascading plans. A fund shortage, inadequate learning material and facilities, a deprived learning environment, poor preparation and selection of regional national facilitators also impacted the training. The content was partially covered during implementation, with poor assessment strategies and a limited link between competency-based theory and classroom practice. Lastly, there was a discrepancy in some facets of knowledge gained and limited change stories on planning, teaching, and assessing grammar. Considering the above findings, the study recommends that the MoEST, PO-RALG and TIE improve the training antecedent by customising training per teachers' needs, establishing effective cascading plans, and extending training duration. The resources can be improved by providing sustainable funding, carefully selecting and training national and regional facilitators, improving training centres and equipping them with materials and up-to-date training facilities. The training delivery should be improved by linking theory and practice and providing practical assessment tasks. Lastly, more INSET should be provided to solve the discrepancy in some facets of knowledge gained and limited change stories related to grammar. The study contributes to the body of knowledge in language education by filling the gap regarding the effectiveness of in-service training. Theoretically, the study contributes to the adult learning theory that the need to learn is not always internal. External factors such as training incentives, with economic impact, also motivate adult learning. The issue of incentive provision can also be added to the feature for effective INSET implementation. However, while the study has highlighted several issues for INSET effectiveness, research should be done to evaluate the INSET's effectiveness in improving EFL teachers' CBLT at other levels of education. Another study should make classroom observations of trained EFL teachers to analyse a change in their classroom practice, and one more research should attempt to collect data from training designers and implementors at the national level to broaden the perspectives of in-service training effectiveness.

# CHAPTER ONE

## 1.0 INTRODUCTION

### 1.1 Background to the Study

Countries worldwide have transformed curricula from merely focusing on content, teacher-centeredness and memorisation of ideas to competency-based curricula (CBC) (Mkonongwa, 2018). Early and successful adopters of CBC include Finland, Germany, the United States of America, Luxemburg, Australia, the Netherlands and the United Kingdom (Karani *et al.*, 2021). In East Africa, it was adopted by Kenya in 2009 (Gichuru *et al.*, 2021); Uganda in 2006; Burundi in 2004 (Satoshi, 2020); Rwanda in 2016 (Mugiraneza and Andala, 2019; Musengimana *et al.,* 2021). The change is attributable to economic competition and the dire need for an efficient and skilled workforce to compete in local and global markets (Rahimi and Alavi, 2017).

Tanzania was not exceptional in the need for the above-mentioned curricular changes. The Government of Tanzania (GoT) also realised it is no longer adequate for learners to demonstrate mastery of knowledge. They must also display the competencies required for daily usage and even compete in the global market (Mohamed and Karuku, 2017). Thus, in its 2025 Vision, the country identified the need to restructure its education system to equip members of the society with creativity and problem-solving skills so that they can competently and competitively solve societal challenges (URT, 1999). The aim was implemented during the first phase of the Secondary Education Development Plan (SEDP I) (2004-2009), during which the new curriculum, competence-based, was put into use (World Bank, 2010).

The invented curriculum is labelled a market-sensitive curriculum that helps learners develop analytical skills demanded in the market (United Republic of Tanzania [URT], 2004). Beyond that, it also allows the education system "to produce school leavers with capabilities in terms of knowledge, skills and attitudes useful for solving social and economic challenges" (Paulo and Tilya, 2014, p. 114). It emphasises competence development rather than acquiring knowledge and teaching using learner-centred methods compared to the dominance of teacher-centred methods. It also insists on providing regular and timely authentic formative assessments and constructive feedback to inform students regarding their performance. Besides, it encourages teaching and learning that links theoretical knowledge with real-life scenes and provides differentiated

instruction depending on students' needs (Komba and Mwandaji, 2015; M'mboga, 2021; Paulo and Tilya, 2014; Tilya and Mafumiko, 2010).

In the English language, the new curriculum led to new objectives for learning the subject in ordinary secondary schools. Competently learning English foreign language (EFL) should help learners express themselves in both spoken and written English and read widely for pleasure and information. Moreover, students should be able to perform a variety of writing tasks according to the required conventions and use one's knowledge of English to demonstrate awareness and consciousness of basics of society and the part one can play in its development. Lastly, they should be able to use understanding of English to further one's education and communicate effectively with other speakers of English both inside and outside the country (URT, 2005). That was different from the previous curriculum, content-based, which focused on mastering grammatical, phonological and lexical units with the hope that learners would master the language and use it for effective communication (Mushi, 2009).

Many conditions must be fulfilled for competency-based language teaching to be effective. However, the cornerstone are teachers (Komba and Mwandaji, 2015). The reform requires them to re-invent the school and themselves. Subsequently, high-quality in-service training is essential to help them reconstruct the meaning of the changes proposed and learn the practices for effective implementation (Madondo, 2021; Rogan and Grayson, 2003). Unless teachers have sufficient time to learn and adjust their individual and professional behaviour, proposed changes will not be realised in the classroom (Wedell, 2009).

In Tanzania, however, the introduction of competency-based English language teaching with its immediate implementation did not go hand in hand with the in-service training of English Foreign Language (EFL) teachers to facilitate the enactment of high-quality competency-based lessons (Prosper and Doroth, 2017). Although it was during SEDP I (2004-2009) when the changes were introduced, it ended by only providing in-service training to Mathematics and Science teachers while the rest of the teachers, including EFL teachers, were not (World Bank, 2010). As a result, poor teaching methods, assessment strategies and teachers' dominance during teaching and learning prevailed across the subjects (URT, 2010).

During the second phase of the Secondary Education Development Programme (SEDP II) (2010 – 2016), the GoT took initiatives to institutionalise regular in-service training and develop in-service training policies to help re-orient with the new curriculum (URT, 2010). English foreign language, science and mathematics teachers received three-year cycle in-service training to impart them with a subject knowledge base (URT, 2010). Moreover, the in-service training outcome evaluation indicated that the programme trained 30,000 teachers in science subjects and English language, improved pass rates and the number of teachers trained (World Bank, 2017).

Interestingly, despite the effort to train, studies have persistently reported O-Level secondary school EFL teachers' inadequate proficiency, pedagogically and content-wise, in implementing competency-based teaching. For example, Kiswaga (2017) noted that the English language syllabus is taught more theoretically than practically, and students respond better to theoretical questions than practical ones. Likewise, Lyimo and Mapunda (2016) observed that the new syllabus is slightly practised since assessment and teaching activities do not check with competency-based language teaching principles. Moreover, Biseko *et al.* (2020) and Omari (2019) noted that the teachers' s role is still that of a knowledge transmitter.

The inadequacies mentioned above inclined Sane and Sebonde (2014) to affirm that the competency-based approach is inappropriate for teaching the English language in Tanzanian secondary schools. Their perceptions were influenced by CBC implementation challenges such as work overload, inadequate in-service training, and shortage of teaching materials necessary for communicative language are the reasons for their propositions. While Sane and Sebonde (2014) submit insufficient INSET as one of the reasons for the implacability of the new curriculum (hence its abandonment), evaluation of their effectiveness, which is a mother of all improvement needed to bring quality education (Aziz *et al.,* 2018) is frequently overlooked.

Furthermore, some of the challenges impeding the effective implementation of CBLT: large class size, poor resources, enormous teachers' workload, students' and teachers' low comprehension of the language, etc., are bound to be there. Nonetheless, they can be minimised if INSETs are designed to align with our schools and classroom realities (Wedell, 2011). The evaluation of INSET effectiveness, however, remains essential for

it to be strengthened and improved (Guskey, 2000; Uysal, 2012). Hence, the study's overarching goal was to evaluate the effectiveness of the in-service training in strengthening EFL teachers' knowledge and skills on CBLT.

### 1.2 Statement of the Problem

Teachers are the interface between the formalised and school-enacted curricula (Jenkins, 2020). That means unless teachers are motivated and committed to change, the formalised curriculum may fail to be enacted in schools (Day and Smethem, 2009). It is from those perspectives that, in Tanzania, schoolers demand more INSET provision to help EFL teachers change their teaching practices from content-based to competency-based language teaching (Kiswaga, 2017; Lukindo, 2016; Lyimo and Mapunda, 2016; Magidanga, 2017; Ndulila and Msuya, 2017; Omari, 2019).

Nevertheless, even if more is desired, the effectiveness of the INSET provided so far to assist EFL teachers with competency-based teaching is not documented. According to Govender (2018, p. 1), "Unless the challenges that influence educator's implementation practices are adequately understood, more attempts to improve their practice will never change". Doing so will lead to implementing the in-service training in the same way that achieved less than promised or nothing (Murphy, 2020).

Previous studies on implementing competency-based language teaching in O-level secondary schools have focused on its execution and challenges (Abdala, 2020; Lugimbana, 2017; Mdima, 2015; Mohamed, 2015; Ndulila and Msuya, 2017). Still, many of the reported challenges are linked with what students need for effective learning and not teachers learning during in-service training. Even studies that have criticised the INSET related to the 2005 curriculum reform for being insufficient (Mohamed, 2015), partial (Daniel, 2013), irregular (Komba and Mwandaji, 2015) and inadequate (Makunja, 2016) are too general, not-subject specific and not linked to the evaluation of any particular in-service training focused on the same.

Besides, even the 2017 World Bank evaluation report for in-service training provided to EFL teachers only reported the training outcome by the number of successful teachers to be trained. However, there was no evaluation comment on the in-service training context, resources, implementation and impact. To that end, the study evaluated an INSET

designed to enable O-level EFL teachers teach par CBLT. The focus was on how it was planned, implemented and impacted EFL teacher learning.

## 1.3 Research Objectives

### 1.3.1 General objective

The study sought to evaluate the effectiveness of in-service training programmes in supporting EFL teachers with the knowledge and skills to implement competency-based language teaching.

### 1.3.2 Specific objectives

The study objectives were to:

a) Analyse the context in which the INSET was designed.
b) Analyse whether the INSET had sufficient resources to support its effective implementation.
c) Evaluate whether the INSET was effectively implemented to achieve the objectives.
d) Evaluate the INSET's impact on EFL teachers' learning.

## 1.4 Research Questions

The study intended to provide answers to the following research question:

a) What are the participants' reactions to the context in which the INSET was designed?
b) What are participants' reactions to the sufficiency of resources in supporting effective INSET implementation?
c) How well the INSET was implemented to achieve objectives?
d) What was the INSET impact on EFL teacher learning?

## 1.5 Significance of the Study

The study contributes to the subject-specific body of knowledge in language education, especially on the effectiveness of in-service training provided. For a while, several researchers in the field of language education in Tanzania dedicated their efforts to critiquing English as a Medium of Instruction (MoI) and the challenges limiting EFL teachers' ability to implement CBLT, including the shortage of INSET opportunities.

Nevertheless, the quality of INSET provided is hardly investigated even though it is widely approved to be an answer to poor teaching and learning of the subject and even as a way to improve teacher proficiency in English.

Secondly, the study is significant to the realisation that the 2025 Tanzania vision insists on developing well-educated members capable of solving society's problems (URT, 1999). Similarly, the 2005 curriculum for secondary education insists that a secondary school graduate should be able to demonstrate competencies in critical and creative thinking, communication, numeracy, independent learning, personal and social value, and technology literacy (United Republic of Tanzania [URT], 2007). However, the 2025 Vision and 2005 curriculum achievement are centred on teacher quality. They are one to plan, teach, assess and evaluate students to ensure that competencies are acquired, and capable members of society are developed. Thus, the policymakers could use the study findings and suggestions to improve and strengthen how INSET is designed and implemented. Doing so will strengthen in-service training ability to develop EFL teachers' knowledge, skills, attitude and beliefs on CBLT, change their classroom practice and improve student's learning outcomes, consequently achieving the 2025 Vision.

Lastly, the study contributes to the literature on effective in-service training in Tanzania. While there may not be a shortage of such literature globally, limited studies have been devoted to the in-depth evaluation of subject-specific INSET in Tanzania. Therefore, the study contributes to understanding context-specific conditions that impede or facilitate INSET effectiveness and provides more tailored and impactful recommendations.

### 1.6 Scope of the Study

The study focused on the in-service training implemented in 2015 (Manyara Region) and 2016 (Kilimanjaro Region). The INSET was jointly coordinated and implemented by the then Prime Minister Office-Regional Administration and Local Government (PMO-RALG), the then Ministry of Education Vocational Training (MoEVT) and the Japan International Cooperation Agency (JICA). The training was subject-specific and provided to ordinary secondary school EFL teachers in Tanzania. The INSET focused on strengthening their ability to teach the subject per CBC demands. Specific INSET objectives focused on the serving teachers to:

a) Understand the approach, structure, and organisation of the 2005 English language syllabus and its features.
b) Understand and prepare the format of the scheme of work and lesson plans.
c) Plan, teach, assess and evaluate listening skills.
d) Plan, teach, assess and evaluate speaking skills.
e) Plan, teach, assess and evaluate reading skills.
f) Plan, teach, assess and evaluate writing skills.
g) Plan, teach, assess and evaluate lessons on forms and function.
h) Understand how to organise and manage the classroom.

Therefore, evaluation questions mainly focused on how it was designed, supported, implemented and impacted EFL teachers. However, the study impact was limited to learning and not whether the training impacted EFL teachers' classroom practice and students learning outcomes.

### 1.7 Organisation of the Study

The study is organised into seven chapters: Chapter One introduces the background of the study and states the study problem. The research objectives and research questions were also provided. The chapter ends with the significance of the study and the overall thesis organisation.

Chapter Two presents the context in which the study was done. It provided an overview of teachers' education, both pre-service and in-service, highlighting the status of the English language as a subject and as the Medium of Instruction (MoI). Lastly, the chapter presents the history of curricular reform in Tanzania and worldwide and how such changes influence the need for re-educating teachers.

Chapter Three covers literature reviews. Issues discussed in the chapter include the definitions of the terms, the theoretical stance and an empirical review of the literature. Subsequent sections present the research gap and the conceptual framework. The research methodology is presented in Chapter Four. The chapter covers the study's philosophical stance, approach, design, and study's location. Also, the study's methodological issues, such as population, sample size and sampling procedures, are highlighted. The chapter further depicts data collection and analysis issues such as data type, data collection,

organisation, and analysis. Lastly, the chapter reports on the trustworthiness of the research findings and the observed ethical issues.

Chapters Five and Six present and discuss the study findings. The findings are presented and discussed into four themes based on research objectives: context, resources, implementation, and outcome evaluation. Chapter Seven sums up the study. In this chapter, the overall summary of research findings per objectives is presented, the theoretical and empirical contribution of the study are explained, and the conclusion is drawn. The chapter also depicts study recommendations its limitations and suggests areas for future research.

# CHAPTER TWO

## 2.0 CONTEXT OF THE STUDY

### 2.1 Tanzania Philosophy of Education

Education for Self-Reliance (ESR) is a philosophy guiding the provision of education for Tanzania. It was introduced in 1967 during the Arusha Declaration (Wabike, 2015). The philosophy was promoted by then-president J.K. Nyerere, who used it to change the system, process and product of education away from the colonialist education system (Sumra and Katabaro, 2014). The education provided during the colonial era was not for Tanzanian benefit but rather a deliberate attempt to replace its traditional knowledge, skills and values with Western values. Moreover, it saved the few elites' demands, separated people from the society in which they live, and created class and dependency (Nyerere, 1967; Otunnu, 2014). To correct its misfit after independence, the solution was first to change the curriculum and syllabus content to make it more relevant to the purpose of Tanzania education. Then, change how schools are organised by linking them with society, economically and socially. Lastly, increase the age for primary school enrolment so that by the time a pupil is enrolled on primary education is not too young to handle academics and economic activities implemented in schools and society (Nyerere, 1967).

Therefore, ESR objectives were six, namely:

a) To introduce an education system which is oriented to rural life.
b) To reduce reliance on formal education and insist on informal education by transmitting accumulated wisdom, knowledge and skills from one generation to the next.
c) To integrate productive work in teaching and learning to link theory and practice.
d) To encourage students to engage in self-reliant and productive work from an early age.
e) To prepare society members who value work, equality, and human dignity.
f) To promote cooperation, togetherness and a sense of belonging (Mosha, 1990).

Given the objective as mentioned above, the following changes were introduced:

a) Raising primary school entry level from 5 to 7 years old so that students start school when they are mature enough to handle self-reliant activities.

b) Changing the curriculum to make sure that education provided at each level becomes self-sufficient.
c) De-emphasizing education led to the reproduction of facts compared to skills.
d) The introduction of a curriculum allows students to develop inquiring minds and adopt what is done in society.
e) Making the school part of the community by allowing the school to conduct community activities, e.g., farming and animal husbandry (Mulenga, 2001).

ESR was not only introduced in primary and secondary education, but all principles were to be applied in post-secondary institutions as well. In levels of education, "learning by doing" was a key to integrating post-secondary education institutions with society. Students privileged to attend post-secondary education, such as teachers, doctors, accountants, etc., were required to participate in the project implemented in society as part of learning and assessment. Thus, while learning, they could also save the community, interlink college, university and society and develop practical skills while receiving minimal payment, hence saving the coast (Nyerere, 1967).

Among the documented achievements of ESR was its ability to change students' and society's attitudes toward manual work, introduce equality, reduce the imbalance in regional development and mass literacy, increase the number of personnel required for the middle and lower posts and introduction of participatory decision making (Mosha, 1990). Despite the benefits, much of the ESR philosophy and objectives were geared towards improving primary and secondary education, and not much was commented on teachers' education. One of the challenges that severely impacted ESR achievement was the shortage of teachers' professional development (Nzilano, 2015). Consequently, teachers had a poor conception of what ESR is and how to implement it (Mosha, 1990), and they reduced the pedagogical potential of ESR for economic gain (Ahmad *et al.*, 2014).

Generally, although ESR was and still is a Tanzania education philosophy, its values and objectives are neither in-cooperated with education policies nor supported by the country's capitalist ideology, such as market liberalisation (Hakielimu, 2021). In addition, the system of education still favours those who pass education, teaching is still considered the post for people with low incomes, education is no longer for saving the

community but for salary and improving the status quo, and bookish knowledge is preferred to wisdom and learning from the other members of society (Nyerere, 1967).

On the other hand, teacher education has failed to help teachers fulfil their responsibilities (Rajani, 2003). Among many challenges that affect teachers' education in Tanzania is the absence of a teachers' education policy and a national framework for teacher education (Mgaiwa, 2018). Therefore, no policy guides the inclusion and implementation of ESR philosophy in teachers' education programmes. If ESR values are theoretically and practically included in teachers' education, they will be better positioned to assist students in acquiring competencies and developing confidence for self-employment (Otomewo, 2014).

However, changing teachers' education to teachers' education for self-reliance should go parallel with equipping colleges, universities and schools with resources to facilitate the acquisition of self-reliant skills. Equally, enormous attention should be directed to improving teachers' teachers and tutors' benefits as well as the status quo of their profession (Otomewo, 2014). Otherwise, their job as "builders and moulders of individual, society and national" (Bwala, n.d., p. 9) will not be manifested.

## 2.2 Teacher Education in Tanzania

### 2.2.1 Pre-service teacher education

In Tanzania, teachers' education is grouped into pre-service and in-service teacher education. Pre-service teacher education is provided to those wishing to join the profession for the first time (Kapinga, 2012). It is offered by both private and public colleges and universities (Namamba and Rao, 2017). Teachers' education programmes are delivered using either a conventional approach (colleges or universities) or unconventionally through distance education programmes (Anangisye, 2012).

The structure for pre-service teacher education in Tanzania is divided into Grade IIIA, diploma and bachelor's degree (Kitta and Fussy, 2013). Grade IIIA is offered to pre-primary and primary school teachers, whereas a diploma prepares teachers for secondary schools, even though some teach primary school. A bachelor's degree prepares teachers and tutors for secondary schools and teachers' colleges (Mgaiwa, 2018). A Postgraduate

Diploma in Teacher Education (PDTE) is also offered to university graduates from non-education disciplines who wish to join the teaching profession (Meena, 2009).

However, despite its importance, teaching is considered the last refuge for many students seeking employment opportunities (Anangisye, 2012). It is rare to find a candidate with high performance joining the teaching profession. The majority enrol in teaching either because they do not qualify to register for the programme of their choice, the need for a loan, or the low-cost education programmes (Mgaiwa, 2018). Likewise, the adequate preparation of pre-service teachers is also affected by the under-resourced nature of the teacher education institutions, ineffective professional development (PD) of its educators, inadequate instruction practice and detachments of theory and practice (Chambulila, 2013; Kitta and Fussy, 2013). Given the nature of the students who opt for teacher education, ineffective professional development of the educators and poor learning environment, the need for regular and quality continuing professional teacher education for teachers across all subjects is necessary.

### 2.2.2 In-service teacher education

Besides providing pre-service education, the GoT recognises the need for INSET for its teachers (URT, 1995). INSET is essential not only in Tanzania but even in countries with the best resources and sound training systems because "other professional skill and competence may be best acquired after experience in the classroom rather than before (Hardman *et al.,* 2009, p. 18)." Therefore, whilst initial teacher education is essential, it is still insufficient to equip teachers with the knowledge and skills they need throughout their careers (Deneme and Çelik, 2017). Despite the GoT acknowledgement of the importance of INSET for quality teaching, there was no policy guiding effective implementation of in-service training until 2020, when The National Framework for Teachers Continuous Professional Development (NF – TCPD) was introduced. Before the NF-TCPD introduction, effective implementation of INSET depended on designing specific guidelines for individual programmes or adopting from other similar projects (URT, 2020a).

As of 2020, teachers' continuous professional development (TCPD) in Tanzania is approved, managed and funded by the Ministry of Education Science and Technology (MoEST), President Office-Regional Administration and Local Government (PO-

LARG) and local and international partners, as indicated in Appendix D, Table 1. It could be prompted by a baseline survey, classroom observation, field research, school-based assessment, perceived teachers' needs, curriculum change or monitoring report focusing on improving teachers' knowledge, skills and attitude. The professional development may be formal or informal, provided during work hours, weekends or holidays and conducted at the school level, ward/ cluster, district or council (URT, 2020a). Other prevailing forms of PD include Teacher Resources Centres (TRCs), open and distance learning schemes and in-service training programmes through educational institutions (Anangisye, 2012). The programmes may be conducted using fixed, need-based, or piloted modules. The implementation process must use a transformative approach, regular, user-driven, and collaborative.

## 2.3 Status of English Language in Tanzania

### 2.3.1 English as a medium of instruction (MoI)

The status of the English language in Tanzania can be traced to before the country became independent in 1961. When Britain was the coloniser, English was used as the language of communication in intermediate schools and administration. In contrast, Kiswahili was used in church and local schooling (Wedin, 2008). The bars, however, changed after the country gained independence, chose to remove any trace of colonialism and devoted to the policy of socialism and self-reliance. At that time, Kiswahili was promoted as the national language and used as the medium of instruction in primary schools, primary school teachers' colleges, and adult education. The language was also declared official in all government offices, which barred any unnecessary use of English (Barrett, 1994; Msanjila, 2010; Rubagumya, 1991).

Kiswahili was promoted because it was believed that the country could not be self-reliant if it continued to use English as a medium of communication instead of using our local languages. Thus, Kiswahili had a "social-cement role" in integrating people who spoke a different first language (Vernaculars); hence, it became a lingua franca (Tibategeza and Du Plessis, 2012). The language also symbolised change and promoted power and solidarity among people. Despite the effort to promote Kiswahili, English Language remained the medium of instruction in secondary schools, teachers' colleges (Diploma) and universities. In primary school, it was still taught as a subject for five years (from

class 3) to facilitate a smooth transition for those fortunate enough to join secondary education (Russell, 2010).

The direction, however, changed from the 1980s to the 1990s when socialism ended, and globalisation and privatisation policies were introduced. The language education policy again favoured the English language (Wedin, 2008). While the medium of instruction in primary schools did not change, private English medium primary schools were encouraged and flourished (Barrett, 1994; Rubagumya, 1991), creating a breach of Kiswahili medium and English medium primary schools. Moreover, the recommendation from the 1982 Makweta Commission to use Kiswahili as the MoI from lower level to higher education was ignored as Nyerere uttered that English is the Kiswahili of the world (Rubagumya, 1991). Doubtless, that was a polite way of saying you cannot cut the hands that feed you.

Therefore, since the 1980s, the English language still enjoys the privileges of being the MoI from primary schools to higher learning institutions. Moreover, the 2014 Education Training Policy continued to approve the use of Kiswahili and English as a medium of instruction at all levels of education. Section 3.2.19 of the policy states:

> The National language, Kiswahili, shall be used for teaching and learning at all levels of education and training, and the Government shall set up a procedure to enable the use of this language to become sustainable and efficient in providing the target population with education and training that is productive nationally and internationally.
>
> The Government shall continue with the system of strengthening the use of the English language in teaching and learning at all levels of education and training (URT, 2014, p.38).

Nevertheless, despite the abovementioned declarations in the policy document, English and Kiswahili do not co-exist as MoI (Tibategeza, 2018). Private, pre-primary and primary schools use English as MoI, while public pre-primary and primary use Kiswahili. Moreover, Kiswahili is used as MoI for Grade IIIA teacher education and vocational training. On the other hand, English is used as a MoI in secondary education, technical

and diploma teachers' colleges, and universities. Continued use of English as MoI in secondary schools and tertiary institutions has created conflict between the two languages (Hakielimu, 2021; Rubagumya, 1986). Some scholars have proposed using Kiswahili as MoI from pre-primary to university, replacing English (Hiza, 2020). Currently, the debate is beyond the use of either English or Kiswahili as the language of instruction to multilingualism ideologies which advocate the co-existence and equal emphasis of English, Kiswahili and Ethnic Community Languages (ECL) as MoI (John, 2017; Lauwo, 2020; Mohr and Ochieng, 2017).

Those who advocate for English focus on the ground that good mastery of the language allows Tanzanians to communicate across countries and acquire knowledge and skills (URT, 2014). Conversely, scholars who advocate for Kiswahili as a medium of instruction have different sentiments. For example, Vuzo believes that a language policy favouring foreign languages as the MoI prevents most African people (Tanzania included) from communicating, limiting their access to knowledge and adapting it to improve their lives. In addition, the language is neither used in day-to-day activities at school nor at home, except for the few elites (Vuzo, 2004, 2008). Malekela (2010, p. 110) believes that the English language as a language of teaching and learning in secondary schools is "detrimental to meaningful learning". His argument is influenced by the fact that most students fail to master the English language at the primary school level enough to allow them to communicate and understand the subject taught using English as MoI at the secondary level. Lack of English language proficiency has been noticed in teachers as well.

According to Qorro (2010, p. 187), "most teachers use incorrect English language when teaching subjects other than English". In another study, Qorro believes that using English as the language of instruction is unethical and immoral since it disconnects people from society (Qorro, 2013). Likewise, when English is a MoI, classroom teaching is characterised by memorisation, chorus teaching, lecturing, and few student inputs compared to when Kiswahili is used (Mwinsheikhe, 2008; Vuzo, 2008). Even more, English as MoI is said to affect students' performance. Research by Broke-Utne (2012) and Vuzo (2008) observed that when teachers use Kiswahili as a MoI instruction, students' performance is better than when Kiswahili is used.

Lastly, those who favour multilingualism insist on the right of children to learn multiple languages and acquire numerous language competencies beyond English and Kiswahili (John, 2017). To sum up, several points were put forward to promote Kiswahili and diminish English, as MoI and vice versa, and this section cannot highlight them all. However, Kadeghe (2010) believes that most claims are more subjective and not empirical. While that may also be an area of concern, some of the problems that are said to be the results of using English as a language of instruction are unbecoming. For example, Qorro (2013) suggests that English should not be a MoI because teachers teach with incorrect grammar. Although teachers may lack proficiency in the language, it has nothing to do with English as a MoI. The problem goes back to the whole education system on how student-teachers are selected, trained and evaluated. Besides, low teachers' proficiency in English is not the only factor that leads to students' poor performance. Challenges such as low salaries, lack of INSET to improve their proficiency, delays in promotion, lack of teaching and learning resources and challenging working environment also call for concern.

Principally, the debate over which language should be a medium of instruction will last forever unless changes are made. Nevertheless, if the challenges in Tanzania's education system are not addressed, there will be no alteration even if Kiswahili becomes the medium of instruction. The study, therefore, agrees with Yogi (2017) that language of instruction is just one of the challenges the Tanzanian system faces. Either English, Kiswahili or Ethnic Community Languages (ECL) can successfully be used as a MoI if any language is effectively supported. However, as long as the English language is still a MoI, it is high time that innovative English language INSETs are designed to improve teachers' competence and proficiency in the language. Otherwise, teachers and students will remain deprived of effective teaching and learning (Barasa, 1997) across subjects, not just in English.

### 2.3.2. English language as a subject

Apart from being a Language of Instruction (LoI), English is taught as a subject in Tanzanian primary and secondary schools. The student's attitude toward learning the subject is positive, such that they are even ready to attend paid private tuition sessions to learn the language (Nyamubi, 2016; Tuguta *et al.*, 2013). In terms of academic

performance, an improvement has been observed in Form IV national examination performance over the years, as indicated in Table 2.

**Table 2: Certificate of Secondary Education Examination (CSEE) result for English language, 2013-2022**

| Year | 2013 | 2014 | 2015 | 2016 | 2017 | 2018 | 2019 | 2020 | 2021 | 2022 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| P% | 45.7 | 55.1 | 56.1 | 64.3 | 67.9 | 66.30 | 99.92 | 73.55 | 72.94 | 68.73 |
| F% | 44.3 | 44.9 | 43.9 | 35.7 | 32.4 | 33.7 | 0.08 | 26.45 | 27.6 | 31.28 |

Source: URT (2018, 2021, 2023)

Table 2 indicates the results of the CSEE from 2013 to 2022. While the CSEE result was poor from 2010 to 2013, with the pass percentage at 30.3%, 30.1%, 26.1% and 44.3%, there was an improvement in subsequent years, 2014 to 2022. However, despite performance improvement, studies have noted incongruency in students' ability to use English Language for communicative purposes (Nyamubi, 2016). Studies further illustrate a missing link between the learning outcome and teaching at the classroom level, whereby the subject is still guided by copying notes from chalkboards to exercise books. At the same time, there are large classes and incompetent teachers with no motivation to encourage students to learn the language (Tuguta *et al.*, 2013; Mosha, 2014).

Furthermore, students' infrequent use of the English language at school and home, poor conducive teaching and learning environment in the classrooms and limited home support environment were also observed (Mosha, 2014; Nyamubi, 2019). Equally, Mbaga (2015) and Salema (2015) found that teacher-centred teaching methods and unsatisfactory classroom interaction due to a lack of teachers' creativity have continued to affect English language learning and teaching. Over-reliance on books as the only resource for language teaching and lack of knowledge of multimodality has continued to hinder EFL teachers' innovation in the classroom (Anatory, 2018). In contrast, Amani *et al.* (2021) noted a lack of skills in competency-based assessment and evaluation.

Overall, with the widespread use of English worldwide, there is an increasing demand for competent English teachers and more effective approaches to teaching (El-Fiki, 2012), which Tanzania also needs to align. EFL teachers cannot continue to motivate students to learn the language by only relying on chalk and textbooks (O. Ilomo and S. Ilomo,

2021). Hence, Joyce-Gibbons *et al.* (2018) call for the pressing need to develop EFL teachers' pedagogical strategies for teaching English as a second or third language. Doing so will raise their awareness and sensitivity about the strategies they need to deploy in designing language learning activities (Nyarigoti, 2013). It will also enhance their capacity to provide students with a strong English language foundation needed for further education (Daugaard *et al.,* 2017).

## 2.4 Curriculum Reforms

### 2.4.1 Curriculum reform worldwide

Globally, restructuring of education curriculum can be due to globalisation, the need to standardise and measure education outcomes strictly, or sometimes it is done for popularity or as fashion (Gruba *et al.,* 2004; Wedell, 2009) The change usually manifests in the content, pedagogy and whole education process (Cheng, 1994). Moreover, curriculum reform may take different approaches, such as top-down, bottom-up, or partnership (Kirk and MacDonald, 2001). However, the top-down-bottom-up approach is the best system that effectively promotes and sustains school reforms (Tikkanen *et al.,* 2019).

Yet, regardless of the style taken, the process is not smooth. Complexities that hamper or promote internal and external processes will likely occur during the change process (Wedell, 2009). Moreover, the government's long-term political and economic support, teachers' factors, the school's social structure, resources, school support and attitude, and students' proficiency can negatively or positively influence curriculum change (McGregor, 2013; Yan, 2012). Therefore, collective learning coupled with adequate learning time and quality professional development of those involved is needed if classroom changes are to be realised (Jenkins, 2020; Tikkanen *et al.,* 2017, 2019).

Failures in curriculum change also exist. They may occur because stakeholders at different parts of the system are not involved during the changes' planning, initiation and implementation. The suggested changes may be top-down and made through an "armchair" with little or no thinking of the people who will implement them (Memon, 2013). Likewise, much pressure is put into policy formulation, forgetting its implementation, context realities and other subjective and objective environments where

teachers work (Altinyelken, 2010). Moreover, teachers have been minimally supported despite several adjustments they must make throughout the process (Wedell, 2003). Sometimes, they became aware of the proposed change by reading a textbook to understand "the rationale for change, the goals of change and the implications of change for the teacher, mostly indirectly and inadequately, and through its manifestation in the changed content and structure" (Padwad and Dixit, 2013, p. 114). Hence, changes introduced in the aforementioned manner create teachers who cannot help students achieve the intended curriculum outcome because they have a limited understanding (Vilches, 2018). For that reason, Macdonald (2003, p. 129) and Tajik *et al.* (2019) remark somewhat sarcastically that curriculum innovations are being "lobbed onto schools, whereupon the principal, that is the rooster and teachers, that is the chickens, go into a flurry of activity."

While that may continue to occur, the fact remains that it is not a good policy that will take education changes to the classroom; instead, teachers' interpretation and their reaction to suggested changes will (Wedell, 2009). The bottom-up approach may not be applicable in all settings; still, everyone in the system needs to understand the suggested changes and what is expected from them (Tran, 2018). Failure to engage and educate people on the change process impedes the achievement of the hoped-for education outcomes, consequently reducing countries' competitive advantage in the world. Li (2018) asserts that any change is demanding. The demands, among others, include making a long-term commitment to support in-service teachers learning through different professional development activities, which may be formal or informal (Viáfara and Largo, 2018).

### 2.4.2 Tanzania curriculum reforms from 1961 to date

The journey to curriculum reform in Tanzania started after independence in 1962 when the whole education system was renewed. The aim was to move away from the colonial education system, which was racially based, with the sole objective of producing people who would work in the colonial economy (Mushi, 2009; URT, 1995). When the 1962 reform failed, another one took place in 1967, whereby "Education for Self-Reliance" (ESR) was introduced to make education more meaningful and much related to the people and national needs (Kafyulilo *et al.*, 2013; Mushi, 2009). The ESR curriculum focused

on rural and critical skills development that promoted self-employment. Moreover, it was more work-oriented and helped people solve society's problems (Sanga, 2016).

During ESR philosophy, the country is said to have achieved more social and political development in one decade than in more than half a century (Muganda, 1999). Nevertheless, even with ESR and its curriculum's good intentions, it could not be sustained as the country's needs kept changing. The failure was attributed to the continued dependence on donors' support to fund its education; the reform was guided by political ideologies rather than reality and a lack of systematic evaluation for further improvement (Jansen, 1998). Other causes were curriculum rigidity and uniformity, the need for further education, lack of resources, unemployment and failure of the government to continue funding education (Muganda, 1999).

Therefore, in 1981, the Presidential Committee was appointed to review the education system. The result of the review was an introduction to a new education policy titled "The 1995 Education and Training Policy" (URT, 1995). Broadly, according to Mosha (2012, pp. 12–13), the aim of the 1995 Education and Training Policy was:

> *To achieve increased enrolment, equitable access, quality improvement, expansion and optimum utilisation of facilities, and operational efficiency throughout the education system, through enhanced partnership in the delivery of education, broadening the financial base and enhancing the cost-effectiveness of education, and streamlining education management structures through the devolution of authority to LGAs, communities and schools.*

After 19 years of usage, the policy and curriculum could not satisfy the nation's needs. However, it is well remembered for its success in expanding education from pre-primary to higher education, consequently increasing students' enrolment. The same challenges manifested during the implementation of ESR philosophy, and its curriculum again emerged in 1995 ETP. According to URT (2014), the education system failed to meet the country's needs. The curriculum could not match the country's economic, social and political change as well as the change in science and technology. Its graduates failed to acquire the competence required to compete in the world market, and even their knowledge and skills did not match the level of education they graduated. Even those who graduated from vocational training and education, their knowledge and abilities failed to meet the required standards of the world market.

Thus, in 2005, the whole education system was redefined. The refinement led to the curriculum, which aims at developing "learners who are capable of successfully developing their full potential as lifelong learners and, at the same time, sustain their chances in the international labour market" (URT, 2019, p. 12). Moreover, the changes were geared toward providing quality education to help the country develop competent human resources and transform it into a medium-income country by 2025. The 2005 curriculum also introduced learner-centred pedagogy. The teacher becomes a facilitator rather than a transmitter of knowledge, formative assessment using authentic assessment tools and integrating theory with real context (Paulo and Tilya, 2014).

While CBC is still being familiarised, in 2021, another requirement for curricular amendment was highlighted. The need for modification came as many primary and ordinary secondary education graduates failed to continue with further education. Yet, the education provided doesn't help them become a productive member of society. Therefore, the initiated improvement is geared towards developing primary and secondary school graduates who can contribute to the country's economic development as they can be employed or engage in self-employment activities. Therefore, the following improvement suggestions were put forward based on the situational analysis.
Part of the proposed changes to the structure of formal education include:

a) Providing one-year pre-primary education to children aged five years old. Yet, given the scarcity of resources, pre-primary education should not be compulsory.
b) Reduce the duration of primary education from seven (7) to six (6). Also, children can enrol on Class One at six (6) and Form One at 12 years.
c) The duration of ordinary and advanced secondary schools will be retained.
d) Primary and lower secondary education should be compulsory.
e) Introduce a flexible system of education whereby a student joining ordinary secondary education will be free to join in either of two streams: general education and vocational education.

Part of the proposed changes in curricula include:

a) Improving education's vision and main goals to meet policy and national needs changes.
b) Improving all curricula by adding modern content, removing outdated content, and removing repetition of content in the subject and between subjects.

c) Reducing the content in each subject matches the teaching time and the nation's needs.
d) Changing how language lessons are taught by insisting that the student build competence in the language before using it in communication. In addition, English should be taught from Grade 1 for schools that use Kiswahili as the language of instruction, and Kiswahili should be taught from Grade 1 for schools that use English as the language of instruction.
e) To strengthen teaching and learning by using methods that make the student the centre of learning. Cross-cutting issues, including IT, should be taught by embedding them during teaching and learning activities in mock lessons, considering the relationship of the cross-cutting issue with the relevant subject.
f) Strengthening continuous testing using tools and methods that measure theory and practice. In addition, the assessment system should use recognised criteria for measuring the student's daily progress and the final assessment for completing the relevant level based on the competence-building curriculum (Jamuhuri ya Muungano wa Tanzani, 2023).

More changes are also proposed in teacher education. If approved, the revised curriculum will be embraced starting in 2024.

Principally, all curriculum reforms from 1961 to date have been to prepare people who can meet national and international standards for quality education. Moreover, a focus is on reducing overreliance on employment, encouraging graduates at each level to become self-reliant and productive from an early age and value to cross-cutting issues. Whilst the proposed changes are excellent and relevant, teachers, the core curriculum implement, must be educated on its importance and be internally and externally motivated to change their practice. The proposed changes must be communicated practically, creatively, extensively and collaboratively to enhance their ability to implement general and vocational education competently. Without such honest, proposed changes will be a mere discourse.

## 2.5 Chapter Summary

This chapter analysed the contextual background of the study. The chapter presents Tanzania's philosophy of education and teacher education, both pre-service and in-preservice. Issues relating to the English language as the MoI and its status as a subject were also discussed. Briefly, the chapter ends with the presentation of curriculum changes that have taken place in Tanzania since independence to date. It is against the background of teachers' preparation and curriculum changes that the study stresses the need for sustained support to help teachers cope with the changes.

# CHAPTER THREE

## 3.0 LITERATURE REVIEW

### 3.1 Definition of the Key Term

#### 3.1.1 In-service training (INSET)

In-service training is defined differently depending on the purpose. For instance, in Viswanathan's (2018) study, in-service training refers to training provided to working teachers for skills improvement. Outhwaite *et al.* (2023) define it as training given to an individual after taking a job post. Zengin (2020), on the other hand, describes it as training provided to full-time working teachers after graduating from university and joining the teaching profession. The above scholars refer to INSET in two contexts: routine training for skill upgrade and training given to someone assuming a new role. While the two situations may call for INSET training, comprehensively refers to a planned set of short or long events that either re-familiarise teachers with innovative changes, introduce them to new roles, or polish their practice (Day, 2002).

Days' definitions indicate an INSET has to be planned to achieve either of the goals: new change, new role or refurbishing practices. Long or short INSET can be provided through large group presentations, discussions, seminars, workshops, colloquia, demonstrations, role play, simulation, courses offered by universities, conferences, correspondence courses, exhibition or staff meetings, etc., facilitated by one presenter or a team of presenters (Guskey, 2000; Osamwonyi, 2016). It contributes to employees' professional growth and qualifications, giving them a sense of security and self-confidence while discharging their duties (Rahman *et al.,* 2011). It equips teachers with appropriate and relevant new skills and knowledge that help them to cope with development changes (Anangisye, 2012). Generally, given the state of the art, in this study, INSET refer to a formal school-based workshop provided to practising EFL teachers to familiarise them with curriculum changes.

#### 3.1.2 INSET Modality

In-service training can be accessed using traditional or school-based approaches. The conventional method is a course-led model provided by universities, local colleges, or teachers' developing centres (Craft, 2000). It requires teachers to move out of their local contexts to attend training at a selected centre (Wedell *et al.,* 2013). However, traditional

INSETs have been challenged for being offered occasionally, books driven, isolated from school contexts, and not relating their agenda with school realities and teachers' work (Day, 1999; Xu, 2009). Other challenges are the lack of immediate application and the absence of dialogue or meaning construction between trained and trainees (Moon, 2007).

The limitations of traditional in-service training introduced the school-based INSET approach. It is a bottom-up approach to in-service training led by teachers to improve their classroom pedagogical strategies (Hardman *et al.,* 2015). The approach is termed as beneficial since teachers remain in schools that lower the cost, attend courses based on their needs, have a chance to practice in an authentic context, and there is collaboration as well as flexibility in making decisions (Hardman *et al.,* 2015; Lee *et al.,* 2017). Even though School-Based in-service training has been accepted as a solution to the weakness of the traditional INSET, it is affected by the practitioner's limited research and expertise, shortage of a broad knowledge base and lack of worldwide perspectives (Lee *et al.,* 2017).

According to the Centre for Educational Research and Innovation [CERI] (1998), one model cannot meet all training needs. Every model may be helpful depending on the outcome intended. Whether school-based or course–led INSET (traditional approach), both have an essential role in refining, initiating or re-familiarising teachers with knowledge and skills (Day, 1999). Therefore, notwithstanding the weakness of INSET that has been documented worldwide, they remain "the most common means of "supporting" educational changes" (Li, 2018, p. 8).

### 3.1.3 INSET effectiveness

Effective in-service training is one that "empowers teachers with the potential or professional qualities enough to undertake, regularly, a course of action destined to make teachers professionally (cognitively, affectively, pedagogically, andragogically etc.) alive (Anangisye, 2012, p. 138)." It is usually associated with teachers' gain in knowledge and skills and change in instructional practices, leading to better results in students' learning and achievement (Garet *et al.,* 2009). Schoolers have put forward several features to define in-service training effectiveness. Darling-Hammond and McLaughlin (2011) had the following feature list for effective in-service training:

a) Provide concrete tasks such as reflection, observation and assessment.
b) Based on experimentation and inquiry.

c) Should involve collaboration and sharing of ideas.
d) It must relate to teachers' actual needs.
e) Conducted sustainably with intensity.
f) Involves mentors modelling the best practice.
g) Correlates with the school form.
h) Sustainable investment and infrastructure.
i) Learning by doing.

Harwell (2003) also provides several features that support effective professional development, as follows:

a) Availability of administrators' support or buy-in.
b) Strong content that deepens teachers' specific subject content, teaching skills, professional knowledge, and ability to supervise students.
c) Focus on the identified gap in teacher practice.
d) The training implementation to include sound instructional practices that relate to actual teachers' work allows discovery learning, meaningful application of the concept and cooperation while learning.

In addition, Darling-Hammond *et al.* (2017) comment that effective in-set training should have the following elements:

a) Its content should be subject-specific and job-related.
b) The use of active learning methods and authentic artefacts for learning.
c) Promote collaboration for teachers teaching the same grades, school or department.
d) Use of models and modelling that allows lesson demonstration and observation.
e) Provide coaching and expertise support through scaffolding.
f) Provide time for feedback and reflection on authentic activities.
g) Sustained duration with multiple chances to engage in various tasks.

Lastly, Schachter *et al.* (2019) propose the following criteria for INSET effectiveness.

a) The training should be continuous and intensive to give teachers enough time to understand the new content.
b) It should allow observation of the high-quality practice of the new content by the coaches or mentors.

c) Trainees should be allowed to practice new content.
d) Trainees should be given time to reflect on their practice.
e) There must be a time for peer mentorship and coaching.
f) The principles should serve as facilitators and champions of a learning community.
g) It should align with the teacher's classroom practice.
h) Facilitators must be experts who know the content and master the art of its delivery.
i) Use a variety of approaches for learning and providing feedback.

Though varied across the authors, the above features provide a starting point for training designing, supporting, implementing and evaluating in-service training effectiveness. Contextually, practical in-service training must emanate from teachers' and students' needs, have extended duration, be well supported with resources, be implemented by quality facilitators, and provide the group with similar features to facilitate collaboration. The implementation process needs to apply active learning methods such as group discussions, presentation role-play, content-focused, modelling of the best practice, providing feedback and reflection, and using authentic material for learning. All the features above should lead to the training impacting teacher knowledge, classroom practice and student learning outcomes.

The elements of effective in-service training are interdependency. Implementation and good training outcomes depend on good planning and verse versa. On that note, Darling-Hammond *et al.* (2017) stress that even a well-planned INSET must be implemented well for its effectiveness. However, though the above features are referred to as the "best practice" for in-service training effectiveness, depending on the nature of the individual programme, the context in which the programme is implemented, and the teacher's needs, some features are likely to be critical than the other or have more favourable result than the other (Penuel *et al.,* 2007). Therefore, they must be used flexibly while paying attention to the context in which the programme is implemented and the training goals (Borko, 2004).

### 3.1.4 Programme evaluation

Evaluation is assessing a programme's effectiveness, quality, or worthiness (Kirkpatrick, 2006) to determine what works and what does not (Gboku and Lekoko, 2007). It helps

establish the merit and worth of phenomena goals, design, implementation and outcomes of an evaluated object to help guide its improvement and accountability and inform understanding of the phenomena (Stufflebeam, 2001). That being the case, evaluation can be done at the beginning, as the programme progresses or at the end: "ex-ante, interim and ex-post (Linzalone and Schiuma, 2015, p. 92). Guskey (2000) refers to them as planning evaluation done before programme implementation to analyse what needs to be done; formative evaluation occurs throughout the programme, and summative is conducted at the end of the training. However, ignoring the point in which evaluation is done, evaluation is either formative, done to improve programme performance and enhance the outcome, or summative, which evaluates whether the programme achieved its goal (Guyadeen and Seasons, 2015).

Typically, whether the programme is conducted for a short time or long, the end goal is to bring change (Frye and Hemmer, 2012). Therefore, the objective of the evaluation is to determine its effectiveness, identify areas that may need adjustment, increase the allocation of resources or empower those involved (Cook, 2010). Evaluation is the key to understanding programme quality regarding outcome, programme design, and implementation. It helps to understand the resources used and the extent to which it has helped achieve the objectives, deciding if to continue or not to continue with the project and improve it for better results (Kirkpatrick, 2006).

Therefore, given the importance of evaluation and different types of evaluation, the current study undertook a formative evaluation of an INSET designed to help EFL teachers in Tanzania implement a competency-based curriculum. The aim was not to comment on its worthiness in goal achievement but to learn the success and challenges stories and suggest areas for imminent improvement. Since Uzunkaya (2017) stresses that evaluation questions need to be asked beyond understanding programme results, the study's evaluation of effectiveness focused not just on INSET outcome but its relevance to trainees' needs, adequateness of the resources and the effectiveness of the implementation process.

### 3.1.5 Evaluation approaches

There are different evaluation approaches. Goldie (2009) grouped them into six categories. The first category is the objectives-oriented approach. The approach aims to

determine whether the programme goals have been achieved. The objective evaluation approach includes models such as Tyler's Industrial Model (Smith and Tyler, 1942), Metfessel and Michael (1967), Provus's Discrepancy Model (1973), Hammond (1973) and Scriven's Goal-Free Evaluation (1972). The models have been commended for being simpler; however, they were criticised for being rigid in evaluating the goals, ignoring the challenges that may occur during programme implementation (Cook, 2010). Besides, Hogan (2010) adds that with the approach, not all objectives are eligible for evaluation, which may also create bias on which goals to evaluate and which not to evaluate.

The second category is the management-oriented evaluation approach. The management evaluation approach aims to obtain information that can be used for the decision-making process. Models in this category include the CIPP Evaluation Model (Stufflebeam, 1971), The UCLA Evaluation Model (Alkin, 1969), The Discrepancy Model (Provus, 1973), The Utilization-Focused Approach (Paton, 1986), Wholley's Approach to Evaluation (1983, 1994) and Cronbach (1963, 1980). The advantage of the approach is seen in its ability to be used for summative and formative evaluation. However, its limitations hinge on higher demand for evaluation funds, complexity and voluminous data that may be collected. Besides, the evaluation result may be biased toward the management needs (Cook, 2010; Hogan, 2010).

The third category is the consumer-oriented evaluation approach. The approach is used to evaluate products for consumers so that they can be in an excellent position to select among competing products or services. The class consists of Scriven's concerns and checklists (1967, 1974, 1984, 1991), Educational Products Information Exchange (EPIE) activities (Komoski) and CMAS (Morrisett and Stevens, 1967). Though the approach is appraised for paying attention to utility and cost-effectiveness, it is affected by personal bias. Similarly, it is costly to implement as evaluation can only be done by competent and expert individuals with facilities (Goldie, 2009; Hogan, 2010).

Besides the consumer approach, the fourth category is the expertise-oriented evaluation approach. The approaches depend on the opinions of a professional expert to determine the merit or worth of a product or service. The judgment is provided by accreditation bodies and educational connoisseurship (Eisner, 1975, 1991). The challenge with the expertise approach is that evaluation relies too much on the experts' subjective options

based on intuitions and may be biased. However, the approach allows broad evaluation coverage, saving time (Goldie, 2009).

Moreover, there is an adversary-oriented evaluation approach. The category accommodates evaluations that focus on obtaining diversified evaluators' points of view on the given product or service. The model accommodated in the class, including Owens (1973), Wolf (1975, 1979), Levine *et al.* (1978) and Kourilsky (1973). In the adversary approach, judicial processes such as hearing, prosecution, defence, jury, etc., are used whereby the benefits and weakness of the product are presented by two opposing sides who will again publicly debate and reach a mutual agreement. The approach is appraised for being participatory and showing the pros and cons of the programme. However, its limitation includes focusing too much on identifying the weaknesses rather than improving the programme (Hogan, 2010).

Lastly, there is a participant-oriented evaluation approach. The approach relies on the participants to determine the values, criteria, needs and data for the evaluation. Participant-oriented evaluation frameworks include the following: Stake's Countenance Framework (1967); Parlett and Hamilton's Illuminative Model (1976); Stake's Responsive Evaluation Framework (1975); Stake's Preordinate Evaluation Approaches (1975), and Guba and Lincoln's writings on naturalistic enquiry (1981, 1985, 1989). The approach is praised for being contextually considerate of people's opinions of the programme or service. However, the challenge lies in the cost of its implementation as it is resource intensive, subjectivity in evaluation and participants withdraw, which may affect the result (Goldie, 2009; Hogan, 2010).

From the above review, none of the evaluation approaches is perfect. Each has strengths, weaknesses, and a thing to de-emphasise (Stake, 1983). Nevertheless, depending on the purpose of the evaluation, any approach can be appropriate to guide the evaluation process as long it answers evaluation questions per stakeholders' needs (Nevo, 1983).

### 3.1.6 Responsive evaluation as study's evaluation model

Evaluating the effectiveness of INSET was guided by responsive evaluation as an evaluation model. The model was proposed by Robert Stake (1975), who insists on evaluating an object by responding to the audience's problem, the need for information

and when people's perspectives about the issue are the heart of evaluation (Abma, 2004; Stake, 2001). The key focus of the appraisal is obtaining participants' perspectives on programme antecedent, transaction and outcome, which may be used to judge the programme's effectiveness (Stufflebeam, 2001). Since any problem in instructional practice is better understood by the people who encounter the issue, their views, with the help of an expert, play a good chance in solving it (Stake, 1983).

In responsive, evaluation can be qualitative or quantitative, depending on the evaluator's choice (Stake, 2001). All stakeholders must be involved in the evaluation from the beginning while paying attention to their perspectives (Visse *et al.,* 2015). The evaluator's role is to interact with the respondents and create a context for smooth interaction (Abma, 2004). The approach doesn't require a clear establishment of evaluation variables, measurement, sampling size, or evaluation benchmarks. Nonetheless, the focus is on examining personal experiences based on attitude and intuitive judgement to establish the programme's merit. According to Stake (2003), it is not that the framework has no standards for evaluation; instead, they are not explicitly highlighted because the intention is to understand the issue without making inter-issue generalisations.

The advantage of the model is that it puts all stakeholders at the centres of the evaluation, not just managers or funders. People feel valued, respected and honoured, which increases the likelihood of evaluation result usage (House, 2001; Stufflebeam, 2001). The approach allows the discovery of unanticipated, minor and detailed information about the programme's worth that may not be captured using standardised tools (Stake, 2003). All evaluation questions are not pre-established but evolve as the interaction between respondents and evaluator continues, expanding the appraisal for formative and summative purposes (Cameron, 2014; Spiegel *et al.,* 1999).

However, the limitation of the model includes collecting too much information, which may hinder the timely provision of evaluation reports. Poorly informed respondents may provide poor judgment of the programme's merit and worth, and respondents may be reluctant to share their innermost thoughts about the programme's worthiness (Stufflebeam, 2001). Besides, others worry that paying too much attention to respondents' perspectives may bring up ideas for revolts (House, 2001). While the

challenges are endless, the truth is any evaluation approach, standard-based or responsive, may be prone to the above challenge (Stake, 2003).

Despite the limitations, the study used responsive to increase the utilisation of the study findings. By relying on and valuing stakeholders' subjective experiences at the regional level, the study collected contextual issues that may help improve INSET effectiveness. Secondly, the model was good because it doesn't just focus on evaluating whether or not the goals have been achieved; instead, all-important aspects of the training (antecedent, processes and outcome) are looked into. Thus, the approach facilitates a comprehensive understanding of programme strengths and weaknesses as it moves from one stage to another.

Moreover, since numbers can disguise what is happening with an innovation (Perrin, 2002), the use of Responsive Evaluation helped to account for and honour even tiny details of the programme's strength or challenge as perceived by the respondents. According to Patton (2015), if the programme is designed, supported and implemented to influence people's actions, their perceptions are equally important. Therefore, while the findings may not look "*technically allegiant*" (Stake, 2003) to the non-responsive stakeholders, they represent the views from across the stakeholders, not just decision markers. Besides, the research findings can easily be responsive and understandable to both standardised and responsive audiences.

### 3.2 Theoretical Perspectives

Besides the responsive evaluation model, the study was guided by andragogy and social constructivism theories.

#### 3.2.1 Andragogy theory

Andragogy is a theory initially developed by Alexander Kapp in 1835 and later advanced by Malcolm Knowles to describe the art and the science of adult learning (Norine and Ally, 2020). The theory has four significant conceptions about adult learning: learning experience, self-concept, readiness to learn, and orientation to learning (Knowles *et al.*, 2015). The idea of learning experience insists on organising learning based on the experience that learners have. Thus, since they have experience, diagnosing what learners want to learn before INSET is essential.

In addition, learning implementation should encourage experience sharing while providing practical examples that will facilitate a transfer of learning in a real work context (Knowles, 1980). The notion of "self-concept" highlights the need for adult learners to take control of their learning (Glassner *et al.,* 2020). Therefore, teachers must engage adult learners in mutual inquiry rather than impart their knowledge and evaluate their conformity. For self-concept ideas to be more effective, a conducive learning environment, physically and psychologically, is essential. Moreover, they need to have a say in planning, implementing and evaluating learning (Knowles, n.d.).

Aside from experience and self-concept, the theory further assumes that adults are ready to learn. They are not like young students who learn for employment; instead, they have internal motivation to improve their knowledge and solve work-related challenges. That being the case, any INSET should be organised based on what is relevant to the task at hand (Loeng, 2018). The last concern is an orientation of learning, which stresses the importance of learning by focusing on a problem rather than acquiring knowledge. Thus, the starting point for their learning is their experience rather than covering the curriculum. Also, adults' orientation to learning is life-centred; therefore, the appropriate units for organising learning are life situations and competencies that can be used in real life (Glassner *et al.,* 2020; Knowles *et al.,* 2015).

A noteworthy lesson that the current study draws from the theory Is the need to understand INSET effectiveness by drawing on the principles of adult education. The view is adopted for its insight into how adult learning should be conducted. Therefore, the effectiveness of the INSET depends not just on the features of effective INSET but paying attention to principles of adult learning during its design, implementation and evaluation. According to Khadimally (2019), any learning designed for an adult should focus on effective pedagogical strategies that allow adult learners to take charge of their learning. An INSET should be custom-made to the extent that it provides an opportunity for self-directed learning, collaboration, authenticity and relevance (Wozniak, 2020). Rather than learning to cover content, an INSET can be organised on the need to acquire the right survival skills in their changing work context.

Besides, the overall design, implementation and evaluation of INSET should be a shared responsibility between a teacher and learners, with teachers playing the role of a

facilitator (Prihidayanti *et al.,* 2019). Since they can take responsibility for initiating and controlling their learning compared to young learners (Muduli *et al.,* 2018), adult learners need to control what, when and how they learn and decide when to learn (Khadimally, 2019). Thus, using andragogy principles to understand the programme's effectiveness provides insight into how effective or ineffective the INSET was in helping EFL teachers achieve their goals.

However, despite its strength, Andragogy Theory has received numerous criticisms. Arghode *et al.* (2017) mentioned that the theory assumes all adult learners are the same, ignoring their differences. Another criticism stems from its emphasis on intrinsic motivation as a factor for learning, ignoring extrinsic motivation that may also push someone to know. Other challenges are documented by Merriam (2018) that the theory focuses on individual learners ignoring the social and political context in which learning occurs. Besides, the idea of self-directed learning is against collaboration and interaction, which are required for effective learning. From the challenges mentioned earlier, the study also used social constructivism theory.

### 3.2.2 Social constructivism theory

Social constructivism is a theory about learning advocated by Vygotsky, who trusts that an individual generates ideas through human social contact (Schunk, 2012). Ontologically, social constructivism believes that reality is constructed through interaction and that everyone creates knowledge individually and through human interaction. In addition, learning is seen as a social process using cultural tools such as language. The three aspects imply that learning cannot occur without context, social interaction and learners' experience. Social constructivism embraces the following beliefs:

a) Provision of student support during learning from well-informed members of society (scaffolding).
b) The use of teaching methods that promote collaboration and interaction between teacher-student and student-student.
c) During teaching and learning, the teacher facilitates learning while students play an active role.
d) Differentiated instruction depending on students' level in Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD).

e) The use of authentic learning, situation.
f) Language is critical to learning (Adams, 2006; Amineh and Asl, 2015; Pritchard and Woollard, 2010).

The use of social constructivism theory to guide the evaluation of INSET effectiveness was influenced by the fact that it advocates for learner-centred education, which is required for effective learning for students and their teachers. To meet the world's demand, Tanzania changed its curriculum from teacher-centred to student-centred in secondary schools and teachers' colleges. In that case, teachers are being trained to change their teaching from focusing on teaching for knowledge acquisition to knowledge construction (Nzilano, 2015).

Thus, taking social constructivism on board, the study was underpinned by the assumption that just as the Tanzania curriculum insists on constructive learning environments for the students, the same should be for teacher learning. In-service teachers in Tanzania can benefit more from an INSET learning atmosphere characterised by social constructivist features such as social interaction, constructive and timely feedback, peer/expert scaffolding and collaboration, shared power and authority and flexible courses that match their needs (Bressler *et al.,* 2018). Moreover, they can learn more in an INSET that values learners' prior knowledge, takes place in authentic and non-threatening contexts, uses active and effective learning strategies, and gives sufficient learning time, follow-up and immediate feedback (Güler and Yonca, 2018).

In addition, a more knowledgeable member of society should be the one to guide teachers in learning in their respective ZPD and support them through coaching and mentoring (Irvin, 2008; Chu *et al.,* 2017; Pritchard and Woollard, 2010). Modelling practice should be used during learning to allow trainees to observe how ideas can be implemented in an actual classroom setting to facilitate a smooth transfer of learning. Furthermore, trainers need to let go of their traditional role and the necessity to instruct and be more of a guide or co-learner while paying attention to students' individualised needs and providing adequate support in their path to discovery (Prihidayanti *et al.,* 2019).

Generally, social constructivism suggests how learning needs to be designed and conducted to achieve intended outcomes. Despite its strength, the theory has been accused of focusing on learning through interacting with the environment. Yet, some, i.e., young

children, start learning even before interacting with the environment (Schunk, 2012). Also, individualised knowledge that a learner acquires by interacting with the environment may differ from their guide or facilitators, acting as a barrier to learning. Even individual construction of knowledge that the theory insists on (Efgivia *et al.*, 2021).

### 3.2.3 Towards an eclectic theory for INSET evaluation

According to Merriam (2018), no theory is self-sufficient in explaining a particular phenomenon. So far, each theory discussed in Section 3.2 has strengths and weaknesses, making it hard to rely on only one theory to understand in-service training effectiveness. Thus, the study used two theories to complement perspectives and gain holistic perceptions of in-service training effectiveness. While Knowles' theory helps understand adult learners, their needs, the prior experience they bring to learning and the relevance of training in assisting them to solve work-related challenges, Vygotsky's offers a way to design and implement learning in such a way that it pays attention to social process of learning, personal prior knowledge and the context in which learning takes place.

The use of the two theories was also motivated by theoretical weaknesses observed in each theory. Andragogy theory assumes that all adult learners are the same; however, EFL teachers may vary in terms of their education level, school location (urban/rural) level and nature of the students, etc., which may warrant training customisation depending on their needs. Moreover, self-directed learning may not be possible where the curriculum has changed. Thus, learning with the help of competent guides or facilitators on the proposed changes is considerably essential.

Hence, eclectically drawing from Andragogy and Social Constructivism Theory, effective design and delivery of instruction for adult learners need to:

a) Provide a rationale for learning.
b) Identifying trainees learning needs.
c) Link between trainees' needs and learning objectives.
d) Involve trainees in mutual planning of designing a learning experience.
e) Consider the trainee's motivation to learn both internally and externally.
f) Support the training with facilities and tools that can enhance understanding and make a lesson interesting.
g) Focus on relevant topics based on their need.

h) Use authentic learning material, genuine assessment procedure and take place in an authentic learning environment that can facilitate knowledge construction and replication.
i) Take place in a learning environment that is free from physical, physiological and psychological harm.
j) Consider learner prior experience during learning.
k) Use of active adult learning-centred methods.
l) Modelling of the best practice.
m) Promote a collaborative learning environment among peers and between peers and facilitators.
n) Provide immediate feedback and reflection to help trainees adjust their practices.
o) Support learners depending on their ZPD.
p) Recognise and accommodate individual differences while learning,
q) Facilitated by the most knowledgeable member of the society.
r) Include coaching and mentoring in an actual classroom setting.

The above features must be accommodated in programme antecedents, transactions and outcomes to facilitate the change process. Therefore, adapting them help teachers acquire the right skills and knowledge they and their employees need to survive in an ever-changing world market (Muduli *et al.,* 2018).

## 3.3 Empirical Literature Review

### 3.3.1 Evaluation studies in and outside Africa

#### 3.3.1.1 Studies on INSET Context

Worldwide, evaluation studies have been done either with or without the guidance of an evaluation approach, qualitatively, quantitatively, or both. Yet, despite the variations, they all highlight several issues in the antecedents and transaction of the training that contribute to their effectiveness or ineffectiveness. In programme antecedents/context, Shih (2019) evaluated an Elite English programme in Taiwan. The study found that there was a genuine need for the programme. It targeted students who did average in their major but excelled in English, which uplifted their performance. Thus, the programme aimed to help them continue to pursue their interest in English language learning the language. Also, the course design is multidimensions whereby students can learn using face-to-face or distance learning modality. However, despite the benefits of the course, such as providing students with certificates and improving their language skills, the number of

drop out in the course was high. Also, the programme lacked sustainable administrative support, fund and some of the content was defined to be uninteresting.

In Indonesia, Bandu *et al.* (2021) did a context evaluation on implementing the English for Islamic Studies program at the State Institute for Islamic Studies (IAIN). The programme was established as the demand for English teaching relating to the Islamic world increased. In general, the study found the context and planning of the programme to be effective. The programme goals aligned with the institution's vision and mission and the objectives were clearly stated. The programme significantly contributed to students' English communication skills and Islamic studies mastery. Yet, the challenges included partial analysis of the student's learning needs, and the programme lacked learning materials and facilities.

Depranoto (2020) evaluated the Indonesian Navy's Mental Development programme in the same setting. The study found that the programme was credible, supported by a proper judicial foundation and had a clear objective and appropriate communication chain. The programme was sufficiently funded with an adequate implementation plan to achieve the goals. Conversely, the goals were not fulfilled because the programme was not adjusted to the environment's evolving needs. Despite the higher demand for programmes, the study indicated that it lacked skills and knowledgeable personnel., which affected the general programme implementation.

In Turkey, Yastibaş and Kavgaci (2020) evaluated the English for Academic Purposes II course at Turkish Foundation University. The course focused on developing reading and writing skills for the students of English-medium departments. The study findings highlighted that the context of the course was good. Course objectives were parallel with the goals of the university and suitable for enhancing students' academic English skills. Also, while teaching strategies were aligned with the course objective, ample time was allocated for learning, and assignments were compatible with the objective. Limitation, however, was found in the course books as they did not align with students' level of English language proficiency. Still, even with the challenges, it was found that the course met students' learning needs and significantly contributed to improving their critical skills, problem-solving, reasoning, etc.

More diverse results were documented by Aldapit and Suharjana (2019) when evaluating the coaching programme of athletes in Indonesia. The study reported that the programme context lacked budget, sponsorship and government support. Also, there was a shortage of experts: health and nutritionists. Also, testing instruments and space was a challenge. Likewise, the programme lacked quality facilities and infrastructure. Despite the challenges, talent scouting was good, and the coaches were professional with professionalism and the ability to implement the training process per guidelines. Aliakbari and Ghoreyshi (2013) also observed a similar result when evaluating the Master of Arts Program in Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL) at Ilam University, Iran. The graduates reported that the programme somehow ignored their actual needs, had unclear objectives, and some aspects of the course content were irrelevant. Likewise, respondents also commented on too many assignments. Moreover, the quality of the lecturers was poor as some did not teach effectively, failed to respect students, and lacked creativity and proficiency in the English language.

Moreover, Hayes (2012) evaluated in-service training implemented in South Korea by the Ministry of Education, Science, and Technology (MEST). The training focused on improving primary and secondary school English language teachers' communicative competence and reinforcing their pedagogical skills in implementing Learner-Centred Education (LCE) through Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) approaches. The training was offered using both short-term and long-term residential INSET. However, the study found that the programme did not achieve the intended outcome even with the long-term duration and significant investment. It was reported that only a few teachers registered for the course because it was irrelevant to actual learning needs. Language teachers were also not involved in the course development beyond being asked topics they needed to learn. Lastly, the training lacked school follow-up to maximise impact.

Patel (2012) evaluated Malaysia's English for Teaching of Mathematics and Science (ETeMS) project. The project was introduced after the Malaysian Government decided to teach Mathematics and Science using English instead of Bahasa Melayu Language. The training was offered through two interactive phases (weekend training and total immersion, self-instructional study pack (with self-monitoring and differentiation in access levels). The study found that, even though the training was good, preparations were rushed. Also, the training was structured so that teachers were trained without being

realised from their duties. Hence, balancing teaching and learning was a challenge. In another case, motivation to learn the course also was a challenge. Some teachers have used Bahasa Melayu as MoI for more than 20 years. New recruits also pursued their education using Bahasa Melayu. As a result, teachers were struggling with the language. Internet-based language learning was also used. However, all trainees did not welcome the approach since some had yet to learn how to integrate technology into teaching and learning.

In addition, Hung (2016) evaluated an in-service training program for primary school teachers of English in Vietnam. The project was known as Project 2020 implemented to improve Vietnamese students' English proficiency. The findings indicated that although training met participants' expectations and trainers and training content were good, the project management was still top-down. Moreover, communication between participants, project managers and primary managers was also poor. Hence, they were not aware of the training curriculum and its training process.

Scholey (2012) assessed an in-service training implemented by the Turkish Ministry of National Education (MoNE) and the British Council. The project aimed to transform the language skills of 22,000 students studying in Turkey's 106 Hotel Management and Tourism (HMT) vocational high schools. It was implemented for three years. The study found that the training was effective. Among the factors that contributed to its effectiveness was the involvement of heads of schools in planning, which led to clear communication and achievement of training goals. Also, changes were introduced using the bottom-up approach. It started with students and teachers at the classroom level. Thus, they understood what was being changed and how. Lastly, few vocational teacher specialists were sufficiently trained and used as agents of change. Lastly, good communication was promoted between the United Kingdom consultant and native stakeholders, which increased team morale and motivation. At the same time, worries and problems were minimised.

Lastly, Altan (2016) analysed the impact of in-service training activities on the professional development of English language teachers in Turkey. The study noted that the INSET provided by the general directorate of teachers' education in Turkey did not meet the needs of the teachers. The professional development has been reduced to

seminars and workshops, which hinder their sustainability. Besides, PD has failed to link theory and practice.

Generally, reviewed literature indicates the fundamental antecedents to consider when planning in-service training. The requirements include identifying relevant participants and their needs, establishing proper communication channels, developing the vision and goals of the programme and ensuring that the programme has legal establishment and that its vision and mission align with particular country priorities. Other critical issues such as programme sustainability, setting sufficient time for professional development, collective planning, developing leadership and professional learning culture, ensuring equity, obtaining public support, and scaling up should also be analysed early (Loucks-Horsley *et al.*, 2010).

#### 3.3.1.2 Studies on INSET resources

Besides contextual features, effective in-service training also depends on strategically allocating significant human and non-human resources to facilitate teacher acquisition and employment of a new level of professionalism (Day and Smethem, 2009). Reviewed studies indicated that while some INSETs are highly supported, others are not. For instance, Simpson (2012) analysed the Rwanda English in Action Programme (REAP). The project focused on transforming Rwanda's education policy from a trilingual language policy (Kinyarwanda, English, and French) to English as the medium of education. The study reported that, while the policy was successfully changed, its implementation was affected by teachers' and students' poor English language proficiency. Also, there was a shortage of learning materials that were prepared in the English language. Even the available were above students' level of English language proficiency. Likewise, while the project had a clear vision, it was implemented during several education projects. Therefore, the project competed for resources and attention with the other ongoing projects. Lastly, the project focused on policy transformation to foster regional integration and economic development. However, it gave less weight to pedagogical considerations for effective policy implementation.

Evaluating INSET for Iranian teachers in Iran, Kazemi and Mansooreh (2014 found no established criteria for selecting facilitators beyond senior teachers. Trainers were also observed to lack practical teaching experience and were believers in old teaching

approaches. Moreover, the content did take teachers' learning needs onboard. Also, participants were trained on general content irrelevant to their specialisation. Besides Iran, Hong (2012) assessed the Primary English Teacher Training Project (PETT) in Guangdong, China. The project aimed to help English language teachers adapt to learner-centred communicative activities. The study reported that the project was the most successful to have been implemented in the area. Success was reported in the training of 102 carefully selected local trainers who cascaded training to 4800 primary school teachers in the province. Also, instead of localising the international trainers, the programme focused on training local trainers that will be used to cascade training.

Another factor for PETT training success was that the package for cascading was modified depending on the local context. Furthermore, cascading was done locally. Thus, instead of teachers visiting Guangzhou for training, trainers moved from city to city, which eased the financial burden. In addition, all teachers from underdeveloped areas were given full financial support from the provincial government to attend further training in selected training centres. Lastly, the training worked closely with crucial education officers. They were given priority to be trained at all levels. Hence, they became PETT trainers and sustained the programme even when the project ended.

Begum (2016) evaluated the effectiveness of INSET on secondary school teachers in Bangladesh. Study participants commented that the INSET was adequate. All trainees had proficiency and background in the English language. Trainers had skills and expertise in language teaching; the learning atmosphere was conducive and equipped with all required facilities. However, the challenges were noted in training content, which needed updating, lack of training manual, and the training duration was too short. In the same country, Uddin (2020) investigated the adequacy and effectiveness of the pedagogical training of secondary English teachers provided by the Bangladesh Madrasah Teachers Training Institute (BMTTI). Findings indicated the in-service training offered at the BMTTI was very ineffective. The challenges included the use of theoretical and repetitive learning materials. Also, the training was affected by minimal participation as teachers did not want to due to poor training allowance. Likewise, the training lacked good leadership and management, so they were poorly coordinated. Lastly, trainees had a poor background in the English language. Many teach the subject without qualification; therefore, they are unaware of the English language curriculum.

Further, O'Donahue (2012) evaluated the project Change implemented in Tamil Nadu, India. The aim was to improve English language teaching and learning for teachers and students in government primary schools. The project started by training 900 master trainers, who, in turn, cascaded the training to 120,000 teachers in one year. Despite cascading challenges, the study found that the training was successful. Among the factors that led to the success was the collaboration among stakeholders, whereby clear roles and responsibilities for each stakeholder and expert were established. Also, every partner in the programme was listened to and acknowledged, and suggestions provided were discussed and incorporated. Clear and transparent two-way communication channels were established, increasing trust and ownership. Master trainers were trained together, but they were allowed to plan and adapt the material of the train to suit their local context.

Moreover, Uztosun (2017) evaluated teachers' views of in-service teacher education programmes offered by the Ministry of National Education in Turkey. From the study, several weaknesses and strengths of INSET were painted. Perceived strengths were INSET's contribution to the teacher's knowledge. Trainees learned new teaching methods and strategies. Through the training, they also developed language competencies and the use of technological material in teaching and learning. However, the INSET faced challenges, such as a lack of continuity, as they are not offered frequently. Even when they are offered, the timing is not good, normally after work. Respondents also mentioned that trainers were unqualified as they lacked practical experience and were unaware of the classroom environment with bookish knowledge. Lastly, trainers overused classical, traditional teaching methods and lacked creativity in presentation.

Likewise, Lokollo *et al.* (2020) evaluated the resources of the community learning activity centre program (PKBM) in Amboni City, Indonesia. It was found that the programme had a clear funding source, was delivered to intended beneficiaries by quality facilitators, was managed by competent managers and had adequate facilities. Generally, resources have an essential contribution to the effectiveness of an INSET (Dangara, 2016; Mwangi, 2013). Thus, any programme must be well-versed with adequate resources to achieve its goals.

#### 3.3.1.3 Studies on INSET implementation

On in-service training transactions/implementation, Cimer *et al.* (2010) evaluated teachers' views on the effectiveness of an INSET course in Turkey. The study found that, besides the poor quality of instructors, the course also used poor teaching methods and lacked support after training. Tajik *et al.* (2019) evaluated the status of ELT teacher education in Iran. The finding indicated that teachers' prior experiences were not considered during learning. In addition, there was no chance to reflect on what they learned, with no link between theory and practice, and actual classroom practice was missing. Moreover, Nuangpolmak (2019) evaluated the Lower Mekong Initiative's English Support Project conducted in Cambodia, Lao PDR, Myanmar, Thailand and Vietnam. Results indicated that the programme was successful because, during the implementation process, trainers used a co-teaching approach between native and non-native teachers, had a chance for hands-on experience and constantly received feedback and reflection.

Karim *et al.* (2019) documented the challenges of implementing a £50 million in-service training program for English teachers in Bangladesh. Teachers commented that they had limited opportunity to practice in front of the trainers, too much to learn in a short time, and trainers had limited expertise. Similarly, evaluating paper-based TOEFL preparation programmes, Manan *et al.* (2020) found that the learning process was good, and various teaching methods were used. In addition, students received attention, feedback and motivation from their facilitators. However, students were not motivated, and learning materials were not standardised. Broadly, the literature on implementation highlights the importance of using active teaching methods, modelling the best practice, hands-on experience, linking the training to teacher daily activities, providing relevant and manageable training content and providing expertise for mentoring and coaching.

#### 3.3.1.4 Studies on INSET impact

Evaluating INSET impact mixed negative and positive results of training impact has been widely documented. For instance, Borg (2011) assessed the impact of in-service training on language teacher beliefs in the United Kingdom. The INSET was offered for eight weeks by Diploma in English Language Teaching to Adults (DELTA), focusing on developing teachers' beliefs about teaching. The study found that the course transformed teachers' beliefs in language teaching. As a result of training, language teachers became

more aware and articulate of their thoughts and ideas that govern their work and link them with the theory. Also, trainees became mindful of who they were and their beliefs about teaching. However, the study found that not all trainees experienced the change in views, possibly because their opinions already aligned with what the course was trying to promote.

In India, Naz (2020) evaluated the Punjab Education and English Language Initiative (PEELI) implemented by the Government of the Punjab and the British Council, Pakistan. The project aimed to improve the quality of teaching among primary school Punjab teachers and encourage them to practice child-centred. The training was implemented by cascading where first teachers' trainers were trained before they began to train primary school teachers. Evaluating the impact, the study found that the PEELI project significantly impacted trainers and primary school teachers. The study found that trainers could increase their level of engagement and develop knowledge of students-centred methods, pedagogy and communication skills. They also developed practical experience and improved their planning and training management skills. Teachers were able to improve pedagogical skills and transform from teacher-centred pedagogy to student-centred. They also enhanced their vocabulary and improved their confidence to communicate in English. After training, teachers were provided follow-up, feedback, and peer observation to ensure the impact was sustained. However, it was also reported that the training did not reach the target regarding the number of teachers trained because of funds.

Positive programme appraisal was also noted by Yastibaş and Kavgaci (2020). The study evaluated the English for Academic Purposes II Course. It was found that the course improved students' critical thinking, problem-solving, and reasoning in English academic skills. Besides, it encouraged students to learn English and the need for the English language in future. In Amara (2020), EFL teachers in Libya perceived the in-service teacher training programs as applicable. The training led to mastering relevant skills and strategies needed for classroom teaching. After training, the teacher felt more energetic and learned to use games and motivation skills for teaching and learning. Likewise, Hall and Hite (2022) evaluated a school-level implementation of a state-wide professional development model for developing globally competent teachers in North Carolina. The focus was on developing knowledge and practices of globally competent teaching. The

study found that the training significantly improved teachers' ability to define global education, develop an understanding of competence within their curriculum, and implement its recommended teaching approaches in the classroom.

In addition, Mahmoudi *et al.* (2021) evaluated the efficiency of the INSET in improving EFL teachers' technological, pedagogical and content knowledge in Guilan province, Iran. The study reported that teachers appraised the training for improving their knowledge and could create online classes and share experiences with other teachers. However, the content focused less on improving their language proficiency and subject-content matter. Similarly, Persian was used as the language of instruction, which was also a challenge. Besides, there was insufficient coverage of technological content knowledge and limited practical lessons on ICT integration in English language teaching.

In another account, Yoo (2016) evaluated the effect of professional development on teacher efficacy and teacher's self-analysis of their efficacy change. The study was done in the United States of America (USA), where teachers attended an online PD. The study reported increased teachers' efficacy by gaining new knowledge about the teaching content and instruction methods. As a result of knowledge gained, their confidence and sometimes the feeling of uncertainty also increased.

Moreover, El Afi (2019) appraised the impact of PD on teachers' performance in Abu Dhabi, United Arab Emirates (UAE). The training focused on introducing teachers to the new school model to help improve students' Arabic and English skills. The study found that the training impacted teachers as follows: first, lesson planning skills such as modifying the lesson per lesson development and creating a three-part lesson plan. Secondly, they gained new teaching approaches, such as cooperative learning methods and teaching methods that limit teachers' dominance. Third, teachers also developed classroom management skills such as arranging the class by mixing higher and lower achievers and paying attention to lower achievers while teaching. The challenge, however, is that ideas were not contextualised, which limits their application. Also, the PD offered was irrelevant to the age group teachers taught and limited resources to help them apply the ideas.

Hennessy *et al.* (2015) evaluated the pedagogic change by Zambian primary school teachers participating in the OER4Schools professional development programme for one year. The PD objective was to enhance and support active and collaborative learning of mathematics and science. The study found that teachers could shift from lecturing to more participatory teaching and learning methods because of the PD. They could encourage students to share ideas and lead in different classroom activities. They also learned teaching by considering learners' prior knowledge and adopting instruction to students' levels and needs. The impact was also observed in classrooms, whereby students' engagement and enjoyment of the lesson increased. Attributes to the programme's success include the fact that the PD was designed contextually, paying attention to the factors, such as large class sizes, that usually hinder the effectiveness of PD in many Sub-Saharan African countries. Also, local experts and teachers were involved in programme design and implementation. Lastly, the PD was practical and characterised by the extensive use of reflective dialogue through post-lesson review and planning, along with video-stimulated discussion, critical inquiry, and provision of continued support.

Wedell (2012) evaluated the Oman BA Project. The project focused on transforming Oman schools' teaching and learning of the English language from a content-focused to a student-centred approach. Therefore, 1,000 Omani diploma English language teachers upgraded to a Bachelor of Arts (BA) in Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) for three years. The study reported a few features that caused the programme to be a success. First, participants were allowed to retain their role as language teachers while in the study. Thus, they had ample time to consider the appropriateness of what they have been learning in their classroom context. Also, each weak teachers were given a day release to meet each other and their full-time MA-qualified Regional Tutor for sharing. Long project duration was also a factor for success. The project was funded for a nine-year period. Apart from sustainable funding, the project goals aligned with the broader education reform that the country was trying to implement.

Schoen *et al.* (2019) evaluated a two-week summer institute PD designed to increase teacher content and pedagogical content knowledge in probability and statistics in Florida, USA. Findings showed that the PD significantly impacted teachers' content knowledge in the domain of probability and statistics. However, more impact was reported among teachers with ten years of experience and above compared to those with

experience below ten years. One reason could be those with ten years did not have a chance to learn the same when they were students, while those with below ten years' experience did. Also, training achievement was attributed to the absence of in-service training provided to Mathematics teachers in probability and statistics. The situation might have increased the likelihood of positively impacting any moderately well-designed programme.

While some schoolers reported a positive programme impact, some did not. Jacob et al. (2017) reported unsatisfactory training impact in the United States of America. The focus was to determine how much the professional development program impacted Mathematical teachers' knowledge, instruction, and student achievement. The training was conducted over 3years, for a week at the summer institute and six in-service days each year. The study found that the impact was not good despite the training being designed by adhering to all conditions for effective training. There was limited evidence for positive outcomes on teachers' knowledge. Also, the teacher's classroom practice and students' learning outcomes were not affected. The study comments that the result could have been attributed to the decline of leadership support in the subsequent years (2 and 3), whereby some programme champions retired. Also, no impact could be because the PD did not consider teachers' actual learning needs and the level of proficiency in the subject. But also, it could be the PD itself and the activities therein could not influence teachers' knowledge and change their classroom practice.

Moreover, Lindvall *et al.* (2022) reported on the impact and design of a national-scale professional development program, Boost for Mathematics (BfM), for Mathematics Teachers in Sweden. The programme was implemented for one year to train more than 30,000 elementary school mathematics teachers. The study found that while BfM training significantly influenced teachers' knowledge of Mathematics instructions, a small impact was observed in their classroom practice. Besides, there was no impact on students' achievement. Factors that amounted to the finding include that the PD significantly invested in changing teachers' knowledge and paid less attention to teachers' classroom practice and students' achievement. Also, BfM objectives and the need for teachers' change were too broad. As a result, they become overwhelmed, limiting the quality of change implementation.

To summarise, from context to outcome, all reviewed studies point to why in-service training can have an enormous impact, moderate or no effect. The concerns can be lessened to in-service training antecedents, transactions, school environment and how they had or lacked features of effective in-service training. According to Hayes (2014), the challenge occurs because programme designers ignore parts likely to bring positive changes. Teachers' beliefs and how they will react to change are often overlooked during programme design. Thus, there is a need for all stakeholders, both national and local, to be involved beyond top-down commanding approaches.

However, the reviewed studies indicated that even a well-designed and implemented INSET can be ineffective. Among the factors that may lead to the ineffectiveness of a well-designed programme is when need identification is considered fixed rather than evolving, and the change is viewed as an event rather than a process. Also, limitations may occur if the changes introduced are not incremental. Thus, based on the reviewed literature, the elements of effective INSET and designing and implementing INSET need to be adopted and done contextually.

### 3.3.2 Evaluation studies in Tanzania

Studies linked to the provision and evaluation of INSET for English language teachers in Tanzania are minimal. If done, they are not shared publicly because the majority are donor-funded; thus, evaluation findings are exclusively submitted to the funders without publicly sharing the result. Thus, much of the available literature either addresses the general challenges impacting professional development, focuses on INSET for other subjects or reports across disciplines of INSET. Even then, the researcher came across a few donor-funded INSETs for EFL teachers that were evaluated.

For example, Mkonongwa and Komba (2018) assessed the impact of education development and quality improvement projects on English language teacher training in Tanzania (EQUIP T-ELT). The project aimed to help college tutors and primary and secondary teachers use the English language as the MoI and teach confidently. Two courses offered by different providers were implemented concurrently, one focused on English and another on pedagogy.

The training accomplished to train teachers on different participatory methods and improve their academic competence, teamwork, mentoring, coaching and leadership skills. There was a transfer of knowledge and skills from the training to the classroom, such as preparing lesson plans and teaching materials. Participants changed their teaching approaches to be more participatory, and they could share knowledge and skills and learn how to work together. At institutional levels, the project improved human resource capacity, English language proficiency, and pedagogical and leadership skills. However, the challenge included a mismatch in service provision, poor communication, and timing because two projects were implemented at par.

Other studies on evaluation have focused on self-initiated projects designed and implemented to improve English language teaching. For instance, Prosper and Doroth (2017) developed, implemented and evaluated a school-based INSET which aimed at strengthening English learning by increasing English teachers' competencies through the interpretation of short stories. The findings indicate that the training enabled English language teachers to improve their knowledge and pedagogical skills using short stories to teach competence-based lessons. They also managed to establish a professional network. The programme's usefulness was due to its ability to include beneficiaries of training in designing. Besides, they could observe and receive feedback from their colleagues while teaching.

Moreover, Cullen (2001) implemented in-service training that used lesson transcripts to develop English language teachers' awareness of other forms of questioning that can be used in English lessons and improve their confidence. The study found that, through the approach, language teachers could depart from a teacher-centred to a student-centred approach. The approach allowed them to actively engage learners during teaching and learning. Through INSET, teachers also improved their command of the English language improved. Another study by Wyse *et al*. (2014) evaluated in-service training provided to primary school teachers to help them effectively teach the subject. The training was implemented by providing teaching materials and formation of teachers' books clubs. The activity moderately helped improve teacher pedagogy for teaching English communicatively and improved their confidence. The challenge, however, was inadequate resources and low proficiency in communicating using the English language, which hindered interactions.

Besides the evaluation of English language self-initiated projects, some studies have focused on INSET provided to teachers across the subject. Among them include Kabole (2013), who evaluated primary school teachers' perception of school-based INSET (MWAKEMI). His result indicated that headteachers and teachers were happy with the programme and outcome. Through the INSET, they acquired knowledge and skills in preparing schemes of work and improving their teaching methods. The programme also faced challenges such as a shortage of resources, weak mentoring and time constraints. Likewise, Hamisi (2018) evaluated the influence of LANEs' professional development in enhancing numeracy and literacy skills in Tanzania. The finding indicated that, as a result of the programme, teachers improved their knowledge and abilities, consequently improving literacy and numeracy in pupils. However, the challenge was inadequate time, inconsistency in content, and failure to include all qualified teachers.

Rugambwa *et al.* (2022) evaluated the contribution of Pro Bono Teacher Training (PTT) in enhancing teachers' ability to implement learner-centred pedagogy. The training was implemented for secondary school teachers using a school-based approach. It was reported that the training helped teachers teach using resources from the environment which motivated students to learn. Also, they were able to use learner-centred pedagogy in the classroom which increased student participation. Kasuga (2019) also reported on the status of PD provided to Tanzania's science and mathematics teachers. The study focused on the availability of professional development opportunities, implementation, and challenges. The study found a lack of mentorship to new recruits, poor organisation, and teachers' reluctance to learn from others. Besides, teachers are not involved in selecting topics for PD. Generally, the limitations of the PD make them ineffective.

Another study by Swai (2015) evaluated how teachers' networks impacted teacher professional development and performance in secondary schools. The network was implemented using the PROGRAM 1 project, whereby teachers teaching the same subject, mathematics, had a chance to share knowledge about teaching the subject under a competency-based curriculum. The study reported that training, though, impacted teachers' knowledge; there was weak knowledge based on some teaching methods. Besides, there was a poor relationship between teachers' improvement and change in students' learning outcomes. The study reported that the irregularity of training provision could have caused the situation.

Lastly, reporting on general challenges that impact INSET provision in Tanzania, studies have indicated challenges in providing in-service training ranging from need assessment, planning, and implementation to evaluation. That has been the case despite teachers' appreciation of how in-service training helps them improve their knowledge and skills and handle challenging issues in teaching and learning (Losioki, 2020). The challenge starts with the limited availability of chances for professional development. In-service teachers are only trained when a curriculum change (Komba and Mwakabenga, 2019). Otherwise, they are neither professionally assured to undergo in-service training nor motivated to take one. Over-reliance on donor funds, unequal distribution of organisations offering training, and responsibility overlap among INSET actors are also challenges discussed in Komba and Mwakabenga study.

Teaching workload and other cultural factors, such as poor culture for learning, collaboration and lack of trust, have hindered in-service teacher learning (Losioki, 2020). Limited follow-up, low quality of modules, poor service provided to teachers and incompetent school-based facilitators were also documented by Oygen (2017). In Maki's (2018) study, teachers complained of INSET being old-fashioned. Their perception was influenced by INSET's failure to use technological tools and involve them during planning and organisation. Even self-directed initiatives have faced limited support, discouragement, lack of reading materials, family obligations, poor learning environment and absence of permanent mentors (Jonathan, 2019).

Thus, critically reviewing the literature on the overall provision of Continue Professional Development (CPD) in Tanzania, one notes there are three initiators of CPD: independent individuals (researcher), the government and donors in alliance with the government. However, regardless of who provides, the challenge to effective INSET provision persists which hinders quality learning, human resource development and industrialisation. Scholars like Dachi (2018) and Komba and Mwakabenga (2019) believe that the country lacks the policy to promote effective INSET; thus, we need one. However, reviewed literature suggests otherwise; it is not the lack of policy causing the INSET to be at the state documented; instead, priority is a challenge. Hence, old guidelines may be updated, and new ones may be formulated, but if teachers continue professional development is not everyone's priority, challenges will persist.

### 3.3.3 Research gap

Komba and Mwakabenga (2019) and Komba and Nkumbi (2008) have highlighted many challenges facing INSET in Tanzania. However, their observations are not detailed and linked to a specific project design, implementation and outcome. Furthermore, the available research that has been conducted to evaluate the adequacy of INSET provided to improve EFL competency-based language teaching in Tanzania is either too general or cutting across all subjects (Dello, 2016). Other studies evaluated projects that did not aim to improve EFL teachers' knowledge and skills due to the 2005 curriculum change (Mkonongwa and Komba, 2018).

In addition, the 2020 national audit report observed that capacity buildings provided in Tanzania in three financial years (2016/17 to 2018/17) are characterised by a lack of resources, unequally distributed, poor content coverage, etc. Still, the report admits their findings were grounded on primary school projects such as LANE, EQUIP, and TUSOME PAMOJA. None of the audited projects aimed at secondary school teachers or linked to the 2005 curriculum implementation were documented. As a result, whilst ineffective teaching of the subject under CBC persists, the INSET provided have not been subjected to rigorous evaluation to understand their effectiveness. Thus, the study thought to cover the gap and conduct an in-depth analysis of INSET effectiveness in transforming EFL teachers' practice from content to competency-based language teaching.

## 3.4 Conceptual Framework

The framework was designed under the convention that many features in antecedents, transactions and outcomes influencing in-service training effectiveness. The components work together to facilitate achieving training goals, as indicated in Figure 1.

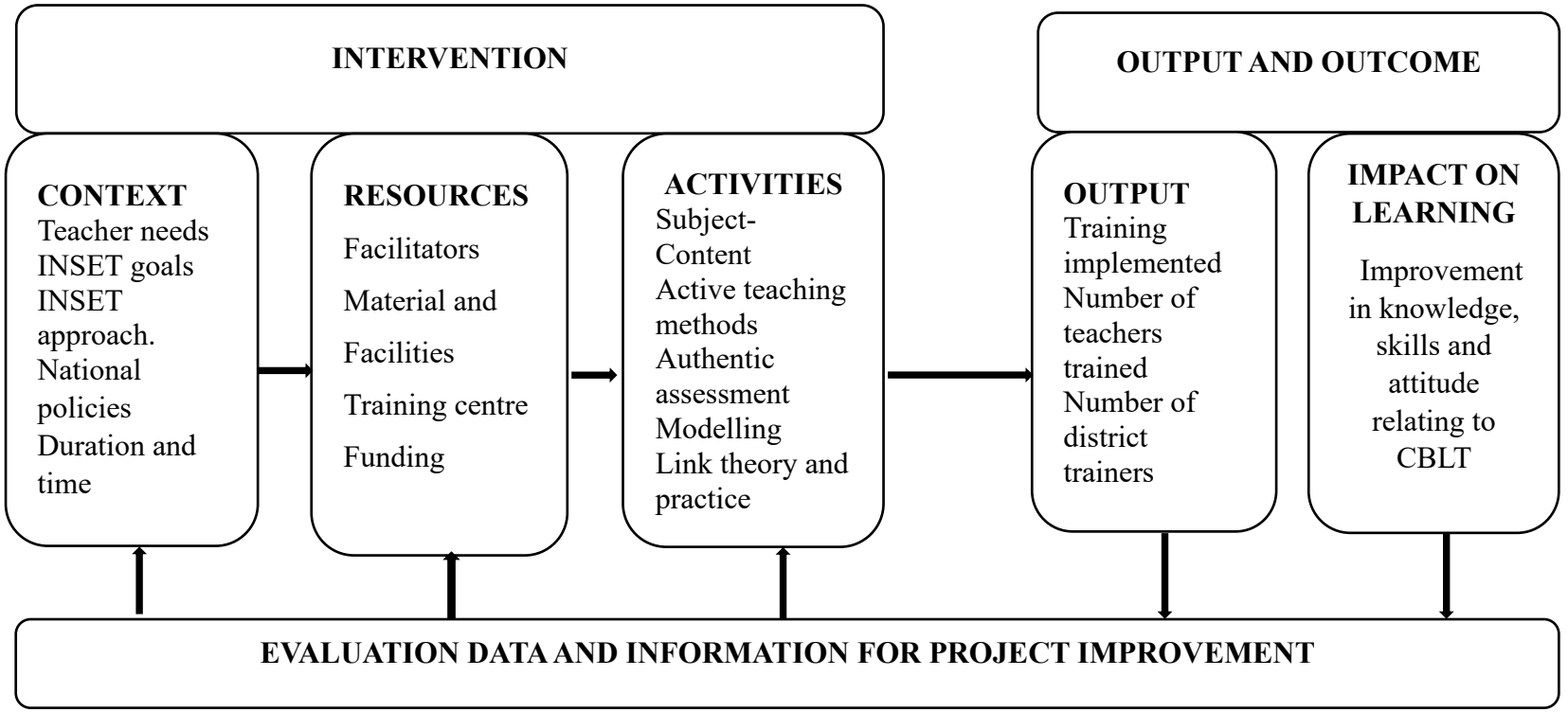



**Figure 1: Conceptual framework for evaluating in-service training effectiveness**

From Figure 1, the study focuses on how the INSET was effectively designed, supported and implemented to achieve the goals. The study was underpinned by the assumption that if the intervention context is effectively assessed sufficiently funded, and effectively implemented; then it will result in a change in EFL teachers' knowledge skills and attitude in CBLT. The subsequent change in EFT teachers, knowledge, skills and attitudes will also improve their classroom practice and students' learning outcomes. Therefore, evaluation of INSET effectiveness will provide evaluation data that will help improve the programme and strengthen programme outcomes.

### 3.5 Chapter Summary

Generally, Chapter Three presented a literature review. The critical aspect reviewed includes vital terms used in the study, followed by the presentation and justification of the study's theoretical stance and evaluation approach. The chapter also covered an empirical literature review, internationally and locally as well as the research gap and conceptual framework.

# CHAPTER FOUR

## 4.0 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

### 4.1 Research Philosophy

The study was guided by an interpretive research philosophy, which advocates for the world to be naturally studied without being manipulated or integrated into the researcher's pre-conceived interpretations of the world (Cohen *et al.,* 2018; Creswell, 2017; Martens, 2014). According to interpretivism, everyone has their interpretation of their world, rendering its variation in meaning and the availability of multiple truths (Creswell and Poth, 2018). Therefore, the research aims to obtain the meaning of an event based on those being studied (Cohen *et al.,* 2018; Creswell, 2017; Martens, 2014).

The interpretive paradigm was used since the study target was to explore INSET effectiveness based on the experience of those who took part in INSET design and implementation. According to Thanh and Tran (2015), there is no better way to understand an event than when spoken by members directly affected by it and analysed, focusing on their perspective, experiences, and perceptions to uncover the reality. Therefore, using the experiences of diversified INSET participants, the study captured contextual diverse views of programme effectiveness that could lead to strengthening and modification of the in-service training. Also, interpretivism philosophy was used to help generate more contextualised recommendations of INSET effectiveness relevant to Tanzania's context.

The study was further underpinned by interpretivism ontology that reality is multiple since an event is unique to everyone based on their experience (Cohen *et al.,* 2018). Hence, numerous truths (ontology) of the programme effectiveness were constructed from the INSET actors who had different roles during INSET, ranging from trainees, trainers and organisers. Besides, given the difference in characteristics of INSET trainees (work context, level of education, class taught and learning needs) and variation in INSET actors' responsibilities during the training, their views of training effectiveness were also not the same.

Epistemologically, the study was supported by the assumption that knowledge is subjectively obtained through the researcher and participants' interaction (Bruce *et al.,*

2016). Ugwu *et al.* (2021) emphasise that the meaning of an event relates to the researcher's thinking by drawing on the information exchanged with the participants. Therefore, to uncover multiple realities for project effectiveness, the knowledge was subjectively constructed through the researcher's interaction with informants during interviews and analysis of the documents related to INSET design and implementation.

### 4.2 Research Approach

The study used a qualitative research approach. The research approach is more appropriate when a study focuses on capturing informants' diversified points of view on a particular training or topic (Gauttier, 2020). Instead of using numbers and generalising the findings to the broader population, qualitative research relies on storytelling to obtain unfathomable individualised meaning and experience associated with an event (Awasthy, 2020; Jinks *et al.,* 2012; Sharan and Tisdell, 2015). The advantage of using qualitative research to understand an event is that it allows interaction between the researcher and the participants while allowing them to express their innermost opinion of the item being studied (Gauttier, 2020). Thus, through the interactions, the researcher could construct participants' views on the effectiveness of INSET being evaluated.

The qualitative research approach was selected because the focus was to obtain reach and in-depth information on INSET effectiveness provided to O-level secondary school EFL teachers since the introduction of the new curriculum in 2005. The approach is effective when there is a need to investigate a complex issue that needs exploration, obtaining a range of perspectives and opinions (Creswell and Poth, 2018; Dornyei, 2007). Therefore, given limited research on subject-specific INSET effectiveness, especially for EFL teachers in Tanzania, an in-depth analysis was required.

Secondly, the approach was selected in order to collect diversified perspectives that will provide a comprehensive understanding of INSET effectiveness. Therefore, multiple-meaning realities and experiences that each participant attached to the training were obtained as it is quoted that "each individual ascribes certain characteristics and attributes to any given situation" (Williams, 2008, p. 59). Third, the approach allowed stakeholders to engage in evaluating INSET effectiveness. According to Wolgemuth *et al.* (2014), making respondents' voices count in understanding an event gives them a sense of control, empowerment, self-awareness, and purpose. Thus, the qualitative approach

helped honour and represent the participants' perspectives who are mostly impacted by the curriculum change and in-service training. Their views were considered essential in enhancing and shaping INSET effectiveness.

### 4.3 Research Design

The study employed a narrative research design that honours the tells of a particular event, object or programme as they occurred in a specific social context as the primary source of knowledge (Patton, 2015). Narration provides detailed information about the lived experience rather than limiting the study to certain preconceived notions of an event, providing the individual subjective experience of a programme, allowing participants to be an expert on the field being studied and share trajectories on an incident across the life span (Carless and Douglas, 2017).

The study used a narrative research approach to allow the respondents to share their stories and views of INSET effectiveness. According to Shakman *et al.* (2017), programmes are designed and implemented by the people, which in turn affects their lives and the community at large. Thus, using narration, the study kept participants' views and experiences of the INSET programme at the centre of evaluating INSET effectiveness. The aim was to understand the training trajectory using the stories of those affected by the programme. The collecting reports of INSET effectiveness were guided by open-ended interview questions shaped across different stages of INSET: planning, implementation and impact. The stories unravel how participants became aware of the INSET, the adequacy of the INSET resources, the effectiveness of the implementation process, and its influence on their knowledge.

### 4.4 Study Area

The study was conducted in two regions: Kilimanjaro and Manyara Regions. In Kilimanjaro Region, the study was done in the following districts: Same, Mwanga, Hai, Rombo, and Moshi (districts councils). In Manyara Region, the study was conducted in Babati Town Council, Babati District Council, and Simanjaro Districts. While not all districts were visited for data collection, each had a participant(s) who attended INSET at the regional level. However, the inclusion and exclusion of the districts depended on the participant's willingness to participate in the study. As a result, only the districts with participants who verbally agreed to form part of the study population were included.

The study locations were purposely selected based on their relevance to the research objective. The two regions implemented INSET to improve EFL teachers' understanding and implementation of CBLT. In the Kilimanjaro region, the INSET was implemented in December 2016, while in the Manyara Region, EFL teachers were trained in September 2015. Therefore, conducting the study in the regions and to group participants who have attended the training made it possible to obtain answers to the research questions and fill the established research gap. Moreover, the two study areas were selected not for comparative purposes but to diversify respondents' views. The diversification helped collect contextual and complementary insight into INSET effectiveness across the regions.

### 4.5 Population for the Study

The study population included respondents who designed and implemented the INSET at the regional level. It mainly comprised members of the regional management team, specifically district education officers and zones chief inspector of schools. They were selected to provide information about how the INSET was introduced, organised and sensitised at the regional levels. They also provided data on INSET on funding and resources required for the smooth implementation of the INSET. Besides the regional management team, there was also a regional technical team comprising district education officers, zones chief inspector of schools, and representatives of regional trainers. These were selected to obtain information on INSET budgeting, materials, and monitoring and evaluation plans for INSET.

The third category comprised regional facilitators (RF) who were included to obtain their experience on their selection and career growth as RF. They also provided information on the INSET implementation process, availability of material during learning, need assessment, cascading, and monitoring and evaluation of the programme. The general views of the INSET were obtained from INSET trainees (EFL teachers). Since the training affected them most, they provided data on the overall INSET design, implementation and outcome. Lastly, the heads of the school were selected to obtain information on need assessment at the school level, selection of trainees and in-house training at school.

## 4.6 Sample and Sampling Procedure

### 4.6.1 Sample size and saturation

Thirty-four (34) respondents were used as the study sample size. They included twenty-one trainees (secondary school English language teachers), two regional facilitators, district education officers, INSET coordinators and seven heads of schools. The sample size was determined by the saturation point reached during data collection and analysis. First, respondents were put into groups, i.e., trainers, trainees, heads of schools, regional INSET coordinators, and education officers. After that, data from each respondent in the group was coded and thematised individually as the data collection proceeded. The first interview to be coded was from trainees. The interview produced 100 codes that were grouped into six (6) themes.

However, only four themes related to the research objectives and the remaining themes were kept in the category named “other themes”. The themes from the first interview were compared to those generated in the second interview. The aim was to compare and obtain new theme(s) not captured in the first interview. The themes from the third interview were again compared with themes from the first and second interviews to establish similarity and identify new theme (s) not captured the same in the first and second interviews. The process continued until, when adding more interviews, coding, and thematising did not produce themes, then it was assumed saturation was reached, and sampling was stopped. Initially, the plan was to interview 68 respondents. However, saturation was reached at 34 respondents. The distribution of sample size is presented in Table 3.

**Table 3: Sample size and saturation**

| Types of participants | Participants Distribution | | Total | Code Name |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Male | Female | | |
| District education officers | 1 | 1 | 2 | DEOK1, DEOK2 |
| Regional INSET Coordinators | 2 | - | 2 | RCoK, RCoM |
| Facilitators | - | 2 | 2 | F1K, F1M |
| Heads of schools | 6 | 1 | 7 | HoS1K, HoS2K HoS3K, HoS4K HoS1M, HoS2M HoS3M |
| EFL Teachers trainees | 12 | 9 | 21 | T1K, T2K, T3K, T4K, T5K, T6K, T7K, T8K, T9K, T10K, T11K, T12K T13K, T1M, T2M T3M, T4M, T5M T6M, T7M, T8M |
| **Subtotal** | **21** | **12** | | |
| **GRAND TOTAL** | | **34** | | |

Table 3 summarises respondents' sample size, composition, and code names. All trainees from Kilimanjaro were named TK, followed by a serial number; likewise, all from Manyara were named TM, followed by a serial number. The rest were named using their titles, such as HoS for heads of schools, F for Facilitators and DEO for district education officers, with the addition of a number if they are more than one and an alphabet indicating where they came from. The respondents' demographic characteristics is presented in Appendix D, Table 4.

### 4.6.2 Sampling procedure

Purposive sampling was used as a sampling strategy. Together in-depth information on INSET effectiveness, the study deliberately involved participants who took part in INSET at the regional level. They were chosen because they possessed relevant knowledge of the area that was being investigated. Therefore, the criteria for selecting trainees included being O-level secondary school EFL teachers and attending INSET that was being evaluated. Facilitators, heads of schools, and education officers were chosen because they were part of the team involved in INSET design and implementation. After purposely identifying the target informants, reaching them began with informant T6K in the

Kilimanjaro region, who related to the researcher. T6K referred the researcher to RCoK, who coordinated the INSET in the Kilimanjaro region. RCoK provided the list containing the names, phone numbers, schools, and districts of all O-Level EFL English language teachers who participated in INSET. From that point, participants on the list were phone-called to ask if they could be interviewed. If the answer was YES, further arrangement for data collection followed, and when the response was NO, the researcher returned to the list and identified another respondent. A similar procedure was used to reach respondents in the Manyara Region, whereby RCoK referred the researcher to RCoM, who was also in charge of INSET coordination. He also provided a list of all EFL teachers who participated in the INSET. Afterwards, each trainee was contacted and asked for consent to form part of the respondents. Again, if the response was YES, the procedure for data collection followed, and if the answer was no, another trainee in the list was contacted.

## 4.7 Data Collection Strategies

### 4.7.1 Data type

The study relied on primary data collected using documentary reviews and interviews. While interviews provided verbal data, which were later transcribed and analysed, the documentary review focused on reviewing documents such as the training manual, facilitator guide, handouts, training reports, invitation letters and timetabling. These documents were in the hands of INSET trainees, trainers and coordinators of the programme and were used for designing, implementing and facilitating the smooth operation of the training.

### 4.7.2 Data collection process

#### 4.7.2.1 Piloting data collection tools

Before effective data collection began, data collection tools were piloted, specifically the interview guides. According to Sampson (2004), there is a difference between being prepared and being better prepared. Making a researcher better prepared is what a pilot study does. The pilot study tells a researcher if something can be done, and if yes, then how (Ismail *et al.,* 2017)? Doing so helps to minimise risks and resources, checks the viability of the research by assessing the whole study, increases researcher experience with the methods and establishes a bond between researcher and respondents (Majid *et al.,* 2017; Sampson, 2004).

The study utilised pilot to test the ability of interview guides to elicit answers to the research questions, get to know respondents, understand the difficulty level of questions and determine if the data collection strategy was appropriate. Due to time constraints and financial limitations, piloting was done in Kilimanjaro Region only, and five (5) EFL teachers, an officer in charge of management and administration of training and a trainer consented to be interviewed. After the interview, findings were collected and reviewed to see if the research questions were answered, which they did. However, the pilot revealed that there were a few adjustments needed. Among the adjustments included the need to separate between major questions and probes. Some parts of the questions were removed, others were added, and others required editing and paraphrasing.

A few things learned during the pilot concerning the whole study and data collection was that audio recording would not be acceptable to everyone. During the pilot, some respondents refused to be recorded. Therefore, the informed consent form added a section asking informants for their consent to be recorded before we start an interview. Moreover, when the researcher called respondents to ask if they could be interviewed, "What is in it for us?" was the following question. That indicated that there is a possibility that some respondents will need to be paid. Fortunately, those who agreed didn't ask for payment. During the pilot, the researcher also learned that collecting data via Focus Group Discussion (FGD) would be challenging, as proposed during proposal writing. Respondents were dispersed, and phone, mail or virtual interviews would not have been a good option since many of the participants' schools were in rural areas where power and internet are still challenging.

The last item that the pilot study brought to the researcher's attention was the need to contact respondents before processing permits and visiting them for data collection. It could be a waste of money and time to mindlessly process permits for all districts in study areas to reach the school and find that respondents had transferred to other regions or never wanted to be interviewed. Even then, some agreed to an interview and still came up with an excuse for not being interviewed when the time came.

#### 4.7.3.2 Data collection methods

Data were collected using two methods, namely, interview and documentary review.

### i. Interview

The study used one-to-one semi-structured interviews. The interview is performed less tightly, allowing the interviewer and interviewee to pursue ideas in detail (Britten, 1995). In a semi-structured interview, one-to-one interviews were conducted whereby the researcher interviewed one respondent at a time. Creswell (2017) comments that one-to-one is expensive and time-consuming, which it was. Yet, despite the time and cost, it was still a better data collection approach since many respondents resided in rural areas and were dispersed. Not being assured of their telephone network availability, their ability to interview virtually, or if they can be on the phone for a long time, the researcher chooses to visit each respondent at their school and conduct an in-person interview. By doing so, it was possible to interview only one respondent per day.

Creswell (2017) further adds that one-on-one interviews are ideal for participants who are not hesitant to speak, articulate and can share ideas comfortably. For this study case, that was also a challenge. Sometimes, the researcher met with respondents who turned a semi-structured interview into a structured one with a yes or no response. Even before being interviewed, some declared that they were not articulative. Since there was no way to decide in advance who was articulative and who was not, all who agreed to take part in the study were interviewed. Thus, with very articulative and non-hesitant respondents, interviews lasted from 40 minutes to an hour or hours and a half, while for those who were not, an interview lasted from 25 to 30 minutes.

The flexible nature and the ability to provide exhaustive participants' experience of an event was the reason for choosing the semi-structured interview over other strategies for data collection. Yes, the questions were pre-determined in the interview guide, yet respondents did not have to answer one question after the other. There was a time when answering the first research question, and the answer to the second question was also provided. Doing so saved time that could have been spent going from one question to another. Moreover, a more profound and individualised experience was collected. Each member shared their story about the INSET design, implementation, and outcome without being confined to the researcher's assumption.

On the day of the interview, the researcher again introduced herself, explaining the research's purpose and why the respondent was best for the study. Also, the researcher

had to seek informed consent to record the conversation. Doing so helps the interviewer to focus on what is being said rather than being busy taking notes (Firmin, 2008). Some agreed to be recorded, while others did not. To those who agreed, the conversation was recorded using a phone and audio recorder. Notes were taken for those who did not. Taking notes was not easy since what was needed was not the summary of what was being communicated; instead, every detail and point mattered. As a researcher, there was a time when I got trapped between taking notes, probing and listening. In addition, respondents had to choose which language they preferred to be interviewed with before an interview. Even though the questionnaire was in English, Kiswahili was preferred. Thus, all the questions and clarification were asked and answered in Kiswahili.

In a nutshell, one-to-one interviews helped answer all four research objectives. Interviews with the trainees helped to understand INSET marketing, resources, implementation, and significant change stories in the knowledge and skills. Interviewing the heads of schools helped to obtain information on their roles in planning, implementing, and cascading INSET to EFL teachers who did not attend. Facilitators provided details on their selection, their journey to becoming facilitators and a general view of the INSET process. On the other hand, district education officers and regional INSET coordinators' interviews highlighted the overall INSET design, such as need assessment, their involvement in the INSET planning and implementation and if there was any challenge they faced while designing and implementing the INSET.

**Documentary review**

Along with interviews, documents were used as a data source, not to supplement or seek convergence and corroboration as Bowen (2009) suggests, but rather as independent methods on their merit. The documents collected were only those related to the INSET that the current study evaluated, were in the respondent's possession, and they affirmed that they were given during the training. Obtained documents included participants' invitation letters, INSET diaries, reports, timetables, hand-outs, training manuals and facilitation guide.

The data obtained from the documents helped understand research objectives on its originality, objectives, sources of funds, the content needed to be covered, resources required to be available, how training was supposed to be conducted, and the expected

outcome. Compared to interviews, documents were an inexpensive collection method and saved time. Even though some were not free of errors, they still provided valuable information in understanding the case being studied.

ii. **The Most Significant Change (MSC)**

The most significant change (MSC) technique is a participatory method of evaluating programme impact using stories from those directly affected by the programme without pre-determined indicators (Dart and Davies, 2003). The technique was used as an evaluation method for objective four, which focused on evaluating in-service training's impact on teachers' learning. The approach is suitable for understanding perceived change as the result of the training from the beneficiary's point of view and other unexpected outcomes (Ralalicia *et al.,* 2018). Therefore, to use the method, the change domain was first determined, whereas the study focused on learning (knowledge). The next step was collecting the stories of change relating to the domain using one-to-one semi-structured interviews, which allowed the gathering of more reflective and individualised change stories. The interview was followed by selecting the most significant change stories linked to the training objective. Lastly, stories were again shared with respondents for verification.

## 4.8 Data Organisation and Analysis

Data organisation and analysis highlight what took place after data was collected, including categorisation, transcription of recorded interviews and analysis of both interviews and documentary data.

### 4.8.1 Data organisation

Data collection went hand in hand with data organisation. According to Bloomberg and Volpe (2019), qualitative data are usually capacious, which undeniably was. Collected data included interviews and documents. Thus, data was transferred from the audio recording equipment immediately after each interview to the computer. After that, a folder for each region was created, and within each, there was a folder for groups audio interviews such as trainees, trainers, heads of school and members of regional management teams. A folder was also created for secondary documents such as INSET pamphlets and reports. Moreover, during data organisation, the audio files were renamed, whereby respondents' actual names were replaced with pseudo names.

### 4.8.2 Data translation and transcription

It must be remembered that all interview responses were in Kiswahili, even though the questionnaire was prepared in English. As reported earlier, a respondent was free to pick either to respond in English or Kiswahili, and all opted for Kiswahili. Since the two languages are used in the public domain (formal and informal) (Lusekelo and Alphonce, 2018), responding in any of the languages was encouraged if respondents were comfortable and proficient in the language chosen. The researcher did translation and transcription concurrently, and no one was hired. The process allows the researcher to become familiar with the information collected, and they can write memos as they continue the process (Bloomberg and Volpe, 2019; Sharan and Tisdell, 2016). Therefore, not hiring an assistant for data transcription allowed the researcher to become familiar with the data and easily recall who said what. Thus, any interesting aspect of the data that was not coded was easily revisited.

## 4.9 Data Analysis

### 4.9.1 Tools for data analysis

Two main tools were used to analyse data. Information from documents was analysed manually using colours, highlighters, and sticky notes. Thus, before starting manual coding, documents were photocopied. However, data from one-to-one interviews were analysed using computer-assisted qualitative data analysis software ATLAS.ti. After transcription, all interviews were converted into a file compatible with the software and uploaded. Interviews were grouped into four categories: trainees, trainers, heads of school and education officers. For each category, new ATLAS. ti project was created, and relevant word documents were uploaded.

Software is the best when handling the volume of data that needs classifying, sorting, filing, storing, reconfiguring, performing several analytic operations and working collaboratively(Bloomberg and Volpe, 2019; Peterson, 2017). Indeed, ATLAS.ti helped to store, organise and sort the data, making coding and recoding, retrieving, and searching for specific information easier. Appendix E, Extract I, shows part of the trainees' transcribed interviews uploaded to ATLAS.ti for further analysis.

### 4.9.2 Methods for data analysis

Both data from interviews and documents were analysed thematically using a thematic approach. Thematic is a method for analysing data that focuses on analysing common patterns of ideas that emerged across the collected information that answers the research questions (Braun and Clarke, 2020; Peterson, 2017). The analysis modality was selected to provide a rich and in-depth interpretation of the evaluated training. The approach facilitated using the respondent experiences as the central for judging INSET effectiveness and provided the basis for its improvement. Therefore, thematically, data analysis involves six nonlinear stages: familiarisation with data, generating initial code, searching for themes, reviewing code, defining and naming themes, and producing reports (Braun and Clarke, 2012; Braun *et al.,* 2013). The stages were applied as follows:

#### i. Familiarization with data

Getting acquainted with data involves reading and reading the transcript to become intimately attached to the data (Byrne, 2021). In this study, the stage started during data collection and transcription. The researcher personally collected and transcribed data. The process was repeated after the transcripts were already uploaded to ATLAS.ti. Thus, while reading and re-reading, the researcher also noted down words and phrases that could be used during the second data analysis stage. For documents, data familiarisation involves reading to become aware of the information. Reading the documents entailed finding information on the critical aspects of the INSET context, resources, implementation process and outcome. Thus, while reading, the initial impression of the text related to the study objectives was also highlighted.

#### ii. Generating initial code

The second stage was generating the initial code. In this study, codes were generated inductively. According to Linneberg and Korsgaard (2019), inductive coding is when codes are generated directly from research data using exact words and phrases said by the participants. Codes were generated using ATLAS. ti tools such as auto coding and open coding helped navigate from one transcript to another during the generation of the initial code. Inductive coding was selected to capture every participant's view, idea and opinion about the event. The codes were mainly phrases and words assigned to a sentence or paragraph. Likewise, coding in ATLAS.ti went parallel with writing memos, notes, or hints on different aspects of data for further analysis. Generating codes from the

documents was done manually by reading and highlighting with a colour a part of a sentence(s) that was/were relevant to the study objectives and assigning code. Appendix D, Tables 5-9, summarises the codes and themes generated for each study objective.

### iii. Generating themes

After coding, the next phase was generating themes. A theme is a pattern of shared meaning presented using one main idea (Braun and Clarke, 2020). In TLAS.ti, the process is called creating a FAMILY, whereby a group of codes capturing the same ideas are kept together. Therefore, all the codes generated from interviews in stage two (2) were re-read and added to the appropriate family. Moreover, in documents, the themes were developed using sticky notes. Therefore, all the codes falling under context, resources, implementation and training outcome evaluation were handwritten on sticky notes and attached to the appropriate theme category.

### iv. Reviewing the themes

Stage four involves re-analysing the themes to see if they match well with the coded data (Braun *et al.,* 2013). At this stage, the researcher revised the code grouped in documents and ATLAS.ti to see if they communicated a story in a particular theme. Mismatch codes to the theme were removed, empty codes were deleted, and re-coding was done. In another aspect, a theme did not have enough codes to tell its story; thus, the dataset was revised. Also, some data were omitted because they were not captured using the initial code. In that case, the researcher had to re-visit every transcript, read, code and assign them to appropriate families. The codes appearing in more than one family were also re-checked to see if they capture what each family stands for; if not, they were deleted completely or kept in one theme. Besides, reading was done repeatedly for both documents and interviews to allow saturation of both codes and themes.

### v. Defining and renaming the themes and producing a report

The last two phases of thematic data analysis, defining and renaming the themes and producing the report, were done co-concurrently. First, the themes and codes were exported to the word documents based on the research objectives. Then, they were broken down into other sub-themes. Likewise, the codes generated from documentary reviews were paraphrased and merged with those from ATLAS.ti. After that, the main themes or sub-themes were changed to more elaborative words, phrases and sentences that grasp

what the section and subsection are all about. Lastly, quotations for each theme and subthemes were also added, and notes from memos were also used to support the argument and strengthen the report-writing process.

### 4.10 Rigour of the Research Findings

Rigour refers to the quality of the research process, which results in more trustworthiness of research findings (Saumure and Given, 2008). According to Sharan and Tisdell (2016), the term was coined to define the quality of qualitative research outside of reliability and validity parameters as used in quantitative research. Therefore, the criteria used to establish the trustworthiness of qualitative research include credibility, transferability, dependability and confirmability.

#### 4.10.1 Credibility

Credibility emphasises the degree to which the researcher has sufficiently managed to capture and represent adequate multiple realities revealed by informants (Krefting, 1991). It can be achieved through prolonged field experience, persistence observation, triangulation, member checking, peer examination/debriefing, and negative case analysis (Lincoln and Guba, 1986). To ensure the data collected are credible, the study used triangulation of data sources whereby multiple realities of the INSET programme were obtained from different categories of respondents such as trainees, trainers, heads of schools, and education officers. Respondents had different roles and came from varied locations and work contexts; hence, their narration of the INSET's effectiveness varied from one participant to another. Negative case analysis was also used data during the interpretation and analysis of the research findings, whereby balance was given to both negative and positive respondents' narration of the INSET being evaluated.

#### 4.10.2 Transferability

Transferability aims at assessing "the degree to which the findings can be applied to other contexts and settings or with other groups" (Krefting, 1991, p. 216). However, since the qualitative study does not aim at generalisability but developing context-specific findings, transferability involves checking if the lesson learned in one setting can be applied in the other (Bloomberg and Volpe, 2019) as long as the setting is similar (Guba, 1981). To achieve transferability, a rich and thick description of the study setting, and findings has to be provided. Moreover, purposive sampling of study settings or

participants can capture diversity and similarities (Anney, 2014; Creswell and Poth, 2018; Sharan and Tisdell, 2015).

Given the availability of different methods to ensure the transferability of the research findings, the study used purposive sampling and a thick and rich description of the research methodology to help achieve transferability. Purposively selecting the participants helped in including only relevant respondents who could provide in-depth narration of the INSET being evaluated. In addition, a thick description of the research process and the participants' detailed analysis supported by several quotes from the participants was also used.

### 4.10.3 Dependability

Dependability focuses on whether the data collection methods can produce unchanging results if the research is repeated in a different time and setting (Cohen *et al.,* 2018; Guba, 1981). However, qualitatively, it is impossible to get similar results because there are multiple realities and human beings evolve (Guba, 1981; Sharan and Tisdell, 2016). Hence, even with indifference resulting from the error, reality shifts and increased instrumental proficiency, the results can be accepted as long as they can be traced (Lincoln and Guba, 1986). The methods that help achieve dependability are audit trial, triangulation, reflexivity and code-recoding (Bloomberg and Volpe, 2019). The study used an audit trail to ensure dependability, whereas a detailed description of the research methods, analysis and interpretation of the findings were provided. Also, choice, change made, and challenge experienced during the whole process of the research were documented. Lastly, the output of different aspects of data analysis was given where necessary.

### 4.10.4 Confirmability

The last strategy that can help improve the rigour of qualitative research is confirmability. It focuses on the extent to which the "findings are the result of the experiences and ideas of the informants, rather than the characteristics and preferences of the researcher (Shenton, 2004, p. 72)." Confirmability allows a researcher to "recognise their own experiences and subjectivity which might have influenced their interpretations and made them known to the reader through a process of reflexivity (Petty *et al.,* 2012, p. 270)." Besides reflexivity, audit trail and transparency in every choice made in theory,

methodology, and analysis should also be provided to maintain neutrality (Bloomberg and Volpe, 2019; Moser and Korstjens, 2018). The objectivity was preserved through an audit trial whereby repeated comparison between the transcript and the audio file to observe if the transcript was in harmony with respondents' views and not just the researcher's assumption. The audio files were re-listed, and the transcript was re-read to ensure no omission, deletion or dilution to the respondent's experience. Likewise, a peer-to-peer examination was also utilised, and their suggestions and comments were incorporated to improve the research process and findings.

### 4.11 Ethical Issues and Considerations

Since the study was qualitative, Dornyei (2007) insists that ethical matters are essential. The researcher must ensure that the dignity of both information and the participants are well protected (Fouka and Mantzorou, 2011). Every aspect of the research process needs to adhere to ethical principles so that participants are kept away from any harm that may result from their participation in the research (Anangisye, 2017). That being the case, the current study adhered to different ethics to ensure the research process was ethical and participants safeguarded. The ethical aspects that were adhered to include the following:

#### i. Approval to access the research site and the participants

Data collection started with the approval to go for data collection and access study percipients in the respective region. It involved obtaining authorisation from Moshi Co-operative University, Regional Administrative Secretary (RAS), District Administration Secretaries (DAS) and District Executive Director (DED) from Manyara and Kilimanjaro Regions to visit the schools. At school, heads of the schools were presented with the letter, and they allowed the researcher to proceed with the data collection.

#### ii. Informed consent

It is stipulated by Arifin (2018) that during data collection, participants need to be aware of what is being asked and expected of them. To achieve that, the researcher presented participants with informed consent both orally and handwritten. Orally, it was done even before processing the research permit whereby after obtaining the list of those who attended INSET, the researcher first phone called them. That was necessary since respondents dispersed; hence, it would have been a waste of time and resources to process the permit and visit just to be declined. Thus, during the phone call, they were told why

they were being contacted, the study's purpose, and what was required from them. The second informed consent was presented in writing on the interview day. Respondents were given an introduction with the letter and an informed consent form, which explained the aim of the study and what was required from them. The form also asked for permission to record the conversation and that it would be used for research purposes only. After reading, understanding, and signing, the interview proceeded.

### iii. Anonymity and confidentiality

The study also followed ethics by maintaining the participants' privacy, anonymity, and confidentiality. During the interview, privacy was maintained by allowing the informants to choose the place to be interviewed so that they would be free and comfortable to express their views. As a result, some chose to be interviewed at school, while some preferred an off-work context. Participants' names were removed during data transcription, and pseudonyms were used instead. Besides, any information suspected to lead to respondent identification was also deleted. That included the names of schools, places and any individual names mentioned during the interview. Any information that described a personal attribute that could be easily traced was removed.

## 4.12 Chapter Summary

The preceding chapter describes the overall research methodology. The chapter presents the research paradigm, approach and design used, and justification(s) for their selection. It also described the study population, sample size and sampling procedures used. The chapter also describes data and data collection methods that were employed during data collection. Any changes, challenges and modifications made during data collection were also depicted. Lastly, the chapter portrays the data analysis process, criteria for ensuring research trustworthiness and ethical issues that were followed. The next chapter presents the study findings.

# CHAPTER FIVE

## 5.0 PRESENTATION OF THE FINDINGS

### 5.1 Evaluation of the INSET Context

Evaluation of the INSET context focused on evaluating the background through which the training was designed. The analysis focused on INSET rationale and relevance, selection of trainees, implementation approach and the training duration and time.

#### 5.1.1 INSET rationale and its relevance

The evaluation of the rationale looked at the motive behind the INSET provision and the extent to which it was need-based. The results are provided in Table 10.

**Table 10: INSET rationale and its relevance**

| Aspect | Indicators | Interview quotes |
|---|---|---|
| INSET Rationale and Relevance | There was a genuine need for in-service training. | *The syllabus was competence-based, whereas teachers were teaching using teacher-centred methods. On the other hand, students did national examinations, which measured their competence. So, in 2012, there was a mass failure because students were asked questions that required real-life experience but were not taught (RCoM, 8 September 2018).* |
| | The training was designed based on the needs assessment | *No, because we already had a guide. So, materials were prepared according to the facilitation guide (EO1M, 3 November 2018).* |
| | The objectives were coherent with teaching challenges | *The new syllabus has sections that are very different from the old one. Assessment of the lesson plan and scheme of work was challenging. Understanding what competence is, was a problem (T3K, 22 November 2018).* |
| | The in-service training objectives were clear and stated in understandable terms. | *Yes, the objectives were clear to add knowledge to the teachers. I think that was the main objective (T9K, 18 September 2018).*<br>*The course objectives were good (T6M, 24 September 2018).* |
| | The training was coherent with the national policies and framework. | ** |

**Data were derived from a documentary review

Data in Table 10 indicates that the training was motivated by the need to transform English language teacher practice (teaching and assessment) from content-based to competence-based. One of the unprecedented challenges and consequences of curriculum change mentioned by RCoM was students' mass failure in the English language in national form four examinations in 2010, 2011 and 2012 due to curriculum-examination mismatch. Given the curriculum change and poor performance in the subject, teachers had to be trained to help them transition from content-based to competency-based language teaching in lesson preparation, presentation, assessment and evaluation.

Furthermore, data from the document review revealed that a government survey for need assessment was done at the national level in 2011. The survey affirmed that English language teachers faced challenges interpreting the competency-based syllabus and teaching some components. Even though the documents indicate that a survey for need assessment was done, trainees in the studied regions were not involved. While that was the case, the regional implementation guide, indicated in Table 11, allowed regional customisation of the INSET objectives.

**Table 11: Implementation plan for English Language Teacher's facilitation workshop, 2014**

| Objective | Activities | Actors | Time frame | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | | September | | | | October | | | | November | | | | December | | | |
| | | | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| To train teachers on curriculum implementation and to improve their ability to use the English language. | Preparation on identifying the number of English teachers in Kilimanjaro | Regional facilitator, DEDs and REO | ✓ | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | Identifying a suitable place for conducting the workshop | Regional Education Officer and Regional facilitator | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | Analysing the content of the training as per the needs of the region | Regional technical team and regional facilitator | | | | | | | ✓ | | | | | | | | | |
| | Testing the analysed content in selected /sampled schools (pilot studies)/facilitate | Regional facilitator, Regional technical team and Regional management team | | | | | | | | ✓ | | | | | | | | |
| | Re-analyzing the content after pilot studies | Regional facilitators and Regional technical team | | | | | | | | | | | ✓ | | | | | |
| | Analysing the required T/L as well as the cost of the training such as meal allowance, transport, night allowance, stationaries and secretarial | Regional facilitators and Regional technical team | | | | | | | | | | | | ✓ | | | | |
| | Formulating a timetable for the workshop<br>Planning who to facilitate on what topic | Regional facilitators and Regional technical team | | | | | | | | | | | | | ✓ | | | |
| | To conduct English language teachers workshop cycle one for five days | Regional facilitators and Regional technical team | | | | | | | | | | | | | | ✓ | | |
| | Evaluate the workshop.<br>Writing a report on the workshop<br>Disseminating report | Regional facilitators and Regional technical team | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | ✓ | |

Table 11 indicates the need for objective customisation. The process was done by piloting and re-analysing the content to ensure the goals related to the actual EFL teachers' needs. However, from the organisers' perspectives in Table 10, customisation was not done because materials for INSET (training manual and handbook) were already in place. Moreover, EOK2 remarked the following:

> *Most of the time, training is done at the national level. So, even needs identification is made at the national level. At the council level, we are involved in the participants' selection and implementation of the training. But we do not need identification. If that was the case, every municipal could prepare its own since there could be no uniformity (EOK2, 12 February 2019).*

Based on the above quotation, customisation was avoided to maintain content uniformity.

Remarkably, despite the INSET objectives not emanating from actual EFL teachers' needs in the studied regions, findings in Table 10 indicate that respondents applauded the training objective for being good and clearly stated in understandable terms. Besides, the objectives were coherent with day-to-day syllabus implementation challenges. Nevertheless, some respondents still viewed goals as irrelevant to real classroom situations. For example, participants TIK remarked that the challenges she faced before the training continued to exist even after the training:

> *What we learn from the training is not related to the classroom situation. For example, you may be taught how to manage a class with many students, but what are the students' abilities? They take it too general and say that no student cannot be taught. When you have a lot of students in class with different skills/capabilities, and some don't know how to read and write, it is challenging (T1K, 24 September 2018).*

T1K perceived the training objectives as irrelevant because, in some cases, the ideas were too artificial to be implemented in a classroom setting. In addition, T5K commented that large class size makes some ideas learned to be unrealistic.

> *Let us start with the teaching environment. The place where I teach has classes and teaching and learning materials. But some things are not there. For example, the number of students in private schools is not more than twenty-five (25). But a government school has up to eighty (80) students. So, it isn't easy to reach the lesson objective in eighty (80) minutes (T5K, 24 September 2018).*

While TIK and T5K complained of irrelevant objectives, others needed more than the training objectives could offer. For example, T2Kcommnetd, "*I wished they would tell us how to deal with students, especially with changes of rules to no corporal punishment".* Thus, she desired to learn other classroom management skills that do not include corporal punishment. T2K expected that the INSET objectives could have included reading:

> *The training objectives could have also focused on topics related to reading responses. Even if you check national examinations, reading carries a lot of marks. If students know literature books, they have passed even without reading any other topic (T2K, 17 September 2018).*

Thus, T2K needed to learn more about literature since many marks in national examinations are allocated for questions relating to literary works.

In connection to the objective being coherent with teachers' work, it was also coherent with the nation's policies and framework. The documentary review showed that the in-service training was supported by policies, plans and frameworks that insist on properly re-training teachers to develop students with skills and not just knowledge. To start with, Section 3.4.3 of the 2014 Education and Training Policy states that: "*the Government shall provide a conducive environment and ensure that the education and training sector produce skilled and enough manpower to meet the requirements of different sectors for the development of the Nation"* (URT, 2014). The policy section stresses the need for the education sector to produce a skilled workforce. Even though the policy does not directly state the issues of INSETs as it was in the 1995 Education and Training Policy that in-service training and re-training should be compulsory to ensure teacher quality and professionalism (URT, 1995), still skilled workforce that education needs to create comes from qualified teachers prepared by either pre-service or in-service teacher training.

Moreover, the Education Sector Development Plan (ESDP) of 2016-17 to 2020-21 strives to improve the quality of teaching by having qualified teachers at all levels through teacher training as per their needs. Besides, even the Public Service Regulations of 2003 Sec. 103 stipulate the requirement for employers to set aside funds for annual public workers re-training, conduct needs assessments, and train and monitor the programme for better results. On top of that, the 2020 National Framework for Continuing Teachers Professional Development insists on moving from a business-as-usual INSET to a more regular, ongoing, sustained, supported, and teacher-driven INSET. The focus is to help

teachers employ appropriate pedagogical and content knowledge that facilitates students' acquisition of competencies using inclusive pedagogy and andragogy teaching approach and information communication technology (ICT) in teaching.

Moreover, the findings indicated that the INSET was guided by the *"Guideline for Effective Operation and Management of In-Service Training for Secondary School Science and Mathematics Teachers."* While we appraise the presence of an implementation guideline that ensured the programme was uniformly conducted throughout the country, as the name reads, it was explicitly meant for ordinary-level science and mathematics teachers and not English language teachers. However, it became helpful since English language teachers were added along the way (during the third cycle of training for mathematics and science teachers). Therefore, there was no time to adjust the guideline or produce one; instead, they adopted what was readily available.

In a nutshell, despite the challenges that were observed in customising the INSET objectives, the irrelevance of the objectives to some of the respondents, the need for more objectives and uncustomed implementation guidelines, the INSET was timely needed, with clear and relevant goals and it supported by relevance legal framework, policy and regulation.

### 5.1.2 Trainees' selection

Evaluation of trainees' selection aimed at analysing the extent to which relevant participants were recruited and if their recruitment was based on the required merits. The results are summarised and presented in Table 12.

**Table 12: Trainees' selection**

| Aspect | Indicators | Interview quotes |
|---|---|---|
| Trainees' selection | The trainees were selected based on the established criteria. | *We selected trainees by analysing the performance of an individual teacher. Those who perform below the average may have weaknesses, so you help them improve their performance. Also, teachers in remote areas do not interact with other teachers, so they are considered first. For example, if you take teachers from Kibacha and Same Secondary, they are all in town and can meet for discussion and knowledge sharing. But there is a teacher from Chalawe. For them to reach Same and meet with other teachers for discussion will cost him 50,000 Tshs. Therefore, those must be trained first (EO1K, 28 January 2018).* |
| | Forty (40) EFL teachers were trained at a time. | *The number of trainees was not 40. Due to a lack of sufficient budget, even the number of teachers who participated in each training was very few. For example, only twenty-five (25) English language teachers from the whole region were involved in cycle one (EOM1, 21 November 2018).* |
| | Trainees have shared characteristics. | ** |

** Data were derived from a documentary review

Data in Table 12 indicate that trainees were selected based on the rural/urban divide. EFL teachers residing in rural schools were preferred since they were perceived to be unmotivated, neglected and receive fewer opportunities for training. So, attending the INSET was also a way to motivate them. On another occasion, selection considered those who were actively teaching the subject at the time:

> *We have a list indicating all teachers, their teaching subject, and schools where they can be found. But we also called the heads of the school to ensure that the teacher who got selected was teaching the English language at the time. Some teachers learned to teach English and other subjects; however, at that moment, they were not teaching it (EO2K, 12 February 2019).*

Thus, based on EO2K's comment, one had to be an active English language teacher to be selected.

Besides being an active practising teacher, seniority was also a factor, as elaborated in the following quotation:

> *But we were also looking for seniority. Other schools received a lot of newly employed teachers. Therefore, teachers with experience understand the challenges facing English language teaching. Therefore, if they attend the training, they can share and train with junior recruits (EO2K, 12 February 2019).*

Therefore, teachers with more experience were favoured in some cases as they were presumed to have more capacity to train others.

Secondly, regarding the number of trainees, the interview and documentary review results pinpointed that instead of 40 trainees per region per cycle, only twenty (20) English language teachers were trained in Kilimanjaro, and twenty-five (25) were trained in Manyara. The above finding was against established criteria in the implementation guideline, which suggested that forty teachers per subject should be taught in one cycle. However, the number was limited due to financial constraints. Yet, despite the limited number of participants, each district in each region had a representative(s). The profile of those who attended and interviewed in the study is presented in Table 13.

**Table 13: Trainees' profile by gender**

| Name | Type of school | Gender | District | Education Level | Subject Majored | Working experience |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| T1K | Public | Female | D1K | Master Degree | Environment Eng. (Master Degree) Geography; Literature (Bachelor Degree) English (Diploma) | 12 years |
| T2K | Public | Male | D2K | Bachelor Degree | English; Kiswahili | 9years |
| T3K | Public | Female | D5K | Diploma | Kiswahili; English | 33years |
| T4K | Public | Female | D3K | Bachelor Degree | Linguistics; Geography | 4years |
| T5K | Public | Male | D1K | Diploma | Geography; English | 6years |
| T6K | Public | Female | D5K | Bachelor Degree | English | 9years |
| T7K | Public | Male | D3K | Bachelor Degree | English; Geography | 3years |
| T8K | Public | Female | D4K | Bachelor Degree | Linguistics; Literature | 3years |
| T9K | Public | Male | D6K | Bachelor Degree | English; History | 4years |
| T10K | Public | Female | D3K | Bachelor Degree | English; Geography (Diploma) Geography (Degree) | 17years |
| T11K | Public | Female | D4K | Bachelor Degree | English Geography (Diploma) English; Literature (Degree) | 11yeras |
| T12K | Public | Male | D4K | Bachelor Degree | Kiswahili; English | 3years |
| T13K | Public | Male | D4K | Bachelor Degree | Linguistics, Geography | 9years |
| T1M | Public | Male | D3M | Bachelor Degree | English | 5yers |
| T2M | Public | Female | D1M | Bachelor Degree | Kiswahili; English | 12years |
| T3M | Public | Male | D1M | Bachelor Degree | English; History | 14yers |
| T4M | Public | Male | D3M | Bachelor Degree | English; Geography | 5years |
| T5M | Public | Female | D2M | Bachelor Degree | English; Kiswahili | 6years |
| T6M | Public | Male | D2M | Master Degree | English; Literature (Bachelor Degree) Ed. Planning (Master Degree) | 6years |
| T7M | Public | Male | D1M | Bachelor Degree | English; History | 11years |
| T8M | Public | Male | D1M | Advanced Diploma | English | 6years |

Thus, based on the findings in Table 13, all participants were active English language teachers. Their level of education ranged from diplomas to master's degrees. They all majored in English or Linguistics as their teaching subject, even though they taught varied grades from Form I-IV. Their teaching experience also varied between 1-3 years, 4-6 years, 7- 18 years, 19-30 years, and 31-40 years, respectively. Moreover, it was noted that all participants came from public schools because private schools had their own INSET arrangement.

### 5.1.3 Approach for INSET implementation

Documentary review indicated that the INSET was designed to be conducted using a cascade model. Two levels of training were developed: national facilitators and regional facilitators. Therefore, national facilitators trained the regional trainers, who trained English language teachers in established regional centres. Trained EFL teachers at the regional centres were also expected to continue training other language teachers in their respective districts and schools. Thus, the evaluation of the INSET implementation approach focused on evaluating the extent to which Hayes (2000) proposed cascading principles were considered. The results are presented in Table 14.

**Table 14: Approach for INSET implementation**

| Aspect | Indicators | Interview quotes |
|---|---|---|
| INSET implementation approach | Knowledge cascaded to other EFL teachers who were not trained. | *During the department meeting, I tried to say that the curriculum has changed, and we need to use more of a student-centred method. When you teach past tense, do not start by telling students how the past is formulated. So, I tried, but I was not that serious. Why could I be serious when I was not that good (T6M, 15 November 2018)?*<br><br>*After the seminar, we were told to share it with our colleagues. We have come across a challenge that when you communicate with a teacher, for example, how to write a guide instead of a to-guide, they don't understand. It is just a disturbance, a considerable disturbance. They will question why we should live this out. Why is it like that? (T5K, 24 September 2018).* |
| | Expertise must be diffused through the system as widely as possible, not concentrated at the top. | *That was the plan, and I even promised to go. But there was no one to cover the expenses. They asked us to volunteer for training and follow-up at the district and school levels. It is possible to volunteer within a school but not outside the school. Therefore, there was no follow-up for feedback. The seminar ended (F1K, 20 October 2018).* |
| | A cross-section of stakeholders must be involved in the preparation of training. | *As head of school, I was not involved in planning. You are just involved when they tell you to bring teachers for training. It may come in two faces: they either send names, and you are asked to release them, or you are asked to appoint who should attend (HoS1M, 8 November 2018).* |

Data in Table 14 stipulates that the cascading principles were not adhered to. Those who were expected to sustain training of EFL teachers at schools and district level failed to do so because they lacked sufficient content knowledge and could not handle follow-up questions.

Another challenge was the failure to involve heads of schools beyond selecting or realising participants. The challenge was also reported by the INSET regional coordinator that:

> *The challenge was that the heads of the school were not part of the programme. As a result, they failed to be supervisors. Teachers have been receiving training, but when they return to school, they do nothing, and there is no one to account for. The head of the school was not aware of the content or even how cascading should be done (RCo1, 21 November 2018).*

Therefore, since the heads of schools were not part of the training design and implementation, they did not know what to do with those trained. On the other hand, district education officers were involved in the planning. Still, they were not trained on content related to competency-based teaching as enumerated by DEO1K: "*As academic officers, we are mostly in the technical team. Mostly, we do not learn what teachers learn. But we are taught how to prepare for the training* (DEO1K, 12 February 2019)." Thus, education officers participated in training as administrators. As a result, it created a misunderstanding between them and the teachers they were to supervise and inspect, as noted by HoSK3.

> *In writing assessments also, there is a challenge. For example, in the scheme of work, we write assessments as a question in a lesson plan. Also, some teachers write statements while others write assessment tools. Even when school inspectors come, they explain something different from what teachers know. There is no consensus (HoS3K, 4 February 2019).*

Despite the challenges in cascading, some tried to disseminate the knowledge gained to others, but they encountered several challenges, such as conflicting information, as T1K commented in the following quote.

> *Sharing was good, with some arguments. For example, we were two teachers who attended two different trainings. We were taught the same thing, how to write assessment columns in a lesson plan, differently. There was confusion about which version was correct (T1K, 24 September 2018).*

> *We did share, but the response was not so good. When you tell a person that a lesson plan or scheme of work is supposed to be like this, another time, school inspectors say something completely different from what you have just shared.*

> *Even last year, another teacher attended additional training and came up with something different from what we were taught in Same. Which one should we accept? Which one is correct? Ultimately, despite INSET, teachers stick with what they were told in the university (T4K, 30 January 2019).*

The above quotation indicates that sharing was affected by conflicting information. Facilitators for dissimilar INSETs had different understandings of the same topic. Unfortunately, trained teachers and school inspectors also did not have standard knowledge.

While T4K and T1K encountered poor responses because of conflicting information, T6K encountered negative responses because not every language teacher had an equal chance to attend the training. Particularising on the issue, T6K said:

> *When I was training those who did not attend the training, the majority had a negative attitude. They think we were less experienced to tell them what to do because they went to a better university than I. Some were jealous of why they did not get a chance to attend training like me* (T6K, 24 September 2018).

Thus, the negative response was because they did not have confidence in his knowledge and ability to train. Others were jealous of not being selected to be trained at the regional level. Prior knowledge gained from the university and the level of education was also mentioned to be a challenge. Explaining the challenge, T9K voiced that:

> *The response was not so good. Teachers were rigid in learning and always assumed they knew. Some were busy comparing with what they were taught in university (T9K, 18 September 2018).*

Likewise, T3K commented the following:

> *When we were sharing, you could see teachers rejecting the new ideas because they were not taught like that in the university. Also, when a teacher has 1$^{st}$ and 2$^{nd}$ degrees, how do you convince them? That applies even to school inspectors. You see them still clinging to what they were taught at university (T3K, 22 November 2018).*

Thus, the response was negative when the knowledge shared differed from what was learned from the university. Also, training those with more qualifications was hard if a teacher sharing was less qualified.

Generally, the plan to use a cascading approach was good. However, the finding indicated cascading principles were not adhered to, and teachers' reaction to the approach was not anticipated. Besides, with no training provided to the heads of schools, they could not supervise or guide the INSET cascading at the school level. Similarly, failure to train district education officers and instructors made them not have a mutual understanding of how some aspects of the lesson plan and scheme of work should be written.

### 5.2.4 INSET duration and time

Besides evaluating the INSET relevance, trainees' selection and approach, the evaluation of context also looked at the duration and time of the INSET. The focus was to evaluate if the programme was designed to be conducted in an intensive and sustainable period to achieve the INSET goals effectively. The findings from the interviews are presented in Table 15.

**Table 15: INSET duration and time**

| Aspect | Indicators | Interview quotes |
|---|---|---|
| INSET duration and time | The training was conducted in three phases (10 days per cycle per year) | *We did not even have three phases. We did one, and that is it (F1K, 20 October 2018).* |
| | The training time and season were appropriate. | *The time was ok because it was during the holiday. I remember advanced students were there, but the rest went on holiday (T5M, 15 November 2018).* |
| | The way of inviting participants was appropriate. | *I do not remember; it was just a short letter indicating that I should go for training at Dareda Secondary to implement the competency-based curriculum (T5M, 15 November 2018).*<br>*I was not given a letter; I just received a phone call since it was a holiday (T7K, 20 October 2018).* |
| | The training duration was sufficient to deliver the course. | *They tried, but not enough. We were being taught to the extent you get a headache. It was a back-to-back session (T1M, 19 January 2019).*<br>*Many things were clustered so that we covered everything within the allocated time. Otherwise, the content could be taught for the whole year (F2M, 13 December 2018).* |

The findings in Table 15 show that the INSET duration was inadequate compared to the training content. Others perceived a year was needed to accomplish what was condensed to ten days. Concerning training time, data from the documentary review indicated that training had to be conducted during school holidays. While no challenge was reported with the timing, the information was not shared early. Some trainees were unaware of the training till they received a phone call invitation. Consequently, they missed some days.

To summarise the context evaluation result, the findings indicated a genuine need for INSET. Participants found objectives relevant to teachers' needs even though they were proposed using a top-down approach, without any modification to accommodate actual EFL teachers' learning needs and those of their students. Relevant trainees were selected, even though they varied in grades, school location and teaching. Besides, cascading plans did go as recommended and were not inclusive. Lastly, while the timing for training was good, it was poorly communicated, and the duration was limited.

### 5.2 Evaluation of INSET Resources

Objective two focused on participants' views on the sufficiency of the human and non-human resources provided to ensure that the programme achieves its objectives. The evaluated aspects include facilitators (national and regional facilitators), material and facilities funding and incentives, as well as the training centre. The results are presented in the subsequent sub-sections.

#### 5.2.1 INSET facilitators

The INSET has two major categories of experts: national facilitators (NF) and regional facilitators (RF). NFs were responsible for training RFs, who taught EFL teachers in their regional centres. Therefore, evaluation aimed at determining the extent to which they were selected based on the criteria. The findings are presented in Table 16.

**Table 16: INSET facilitators**

| Aspect | Indicators | Interview quotes |
|---|---|---|
| Facilitators | Facilitators were active EFL teachers. | *I teach English and literature (F1M, 13 December 2018).*<br>*I have been teaching the English language, which I majored in diploma (F1K, 20 October 2018).* |
| | Facilitators had more than three years of teaching experience | *I started to teach in 2001 after I graduated with a diploma (F1K, 20 October 2018).*<br>*I have been teaching the English language since 2007, when I was employed as a licensed teacher (F1M, 13 December 2018)*<br>. |
| | Facilitators were able to comply with professional codes of conduct | *You find the trainer selects one person as if others do not exist. I noticed that in class. Trainers used to ask questions to a few trainees whom they were familiar with. They should master the names of every trainee so that there is equal participation (T8K, 26 September 2018).* |
| | Facilitators encouraged teamwork. | *Mostly, it was discussion, and they were facilitating. Everything they do, we have to discuss. There was nothing significant that the trainer was doing. He may write things on the blackboard and ask what we know. Then, they put us in a group so that we could discuss (T6K, 24 September 2018).* |
| | Facilitators were able to provide trainees with feedback and conclude the lesson. | *They were no conclusion. Those who were teaching were teachers like us from our work environment. They just received a seminar, and I think they also did not conclude (T5K, 24 September 2018).* |
| | The facilitators had good communication skills. | *They were perfect. Then there was this young facilitator who was very good. Their language was good, and there was feedback (T11K, 6 February 2019).* |

Data in Table 16 reveals that regional facilitators' profiles matched the selection criteria established. They were both professional classroom English language teachers with teaching experience of more than three years and degree holders. It was further indicated that trainees perceived them as competent in their training areas.

Besides, the documentary review highlighted that they were trained for ten (10) days, from 21st August to 30th August 2014. Their facilitators comprised university lecturers, college tutors, school inspectors, and other officials from the Tanzania Institute of Education (TIE) and the National Examination Council of Tanzania (NECTA). Inopportunely, results indicated no criteria were established for selecting national facilitators (beyond mentioning their titles).

Furthermore, respondents' training diaries and reports also highlighted their training content. They were trained on facilitation skills, curriculum implementation and competence-based approach, lesson plans and teaching aids. In addition, they covered how to plan, teach and assess listening, speaking, writing and reading skills. However, the above training content was not entirely per their role and responsibility. As facilitators, they had other obligations and responsibilities such as facilitating need identification, planning and organising the in-house and cluster-based training. Yet, the above aspects were not part of their training content.

The result in Table 16 also compiled respondents' perceptions of the quality of regional facilitators. They perceived them as people who set trends for independent learning, provided tasks and allowed trainees to discuss and present what they had discussed. They did not dictate; instead, they encouraged collaboration and group discussion. Moreover, they were described as competent, polite in their language, and considerate of trainees' prior knowledge. Nevertheless, despite the aforementioned constructive views, they could not make a valid and exhaustive conclusion. Another concern raised was that they were judgmental and favoured the trainees they already knew to answer the question, ignoring others.

Generally, from the respondent's views, the facilitators' quality was good. However, they lacked some qualities. Unfortunately, many of the complained qualities, such as facilitation skills, interpersonal communication and knowledge and skills on the subject matter, were not part of the criteria used to select them or their training content.

### 5.2.2 Training facilities and materials

On training facilities, the study sought to find out the materials prepared to support the achievement of the INSET goals training and their sufficiency. The study findings are summarised and presented in Table 17.

**Table 17: Training facilities and materials**

| Aspect | Indicators | Interview quotes |
|---|---|---|
| Training facilities and materials | A handbook was provided to every trainee before the training | *They gave materials at the end, which was also a challenge. Some of us were even surprised that there was a handout. You run to make a copy. We did not know even at what time they were given. It was like a takeaway gift I did not have time to go through (T5M, 15 November 2018).* |
| | Learning facilities such as computers, printers, photocopy machines, duplicator scanners, and LCD projectors were available. | *They had a manila, marker pen, and flip charts, and we were provided with a notebook. But the book you will use to select the topics and the syllabus we had to go with them (T4K, 30 January 2019).*<br>*Facilities were challenging. You could not present things in softcopy because another person was using the projector. Materials and teaching facilities were scarce as the training was conducted along with science teachers' training (F1M, 13 December 2018).* |
| | Teaching artefacts such as books, syllabi and material for producing teaching aids were proved. | *Books and syllabi, I had to go and look for them at schools. They just gave us a Manila card. If you want flowers or sorghum, you have to buy them yourself. They didn't prepare material for us to use for making teaching aids. They just had a few, which they used to show us as a sample (T11K, 6 February 2019).* |

Information in Table 17 highlights the challenge with training material and facilities. For instance, the trainee's handbook was provided as a soft copy at the end. Hardcopies were available at the trainees' expense. Therefore, getting a guidebook was whether trainees had money to print it or take it in a memory stick. Moreover, the fact that they would be issued a handbook at the end of the seminar was not communicated to everyone. Some did not know that even handouts existed until they saw their colleague having a copy.

Moreover, there was a shortage and lack of equipment for facilitations. Projectors were insufficient, while computers, printers, TV sets, and DVD players were unavailable. As a result, the use of manila, notebooks, flipcharts and marker pens as teaching and learning facilities dominated. Both trainers and trainees were required to have personal computers, syllabi and materials for making teaching aids. However, they were not told in advance. Even a letter inviting participants to attend training did not mention what was unavailable and what they needed to bring along. When asked why they did not notify trainees about the equipment they needed to bring with them, EO1K echoed, "*I do not have to write that. In today's world, you need to have it"*. For him, coming with the items was automatic and not something that needed to be communicated. Fundamentally, the INSET was deprived of the material and facilities required for effective learning and achievement of training goals.

### 5.2.3 The training centre

The question that lingered while evaluating the training centres was whether the selected training centres had a conducive learning environment. Data from interviews and documentary reviews depicted that the INSET was done at a chosen school. Trainees had to travel and meet at identified locations. Thus, respondents' evaluation of the overall training environment is presented in Table 18.

**Table 18: The training centre**

| Aspect | Indicators | Interview quotes |
|---|---|---|
| Training centre | Easily accessible by public transport as well presence of accommodation facility and other social services nearby | *The challenge for me was where we slept. We slept in a students' hostel, which was around the school. But the place was dirty and dusty, with old students' mattresses with no mosquito net. Even people who clean the hostels were not there (T6K, 24 September 2018).* |
| | The centre was already equipped with laboratory equipment, computers, printers and photocopy machines, duplicators, scanners, LCD Projectors, TV sets, and DVD players. | *If you had work that needed printing, you had to print in the Same Town. Or you can find someone who will sleep in town and give them your work so it can be typed. So, doing tasks that required a computer was complicated and expensive (T6K, 24 September 2018).* |
| | Has electricity and water supply | *Water was scarce and salty. We had to buy drinking water there (T6K, 24 September 2018).*<br>*Specific classrooms used for learning did not have a powerful access point (T2M, 13 December 2018).* |
| | It has a convenient working space. | *The chairs were comfortable. The number of students in the class was supposed to be 40, and we were less than that (T1M, 19 January 2019)* |
| | Food was provided through the training. | *We were given breakfast and lunch. In the evening, we had nuts and soft drinks in the evening. The environment was unsafe when we went to look for dinner. The food was not good. Sometimes, we had to go and eat in town. The challenge with going to town is that we feared rape and thieves since we were unfamiliar with the place (T6K, 24 September).* |

Table 18 illustrates several challenges with the training centre. One is the shortage of accommodations near the training centre. Even those available, such as students' and church hostels, were not clean, had bedbugs, no mosquito nets, and had old mattresses. In Dareda, few available guesthouses did not match the number of trainees. Hence, some were forced to sleep more than one in a room, as commented in the following verbatim:

> *Accommodation, for example, the guest house, was not at par with the money we had paid. Besides, we had to share a bed because only one guest house was close to the centre. Some had to sleep in the Dareda town, far from the training centre. They had to come by motorbike in the morning (T4M, 19 January 2019).*

> *I and some of my colleagues slept in a church hostel. We were paying 3000/=Tsh per day. We were lucky somehow. Some slept in bit expensive places (T5K, 15 November, 18).*

The above quotes indicate that the accommodation was not suitable. However, T5K was grateful that they got a cheap place to sleep.

The second concern with the training centre was the lack of social services nearby. Thus, they were forced to visit the town centres whenever they needed to access stationery or computer service. In addition, while water was there, it was not available throughout the day, especially in Same. Parallel, while the centres had electricity, power access points were not installed, especially in the classroom used for parallel sessions. Nonetheless, despite the challenge with accommodation and other social services, the overall quality of the classes and training environment was perceived to be ordinary.

Though uncomfortable, the classes had chairs, rooms were ventilated, with enough working space, and the overall climate was quiet since no students were around. However, classrooms were dusty since they were not frequently cleaned, as T6K was quoted explaining the situation: "*There was no frequent cleaning, but for the case of just having a venue and sitting, it was ok*." T5M also aired a similar assessment: *"We used a normal classroom. The chairs and tables were just normal. You cannot say they were very comfortable."* Consequently, one of the facilitators (F1M) suggested that the overall training infrastructure needed to be improved.

> *The training centre was bad. But you know, teachers, we are used to bad working conditions to the extent we think that we deserve to work in that environment {laugh}. The atmosphere and infrastructure need to be comfortable. But you find that we used students' tables, chairs and blackboard. They must advance and improve (F1M, 13 December 2018).*

To sum up, the quality of the training centres and its surrounding environment were below the standard.

### 5.1.4 INSET funding

For any in-service teacher training to be conducted smoothly, sustainable funds are needed to facilitate planning, implementation and monitoring. Data obtained from the document review indicated that 19,940,000/= Tsh was estimated to be the budget for the INSET implementation.

**Table 19: The INSET budget**

| No. | Activities | Analysis of item | Amount (Tsh) |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | Identify the number of teachers | Four (4) facilitators @50,000/ for communication | 200,000/= |
| | | 100 chairs @200 for 10days | 200,000/= |
| 2 | Venue and facilities | Electricity 10days @10,000/= | 100,000/= |
| 3 | Analysing the content of the training | 13 participants @65,000/= | 845,000/= |
| 4 | Facilitate the analysis of content in sample school | Four (4) facilitators @50,000/= | 200,000/= |
| 5 | Re-analyzed the tested contents for facilitation | 14 participants @65000 | 910,000/= |
| 6 | Implementing INSET | Meal allowance 60 participants @15,000/= per 5 days | 4,500,000/= |
| | | Transport allowance 60 @20,000/= 5days | 6,000,000/= |
| | | Night allowance, 4 @65,000/= 5days | 1,300,000/= |
| | | Stationaries 60 @10,000/= | 600,000/= |
| | | Secretarial services 60 @10,000/= | 600,000/= |
| 7 | Evaluate the workshop | Regional technical team (13) and regional facilitator @65,000/= 5days | 4,225,000/= |
| 8 | Writing and disseminating the report | Regional facilitator (4) 65,000/= | 260,000/= |
| | **Total** | | **19,940,000** |

The budget in Table 19 indicates the funds needed for different INSET activities from planning, implementation, evaluation and reporting. Based on the documentary review, the expenses were to be covered by the INSET budget from the regional administrative office, council and school's contribution. Also, the regional management team had to secure funds from other sources.

Therefore, the main question on the programme funding inquired about the extent to which the INSET was sufficiently funded for its smooth implementation. The answers are communicated in Table 20.

**Table 20: Availability of INSET funding**

| Aspect | Indicators | Interview quotes |
|---|---|---|
| INSET Funding | MoEST, PO-RALG, Regional administrative offices, and the council sufficiently subsidise the INSET. | *Getting funding from the local government was a challenge. For them, it was not a priority. They commented we have pressing issues with water and roads. Why should we send money to teachers (RCoK, 21 November 2018)?* |
| | Participants coming far from the RC were paid 35,000/=Tsh per day (accommodation and pocket money), while those within the RC were paid 15,000/=Tsh per day (pocket money) | *Yes, we were paid somehow a lot of money. It was a flat rate of 500,000/=Tsh. (T6K, 24 September 2018)*<br>*We paid 35,000/=Tsh. For ten days as an allowance for accommodation and evening meals (RCoM, 8 November 2018).* |
| | Regional trainers were paid 50,000/=Tsh per day. | *The allowance was outstanding. I was paid 950,000/=Tsh as a facilitator (F1M,13 December 2018).* |
| | Transport costs were refunded. | *Teachers who were coming around the centre were not paid transport. They were given half of the per day allowance. For example, we were counted as people close to the training centre, but from here to Dareda Secondary School is 15km. There was a strike for two days, but later, they settled, and we were paid like others coming far (TM8, November 14, 2018).* |

The comments in Table 20 show that despite a clear stipulation of where the fund should come from, it was not provided as local council priorities are not on teachers' training. RCoK further explained that for failure to secure the intended fund, the solution was to use donor funds guaranteed to train science and mathematics teachers, who, by the time, were in their 3rd cycle.

> *The money for including English language teachers came from the fund allocated for science teachers. The number of training days had to be cut from ten to seven*

> *days so that money could be used to run training for English teachers (RCoK, 21 November 2018).*

Therefore, for the Kilimanjaro Region, the number of training days for science and mathematics teachers had to be reduced to accommodate the training of English language teachers. As for Manyara, the fund to involve English language teachers came from the President's Office–Regional Administration and Local Government (PO-RALG); as a member of the Manyara Regional management team stated:

> *Generally, it was provided by TAMISEMI from the in-service training budget. Even at the council level, the fund for INSET is there. If not implemented, they usually change and use funds in other activities (RCoM, 8 November 2018).*

Generally, the established mechanisms for obtaining funds for INSET did not work, and each region had to use different means. As a result, even the amount for trainees' incentive varied considerably.

However, notwithstanding the encounters in obtaining funds for INSET, participants acknowledged receiving the allowance for meals, accommodation and travel expenses. In an interview, especially with trainees from Manyara, many challenges were noted with incentives for trainees. For instance, allowance per day was insufficient since accommodation was more expensive. T4M commented, "*Some were sleeping in the guesthouse, which cost twenty to thirty thousand"*. Thus, if they were paid 35,000/= Tsh, and the guest house cost ranged between 20,000/= to 30,000/= Tshs, all the money can be used to pay for accommodation only.

Apart from the unsatisfactory payment, the delay was also commented on, which caused trainees to boycott training during the two last days as RCoM commented: "*Just that they were delays with the process. So up to the 4$^{th}$ day because signatories were not around."* In addition to delays in payment, a refund for transport was also an issue, especially when trainees were paid a flat rate while some needed to be paid on transit allowance. Also, the clause that participating teachers from within/near training centres are paid 15,000/=Tsh per day (pocket money) was challenging. Some schools were considered close to the training centre, yet they were not. Broadly, the findings on resources indicated that the INSET lacked sufficient and proper funding mechanisms. The situation above affected the smooth implementation of the programme and the ability to achieve the goals.

### 5. 3 Evaluation of the INSET Implementation

Beyond evaluating the in-service training context and resources, objective three collected data on how it was transacted. Data were collected on the teaching/ learning methods, assessment during learning, training content and trainers' ability to deliver the programme's content. The findings are detailed in the subsequent sub-sections.

#### 5.3.1 Training content and timetabling

Evaluation of the training content and timetabling focused on the extent to which the INSET content was coherent with the INSET goals, proposed curriculum change and subject-specific. The documentary review indicated that the training content included the following topics: Structure and organisation of the topics in the 2005 syllabus, the overview of the 2005 English language syllabus, overview format for a scheme of work and lesson plan, as well as teaching listening, speaking, reading, and writing. Other topics included teaching language form and functions and classroom management and organisation. Respondents' perception of the content is attainable in Table 21.

**Table 21: Training content and timetabling**

| Aspect | Indicators a | Interview quotes |
|---|---|---|
| Training content and timetabling | The content was not fixed. | *There was a friendly environment to ask questions, even beyond training objectives. So, everything went well (T6K, 24 September 2018).*<br>*There was a negotiation in the content and allowed questions outside the prepared objective (T1K, 24 September 2018).* |
| | There was coherence between the content, objectives and EFL classroom needs. | *Yes, the content was good. I was satisfied with the course content because it helped me. I want the training to come again for training (TIM, 19 January 2019).*<br>*Yes, the content was good, and I was satisfied. It helped me a lot. I feel more confident than teachers who have not been trained (T4M, 19 January 2019).* |

Data in Table 21 show that participants appraised the content positively. The content was relevant, good, matched the INSET objective, and helped them boost their confidence. Moreover, there was flexibility in adopting the content since questions beyond the scope of the training content and objectives were also encouraged.

On the other hand, even though the content was good and flexible, some undesirable cases were equally observed. The first was content overlapping. T5K commented that there was too much repetition during learning, especially with the topics relating to the scheme and lesson plan.

> *The facilitators were good. Even though the challenge was that what they talked about today was repeated the next day. We were asking ourselves if that is what they were told to do. If they taught how to write a lesson plan today, after two days, you are also given the same task of writing a lesson plan (T5K, 24 September 2018).*

The overlapping was observed in topics three to eight (See Table 22). In each case, trainees had to practically plan a lesson by preparing a scheme of work and lesson plan in one of the following skills: listening, speaking, writing, form and function or reading, depending on what they covered that day. As a result, preparing a scheme and lesson plan became a monotonous task.

Secondly, the study findings indicated a mismatch between the content and training duration. The content was too big to be manageable in seven (7) training days, as contributor T12K specified in the following quotes.

> *To some extent, objectives were achieved; however, in a small quantity in the sense that the seminar was supposed to be for two weeks, but it was done for one week. We had a lot of stuff to cover in one week (T12K, 12 September 2018).*

T12K observation was also complemented with documentary reviews of the training timetable, as indicated in Table 22.

**Table 22: Training timetable**

| Day | Session I | Tea Break | Session II | Lunch Break | Session III |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | 8:00-10:30 | 10:30-11:00 | 11:00-13:00 | 13:00-14:00 | 14:00 – 16:30 |
| Day 1 | INSET opening | | Competence-based approach | | Competence-based approach |
| Day 2 | Format of scheme and lesson plan | | Format of scheme and lesson plan | | Format of scheme and lesson plan |
| Day 3 | Format for lesson plan | | Format for lesson plan | | Format for lesson plan |
| Day 4 | Teaching listening skills | | Teaching listening skills | | Teaching listening skills |
| Day 5 | Teaching speaking skills | | Teaching speaking skills | | Teaching speaking skills |
| Day 6 | Teaching reading skills | | Teaching reading skills | | Teaching reading skills |
| Day 7 | Teaching writing skills | | Teaching writing skills | | Teaching writing skills |
| Day 8 | Teaching language form and function | | Teaching language form and function | | Teaching language form and function |
| Day 9 | Teaching and learning resources | | Teaching and learning resources | | Teaching and learning resources |
| Day 10 | Classroom management and organisation | | Classroom management and organisation | | Classroom management and organisation |

Information in Table 22 highlights the overall training timetable in which each topic was given one day and a half or less. However, the fact that training days were reduced from ten to seven days means that some topics were covered in less than a day. A documentary review of the facilitator's guide indicated that topics 1 to 3 had 3 to 4 specific objectives requiring trainees to analyse, explain, state, prepare, etc. However, topics 4 to 5 had six goals that, apart from defining, illustrating and designing the lesson, trainees were supposed to teach and evaluate a lesson practically. In a nutshell, while the content was good and subject-specific, it was too congested and could not be thoroughly covered in allocated duration.

### 5.3.2 Training methodology

The INSET training methodology was geared toward helping English language teachers plan, teach and assess competently. Therefore, evaluation of the lesson presentation during INSET was geared towards analysing if the implementation emulated actual teacher classroom practice per competency-based language teaching demands. The responses are presented in Table 23.

**Table 23: Training methodology**

| Aspects | Indicators | Interview quotes |
|---|---|---|
| Training methodology | The lesson was taught using several active, trainee-centred methods: think-pair, discussion, presentation, brainstorming, self-reading, question and answers, and peer teaching. | *There was a group discussion, questions and answers and a lecture sometimes. It was utterly student-centred. Even in class, it was two-way traffic. He asks, and you answer and vice-versa. After that, in consolidation, you come to a group discussion where he poses questions, and we discuss. They tried their best (T1M, 19 January 2019).* |
| | Trainees were given time to practice what they learned and receive trainers' feedback for improvement. | *No, we did not teach. We were asked, 'How do you carry on lessons? Every group prepared a scheme and lesson. Later we present and then reconcile the differences. We draw lesson plans in manila cards; we stick them on the wall, discuss strengths, weakness and provide suggestions (T3M, 16 November 2018).* |
| | Trainees' prior knowledge and ideas were valued during learning. | *When they present a topic, they first have to hear our thoughts. So, they ask us to sit in groups (T4M, 19 January 2019).* |

The results in Table 23 shows that the lesson implementation during INSET used active, trainees-centred teaching methods. Mostly, trainees spent time on tasks that required them to work in pairs and groups, brainstorm, discuss and present their work. After the groups' presentations, the whole class was allowed to share their views on what their colleagues had presented. Thus, it can be said the collaboration and interaction among trainees and between trainees and facilitators was the centre of the training. Moreover, the findings indicated that practical learning tasks were provided.

Nevertheless, the hands-on activities were limited to preparing a scheme of work and lesson plans. They also made teaching aids using materials from their immediate surroundings. In other words, the findings indicate that practical learning activities focused on one part of the teaching process, mainly lesson preparation. Lastly, there was no teaching practicum that would help them understand the actual implementation and evaluation of the prepared task, despite that being part of the INSET objectives.

### 5.3.3 The assessment of learning

Assessment of learning evaluated if trainees were assessed before and after the training and whether the assessment was done competently. The responses are presented in Table 24.

**Table 24: The assessment of learning**

| Aspect | Indicators | Interview quotes |
|---|---|---|
| The assessment of learning | Before learning, the assessment was conducted to establish individual learners' knowledge. | *No, we were not assessed. But before facilitators teach us anything, they give us questions. Therefore, they discovered our weaknesses by asking questions and doing exercises like writing lesson plans. Then, later, they evaluate and share how we can improve. So, they taught us through those weaknesses (T8K, 26 September 2018).*<br>*We were not assessed before and after training. But during every lesson, we were asked some questions (T6M, 24 January 2019).* |
| | Post-assessment was done to establish the achievement of INSET objectives | *We were assessed through a written assignment. We used practical assessment every day throughout the training, and we were assessed on the same day (T7K, 20 October 2018)*<br>*At the end of the INSET, we did an examination, and the majority passed. I think they wanted to satisfy themselves if they achieved their goals (T5K, 24 September 2018).* |
| | The assessment focused on EFL teachers' ability to plan, teach and evaluate as per CBLT. | *We were assessed, but it was more of a theoretical assessment even though it related to what we learned (T9K, 18 September 2018).*<br>*There was no assessment after training nor practical session where one of us taught while teachers evaluated them that was not done. I think the time was insufficient (T4M, 19 January 2019).* |

Data in Table 24 specifies that there was no pre-assessment before learning. Instead, there was a daily lesson recap using oral questions and answers. As for post-assessment, trainees from the Kilimanjaro Region did an examination related to what they learned. However, those in the Manyara Region did not. Still, even the assessment done at Kilimanjaro could neither help test the INSET objective's achievement nor establish teachers' ability to replicate the same in the classroom. It tested trainees' ability to recall what they learned rather than their ability to apply what they learned in an actual classroom setting by planning, implementing, assessing and evaluating the lessons as CBLT demands. Moreover, no prior assessment was done, which could have helped establish the change in knowledge and skill as the result of the training compared with the post-assessment result. Thus, from the above analysis, it can be concluded that the assessment and evaluation of learning during INSET execution were also ineffective.

### 5.4 Evaluating INSET's impact on teachers' learning

The last objective evaluated in-service training's impact on teachers' learning. The study collected trainees' Most Significant Change (MSC) stories in the knowledge and skills for each training objective. Respondents conceitedly attested positive changes in knowledge and skills as the result of the INSET. For example, T4M noted that "*nothing has improved my teaching like that training*." At some point, T3K held that *"the training was excellent; it was an eye-opener"*. A similar view was also attested by T8K that *"on my part, truthfully, they helped me"*. The positive affirmation above suggests that the INSET objectives were achieved, and new knowledge and skills were acquired, as indicated in the following sub-sections.

#### 5.4.1 The teaching of the four skills and grammar

Respondents appraised the training for helping them understand how they can teach listening, writing, speaking and reading. Narrating the outcome, T2M explained that:

> *In these four skills, mimi nilikuwa natwanga tu (I was teaching anyhow). I was lecturing as I was introduced at the university. As teachers, we did not know the methodology for teaching the four skills. You find a person who knows the strategy for teaching one skill and applies it across all other three skills. We did not know how to impart the skills students need from reading, listening, speaking and writing (T2M, 13 December 2018).*

> *Even though I am a very experienced teacher, I have been teaching, and students have passed; it was God's grace to me. I don't know how I manage. I knew I was teaching reading but did not realise other sub-skills needed development. For example, if students read for comprehension, they can develop other skills such as quick eye movement, tongue-twisting (pronunciation), interpretation, and recalling (T10K, 20 October 2018).*

The above quotations indicate that before INSET, T2M and T10K were less informed on the four skills and the appropriate teaching methodology for each. Therefore, the INSET helped them understand that each skill is taught using varying strategies. Moreover, the INSET helped them realise that sub-skills must be developed while developing primary language skills. For example, while developing speaking skills, they can also pay attention to students' pronunciations, stress patterns, persuasion skills, interaction, etc.

### 5.4.2 Understanding of the 2005 O-level English language syllabus

Respondents remarked the training also heightened their understanding of the syllabus. T5M said that he learned that the new syllabus demands students to assume more responsibilities during teaching and learning. She said: *"There are other things I may have learned, yet the thing I remember well is to give a student a lot of chances to participate in the lesson rather than going to the class and lecturing".* Similar awareness was aired by T3M, who said: *"After the training, I realised I was using a lot of energy to teach, yet I am not the one who learns the language. The students are the ones who need a lot of time to talk, not me. I learned I no longer need to use lecture methods; it ended there".* What T5M and T3M gained from the training is the new role that the competence-based curriculum wants all teachers and students to assume. Teachers become the facilitators of the lessons while students take an active part in learning rather than spoon-fed.

In letting students take charge of their learning, TM4 narrated he learned how to let students be in charge during lesson preparations.

> *I was sitting in my office alone and preparing notes. I did not know how I could involve students. After the training, I learned that when I tell the students what they will learn tomorrow, I have already told them to prepare notes. Every day after I finish the lesson, I have to tell students what I will teach tomorrow so they*

> *can read. The next day, they will ask questions they have not understood (T4M, 19 January 2019).*

From the above quotation, T4M learned that students' involvement is not just during teaching and learning. During lesson planning, they can be involved by assigning them topics and sub-topics to read and prepare notes before the session.

Apart from students' and teachers' new roles, trainees did not understand the meaning of different terminologies in the 2005 syllabus. For example, T3K said, *"Understanding what competence is, was a problem. So, after attending the seminar, we released Aah! So, it is a skill".* On the other hand, T2M had a challenge understanding what different columns in the new syllabus are used for, as she echoed in the following quote:

> *When I was looking at the syllabus, I found there are places written patterns, situations, specific objectives, patterns and vocabulary {laugh}. So, we were asking ourselves, what are these columns for? How are they being used? Why are they kept here? So, after attending training, I understood the reviewed syllabus (T2M, 13 December 2018).*

Therefore, after the training, she understood when and how to use them. However, while other trainees commented on significant change stories in understanding the new syllabus, that was the case for everyone; for example, T1K perceived the new syllabus as the "same old".

> *It is the same old syllabus. What they did was add up stories and make them complicated. I think the old syllabus, at least, was straight and sound. If you are supposed to teach students about tense directly, it will tell you so. Currently, you need to read a story to understand that the topic is about tenses (T1K, 24 September 2018).*

Thus, T1K still feels that the new syllabus is a complicated version of the old one, and even after attending INSET, it is still difficult to understand.

Furthermore, the most significant change stories related to the syllabus were also mentioned in learning the new instruction strategies, the difference between teaching strategies and the application of those they knew but could not use. T11K explained that she knew several teaching strategies but did not like using them. However, the training encouraged her to think and apply different teaching methods to enhance students learning:

> *Before the training, I did not teach using different methods even though I knew them. When I teach, I follow the lesson plan without caring if students have understood or not. But now, I use different teaching methods to ensure that students understand. When teaching literature, I use role-play, where students act out what characters are doing. I also learned that sometimes you may have planned to teach using group discussion, but time is insufficient. I may use a think-pair-share method, where they think in pairs and express their views (T11K, 6 February 2019).*

She also learned to use simulation recall, whereby she describes an event or object so that students get a general picture of how the thing is.

> *Before, students used to go on field trips. But now the trips are not there because no money is allocated for that, and parents are not allowed to contribute. You may tell a student to write an essay about Ngorongoro National Park, but if they have never been there, they cannot write. After the training, I learned I could tell them about Kilimanjaro Mountain or Mikumi National Park and ask them something (T11K,* 6 February 2019).

Similarly, T6K stated that before the training, she did not know that role-play and demonstration are different teaching methods. *"Before the training, I was using different teaching strategies at once. I normally used role-play and demonstration at the same time. From the training, I learned that they are different strategies, and their use depends on the level of students".* Thus, after attending INSET, T6K could differentiate teaching strategies and understand that the level of students determines what approach should be used.

Moreover, T4M stressed the outcome of the training on his side by exalting that:

> *It has improved a lot of my teaching methodology. I did not know there was an impromptu speech. I am sure if you ask other teachers how they teach impromptu speech, they will tell you that they define it.*

Narrating in detail how he teaches impromptu speech after the INSET, T4M elaborated:

> *Now, I take a piece of paper and inscribe topics like malaria, HIV, human rights, and environmental degradation. I fold it and divide students into two groups, like we have a debate, while some become judges. I have prepared a guideline to be used by judges. Judges assess how a speaker presents and responds to the questions and grade them. So, I put them in groups; one person from each group*

> *would pick a paper and open it. He starts explaining whatever he sees on the paper without asking questions. Another person selects another paper and does the same (T4M, 19 January 2019).*

Basically, the training helped T4M become more innovative in his lesson.

The last aspect of understanding the syllabus that was commented on was the preparation and use of teaching aids. T8K did not know what a teaching aid was, and she did not know how to make one, as recounted in the following extract.

> *Apart from what a teaching aid is, I did not know how to make one. I learned from there. For example, if you teach friendly letters, you may take manila cards, cereal crops like sorghum, beans, etc. and make a beautiful teaching aid. For the first time, I made one during the training (T8K, 26 September 2018).*

Thus, the training helped T8K understand a teaching aid and how to make one. Similarly, T12K was thrilled that after the training, they could make teaching aids using locally available material: *"I was impressed that after the training, I could practice good teaching. They taught us how to use our environment to prepare teaching aids (T12K, 17 September 2018)."* The new syllabus and CBC generally encourage teachers to use locally available resources to prepare teaching aids. Thus, through the INSET, EFL teachers understood how to use artificial materials or those from their surrounding environment to make a teaching aid.

Generally, the training taught trainees the 2005 O-level English language syllabus, whereby they learned the meaning and use of different parts of the syllabus, the approach required for its effective implementation and how it is organised. In addition, they discovered other teaching methods that can be used to develop students' competencies across topics, creating teaching models from the surrounding area and allowing students to take charge of their learning with guidance from the teachers.

### 5.4.3 Classroom management skills

Apart from teaching the four skills and understanding the syllabus, the most significant change stories were also recorded in trainees' understanding of general pedagogical

knowledge, such as classroom management. For instance, T3K realised he did not treat his students equally, as described in the following quotation.

> *I learned that I dealt with intelligent students only in my class through the training. For every question, I picked those who raised their hand. I learned from the training that I must select even those who do not usually raise their hands. They will keep trying until they get it right and become confident to participate in the class (T3K, 22 November 2018).*

Thus, after the training, she learned the need to focus on every student and allow them to express their answers, whether right or wrong. Also, T4M learned to treat students with compassion and care instead of always punishing them. He voiced:

> *While teaching, one student is sick, and another is making noise. The lesson starts at 8:00 am when it is raining students come even at 10. Sometimes, when you go to class, you find students have not cleaned the blackboard; you punish them before teaching. However, it is better to start by teaching them first and wait until you finish teaching to provide punishment. Before the training, punishing them before the lesson began was normal (T4M, 19 January 2019).*

As per T4M, the training helped him lessen the frequency of punishment and focus on making lessons more enjoyable for learners.

While that was the case for T4M, T6K realised that she had been spending a lot of time keeping the class quiet, providing punishment and arranging the classroom before she began her lesson.

> *We learned how to control a class. Before, when you find a class is not settled, you must help them relax. You may spend a lot of time beating them. Yet, instead of punishment, you may give them productive work. We have been spending a lot of time and effort punishing students, keeping them quiet, and arranging the classroom, which consumes even time for learning. So, I have learned to use less effort in managing students by giving them productive work (T6K, 24 September 2018).*

Thus, T6K learned to control the class by giving them productive work instead of punishments and wasting time that could have been used for learning. Generally, relating to classroom management, teachers learned how to create a conducive environment for learning while remaining authoritative and firm.

### 5.4.4 Preparation of scheme of work and lesson plan

Preparation of the scheme of work and lesson plan is the area that received an enormous compliment from participants as the outcome of the training. During the interview, respondents provided change stories on different aspects of the scheme and lesson plan that either they did not know what to write or knew but never thought it necessary to report them. Starting with the allocating time that will be used for covering the topic, T4M conveyed the following:

> *How I wrote the scheme of work before and after the training is not the same. Before the training, I wrote that I would teach a topic for eight periods and write 8 in a column for periods. After the training, I learned that I am supposed to break the total number of periods into chunks depending on the number of teaching activities. Currently, if the lesson has seven periods, I divide them, i.e., 2, 2, 2, and 1, depending on the teaching activities (T4M, 19 January 2019).*

Thus, instead of writing that a topic will be taught for 20 periods as indicated in the syllabus, they learned to distribute 20 periods according to the teaching activities from the training. However, respondents' views contradict data from the documentary review, especially the syllabus that a teacher should state the number of periods needed to cover topics and subtopics and not teaching activities.

### 5.4.5 Preparation of lesson plan

On the lesson plan, trainees commented on gaining knowledge and skills on competence. For instance, T8K said that she never knew that every topic has its competence.

> *When I took the syllabus, I wrote one competence for all the topics. However, I learned from the training that every topic has its competence (T8K, 26 September 2018).*

A similar observation was aired by T10K:

> *Before the training, I did not know where to get competence. I was creating it myself. I thought it was coming from my head. From the training, I learned that it is indicated in the syllabus. There are a lot of competencies in the syllabus. You pick the one which matches your topic (T10K, 20 October 2018).*

Thus, on competence, T8K and T10K understood that competence varies depending on the topic or subtopic focus, and they are already prescribed in the syllabus. On lesson objectives, change stories were collected on both general and specific. For instance, in general objectives, T8K reported, "*I learned I should write a general objective for each*

*sub-topic. Before I wrote one general objective for the topics".* T6K also gave a similar comment: *"We were just writing one objective for the whole topic as a general objective. From the training, we were told that you have set the objectives".* That was an exciting and contradicting finding since the 2005 syllabus states that sub-topics derive specific objectives rather than general objectives, implying that the broad objective comes from the main topic rather than the sub-topic.

Besides, the training reminded trainees that specific objectives should be smart (specific, measurable, attainable, realistic and time-bound). Instead of writing at the end of the lesson, they should write by the end (T8K, T1M). T8K added that she did not know what a reference book is or how it is written. Through training, she learned how to write reference books in the American Psychological Association (APA) referencing format, and that reference book is not restricted to the class book. Other relevant material she used to prepare a lesson can also be included as a reference book. Another area that trainees commented on having improved as the result of training is their understanding of the lesson development stages, such as introduction, new knowledge, reinforcement, reflection and consolidation. T4M acknowledges that *"in the teaching process, we did not know what needs to be done in the introduction, reinforcement, etc. So, the training helped us."* In the introduction, for example, T11K has the following to say:

> *In the introduction, I learned that you don't have to start by asking questions about the previous lesson. You can use a different strategy instead of a question and answer. I can pick five students and ask each to select a paper with a question and answer. For those who have answered, I congratulate them and punish those who did not (T11K, 6 February 2019).*

Thus, T11K learned that any teaching method could be used with an introduction, not only questions and answers.

T8K and T11K had interesting revelations in almost every lesson aspect. In the stage for developing new knowledge, T8K used to write notes: *"In new knowledge, you may find me writing notes on the blackboard… (laugh) but I learned that I should impart new ideas instead of writing notes".* Thus, the training helped her understand that developing new knowledge should focus on assisting students to gain a new understanding of the topic rather than writing notes. Furthermore, T8K did know what to do during the reinforcement stage. Sharing her previous practice, T8K elaborated:

> *During the reinforcement stage, I did not know how to reinforce. Sometimes, I use sticks, punish students, and consider that reinforcement (laugh). I ask a student a question: why have you failed this? I start punishing them. But it was not so. To reinforce, I was supposed to use tools, actual tasks or objects to strengthen learning. For example, a topic in form one expresses one's family. I can ask a student, 'How many are you in your family?' What is your father's name (26 September 2018)?*

Thus, T8K improved her viewpoint of reinforcement as a point during which she needed to consolidate students' understanding of the topic being taught using different strategies.

A similar idea was also commented on by T11K that from training, she realised that in reinforcement, she could use teaching aid. She also realised that teaching aids could be used at any stage, even in the introduction. On another aspect, T8K described that before INSET, she usually skipped the consolidation stage since she had no idea what needed to be done. Sharing her experience during the interview, she said:

> *In the consolidation phase, I did not know what to do. I usually skip the stage or write anything. From the training, I learned that consolidation is like emphasis. Therefore, I can provide exercises and mark 2-3 students' activities to spot where there is a problem (T8K, 26 September 2018).*

Thus, from training, she learned that consolidation is for giving students tasks to test their understanding and use of what they learned. In a similar lesson stage, T11K used to make a general summary: *"I was making a general summary of the lesson or providing exercise".* Like T8K, T11K also learned that she could provide "either a quiz or a test and mark them in class at the consolidation stage.

The last point of lesson development is reflection, where a teacher is supposed to guide students to express their views of the lesson and suggest areas for improvement. Once more, T8K mentioned:

> *In reflection (laugh), I did not know what to do before the training (laughter). After attending the seminar, I learned I could ask reflection questions. I need to ask students what they have learned. If they reflect well and indicate that they have understood the question, I can say the lessons have been understood. Honestly, before the training, I was not doing that. I could give them an exercise and even not mark them (T8K, 26 September 2018).*

In the same manner, T10K learned that reflection is not just for asking students questions as she did before the training; she reported that *"but the truth is you reflect from introduction to conclusion, what did you see? In the reflection is when you conclude that, given this case, the students have understood* (T10K)". Therefore, instead of students being the only one who reflects, the teacher can also reflect on the teaching process.

Apart from lesson development stages, the lesson plan has columns for teaching, learning and assessment activities. During the interview, respondents' change stories depicted that the training helped them understand how to write an assessment column. Initially, they were writing in a question form: "*Can the student do something?* For example, *can a student define a noun* (depending on teaching and learning activities developed in a particular lesson stage)? From the training, they were told that it is incorrect to do so since no one can answer that question.

Nevertheless, what needs to be written? Respondents had different answers as well; for example, T10K said, *"We were told to write to observe if students can express feelings"*; *"We were told assessment should be in statement format,"* said (T7K); *"Use assessment tools like question and answers, quiz, presentation, checking, observing what? Observing if students can answer the question"* reverberated T11K. Reflecting on the quotations above, trainees learned that instead of writing an assessment question, *"Is the student able to define a noun?"* They should write assessment activities in the statement *"To observe if the student can define noun".* The preceding findings contradict the comment shared by T7M that:

> *We debate a lot in writing a lesson plan, especially on assessment. We tried to ask because before the training assessment was written: is the student able to…? The question comes, where do we answer that question? That question even facilitators were not able to answer. They said it would be covered there because there will be other cycles for training (T7M, 14 November 2018).*

So, according to T7M, they were told to write assessment questions that would be answered at the end of the lesson. Basically, respondents' views were divided in the assessment column, whether or not to write it in the form of a question, statement or assessment tools. When evaluating INSET implementation (Section 5.3), respondents also commented on not reaching a consensus on what should be written in the assessment

column of a lesson plan. It was also one of the areas in which facilitators could not make conclusions.

Lastly, during the interview, trainees' stories of change revealed skills gained in writing and conducting an evaluation in three areas: student evaluation, teachers' evaluation and remarks. In the student evaluation, T4M mentioned that before INSET, he never asked students their views on the lesson taught.

> *Before the training, I did not ask students to evaluate the lesson. From the training, I learned that in students' evaluations, students have to comment if they have understood the lesson. My job is to report what they have said (T4M, 19 January 2019).*

Therefore, through INSET, he learned that students need to evaluate the lesson by vividly saying whether they understood it.

Likewise, T1M also remarked he never provided students with tasks that could justify whether the lesson was understood beyond asking the question of the lesson's understanding.

> *Before we were writing, 90% of the students could do something. However, we were using chorus answers to check student understanding. You ask, have you understood? All students replied yes. But how does 90% come in? From the training, we were told to provide tasks to check their understanding and calculate the percentage of understanding depending on their performance (T1M, 19 January 2019).*

In addition, T10K was leaving the class assuming that students understood even without asking them. She narrated that:

> *Currently, teaching is not difficult, unlike before, when you teach and get off the class assuming that students have understood the lesson. Now you ask students, how did you find a lesson? They may say they have understood because of teaching methods, teaching aids used, classroom interaction, etc. They must say what made them understand the lesson (T10K, 20 0ctober 2018).*

Therefore, from the training, they were taught that students' evaluation must come from students and not the teacher. Students have to be asked a question or given a quiz, and from there, a teacher can learn if the lesson is understood rather than mindlessly writing that 80% of the students have understood the lesson. Students also need to justify their

understanding or lack of understanding of the lesson, something they did not do before the training.

On teacher evaluation, T8K and T11K commented that before the training, they wrote: "*The lesson was understood, and I will proceed with the next lesson"* or *"90 per cent have understood the lesson"*; however, they did not measure students' understanding. Thus, during the training, they learned that: "*There must be something which proves that it is 90%. Either exercise or group work. So, after the seminar, I have improved greatly on that aspect".* Thus, they learned they needed to measure students' understanding of the lesson with an assessment activity before saying whether it was understood. Moreover, they discovered that student and teacher evaluations determine what will be written in the remark section. Elaborating on the area, T8K said:

> *If some students did not attempt the questions well or missed the class, when I come to remark, I will write that I will continue to help those who were not present during the remedial time. Moreover, I will indicate that I will continue with another lesson for those who have understood the task (T8K, 26 September 2018).*

Similarly, T11K also commented:

> *After writing, 90% understood the lesson; I did know what to do with the remaining 10%. Either 10% of the students did not understand the lesson or were not around; in the remark section, I need to indicate how I will help them (T11K, 6 February 2019).*

Essentially, despite contradictions that were noted in some aspects of the outcome relating to schemes of work and lesson plan, the most significant change stories that were collected indicate that the INSET meaningfully contributed to teacher understanding of the format of scheme and lesson plan and what needed to be written in every aspect.

### 5.5 Chapter Summary

Decisively, Chapter Five presented and analysed study findings based on four research objectives: context, resources, process and impact evaluation. The results highlighted many strengths and weaknesses in how the in-service training was designed, supported and implemented. Moreover, the most significant change stories obtained during interviews indicate that the INSET impacted teachers' knowledge. Nonetheless, several contradictions and indifferences in learning were also observed in what they learned,

suggesting more in-service training for further clarification and understanding. The next chapter will focus on a discussion of the research findings.

# CHAPTER SIX

## 6.0 DISCUSSION OF THE FINDINGS

### 6.1 The Effectiveness of INSET Context

#### 6.1.1 The INSET rationale and its relevance

The findings revealed several strengths and challenges in the context through which the in-service training was designed. Among the strengths was the INSET relevance, whereby the provision of in-service training was prompted by a genuine desire to transform EFL teachers' knowledge and practice from a content-based to a competency-based curriculum, introduced in 2005. Competency-based language teaching has changed the avenues of language learning. Thus, to cope with the changes, an INSET opportunity for EFL teachers in Tanzania was required to "re-conceptualize their understanding of teaching and learning and their identities formed in an examination-orientated education system" (Guo, 2013, p. 91). Subsequently, the INSET's background and objectives were powerful tools in helping EFL teachers achieve the objective of teaching the English language in secondary education under the CBC, which is to "promote students' linguistic ability and effective use of communication skills in Kiswahili and English" (URT, 2005, p. V).

Another metier in context was the coherence between the training and renowned education policies, plans, and frameworks that insist on properly continued re-training teachers to develop students with skills, not just knowledge. The coherence was also extended to training objectives whereby trainees had a standing ovation for training objectives. The constructive appraisal The INSET rationale and its relevance were also noted by Hasanah and Permanasari (2021), Hasanah and Permanasari (2021), Kardiyanto *et al.* (2017), Manan *et al.* (2020), Prosper and Dorothy (2017) and Shih (2019). However, not the same was found in Tuckey (Altan, 2016; Uztosun, 2017) and Chinese colleges and universities (Yang, 2019), where INSETs and professional development have failed to meet the needs of EFL teachers.

Notwithstanding the INSET being relevant and coherent with national policies and teachers EFL teachers' needs, findings indicated that the objectives were derived using a top-down approach. They were not based on EFL teachers' actual needs. Instead, they were derived from what Atai and Mazlum (2013) call grant documents. Yet, each region

was allowed to customise the objectives after re-analysis to avoid having standard goals implemented nationwide. On the contrary, customisation was not done in both areas. As a result, the objective generated at the national level surveys was adopted without any modifications to ensure that the programme is more relevant to the needs of language teachers in each context. The above findings, though similar to what was found in Aliakbari and Ghoreyshi (2013), Hayes *et al.* (2016), Hung (2016) and Molope and Oduaran (2019) studies, it was contrary to what was done in California. During training design, organisers were allowed to refine the programme and activities as they saw fit to best serve participating teachers at all nine sites (Lozano *et al.*, 2002).

Waters and Vilches (2001, p. 134) termed the process socialisation, whereby "a chance is provided for the innovation to be modified to match with social-cultural education preconception of the group." Thus, ignoring trainees' learning needs is against social constructivism and andragogy learning theories. The two theories demand the need to consider learners' learning needs and allow them to have a say in their learning since they can use their experience to guide their learning. Waters and Vilches (2001) further add that large-scale curriculum reform, as the 2005 Tanzania curriculum reform was, tends to follow centralised decision-making, ignoring those implementing the ideas.

However much that is true, the study finds that it was not the centrality of decision-making that hindered the customisation process; instead, those required to supervise the process were unaware of its importance. Organisers and planners believed content analysis and adjustments would have affected programme content, hindering uniformity. Yet, Wedell (2009) affirms that the need for in-service training may vary across the country, even among teachers in the same school. Even more, they may also differ depending on the career stage they are in (Richards and Farrell, 2005). Thus far, the study agrees with Komba and Mwakabenga (2019, p. 5) that unless INSET organisers consider the importance of content customisation, the INSET will continue to "occur separately from the realities of school or classroom challenges."

### 6.1.2 Selection of the trainees

In the selection of the trainees, the strength was noted in the nature of the selected trainees. All were active and professionally trained as English language teachers. A shared

background makes it easy for trainees to understand and exchange views on what they are taught. Depranoto (2020) and Lokollo *et al.* (2020) documented a similar result. Nevertheless, it was contrary to what Nur and Short (2019) observed in Bangladesh, that some teachers who take part in English language in-service training were not English language teachers. Consequently, they rarely participate in teaching and learning since the content is unfamiliar.

Besides having shared features, trainees were widespread, with every district in Kilimanjaro and Manyara Regions sending a representative. Extensive inclusion makes it possible "to evenly distribute the training capacity throughout the country and minimise time-off needed (due to travel) to conduct training (Hiner *et al.,* 2009, p. 4)." Nevertheless, the aspect was also limited by the number of participants. Given a small number of trainees per district, one or two trainee(s) cannot cascade the knowledge to all non-trained EFL teachers in a respective district. The limited number of participants hinders peer support, leaving the majority excluded in the initial training, unaware of the proposed changes (Haney and Lumpe, 1995; Petrie and McGee, 2012).

Another challenge with the trainees' selection was that all attended one training regardless of their geographical location, making it a one-size-fits-all. Clarke and Dede (2009) state that one-size-fits ignores contextual factors determining interaction efficiency in particular local situations. It is also against the social constructivism theory of learning, which indicates that each learner's Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) is different (Pritchard and Woollard, 2010). Thus, they need tailored support. Equivalent findings were also documented by Yan and He (2015), whereby respondents had low satisfaction with the INSET provided because their needs were moderately met, and the training lacked relevance to actual teachers' needs. However, it was contrary to Raud and Orehhova's (2017) result that in Estonia, neither EFL teachers' level of education, seniority, school location, nor the level of school they teach play a significant role in EFL teachers' interest in participating in CPD courses.

Even though that was the case for Estonia, the current study still finds that the teachers' needs in rural areas are not the same as those in urban areas. Training teachers with different education levels, different age groups and working experience yet sharing the same working environment could have enhanced teacher collaboration and sharing

experience as they work in similar contexts. Moreover, according to andragogy theory, individual differences increase with age, calling for different custom-made programmes to suit the needs of individuals or groups (Peltz, 2019). Generally, standardised in-service or one-size-fits training introduces similar content to teachers whose teaching experience, knowledge, skills, and working context do not conform (Makopoulou *et al.,* 2019), making the training superficial.

### 6.1.3 The INSET implementation approach

The in-service training was designed to be conducted using the cascade model. Based on the study findings, the model was effective, partly when national facilitators trained regional facilitators, who trained teachers in every region. However, the selected model failed to promote leadership roles. Some tried to cascade, but the response wasn't good. After all, they had lower qualifications, went to less prestigious universities, and others just refused because they were not invited for training at the regional centres. The above finding aligned with Kasuga's (2019) observation that even in science and mathematics teachers' INSET, cascading is affected by the same challenges. Those who attended the training could not take the lead role in coaching and mentoring those who did not, as they lacked the confidence and capacity to do so. Comparable findings were observed by Dichaba and Mokhele (2012) that even though teachers were taught by trainers who had mastered the content and had skills for knowledge transmission, they were still not confident to share with others.

Given the challenges, the study also finds that every trained English language teacher at the regional level couldn't be used for the cascading purpose. Unless all demonstrate exemplary performance in mastering the content taught, have confidence in sharing the knowledge, and can use the new knowledge in an actual classroom setting. So far, from the trainees' comments during the interview, that was not the case. The practice was contrary to what is practised in Japan, whereby the model has been successfully used to disseminate education innovation. To cascade, each school has a teacher (s) who is certified to have mastered the competencies that the system wants to cascade (Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development [OECD], 2009). Thus, a personal cascading had to be selected, trained and certified, not just selected and trained, as was observed to be the case in the studied regions.

Moreover, the training approach and in-service planning did not give everybody an equal chance to be involved. Specifically, that was the case for the heads of schools. According to Mwesiga and Okendo (2018, p. 92), “School leaders are vested with the overall responsibility of ensuring successful implementation of curriculum and school programmes, supervising and monitoring day-to-day activities of teaching and learning, motivating teachers, and ensuring their commitment and school performance among other responsibilities.” When a novel paradigm needs implementation, the heads of the schools can set a vision and strategy for implementing it, involve teachers in planning and implementing change and prepare a conducive environment for change implementation (Meyer *et al.,* 2022). Thus, they are the key to successful innovation implementation. Unexpectedly, their involvement in training planning was only to nominate participants, and others were not even given that chance.

Since training resulted from curriculum change, the study finds a need for heads of schools to be trained on the same for effective curriculum implementation and supervision. The content could have been general, such as understanding new syllabus demands, writing schemes of work and lesson plans, assessment methods encouraged, and the overall teaching and learning strategies emphasised across the syllabus. The aforementioned areas are not language-specific; they cut across all subjects. Likewise, the findings indicated that quality assurance officers and school inspectors were not trained, but they were involved in planning. Nevertheless, it is also clearly stipulated in URT (2008, p. 7) that “school inspection aims to monitor teaching and learning and ensure that the curriculum is implemented per agreed standards. Furthermore, among the many ways that can be done is by visiting schools, observing how teaching is done and advising or recommending what teachers are doing. However, if school inspectors are to provide EFL teachers with good support, advice and recommendations relating to CBLT, they also need to be trained.

Principally, while English language teachers were being trained, their advisors and immediate supervisors were not. That could also be why trainees commented on knowledge conflict between them, schools’ inspectors and quality assurers. The study has confidence that implementing the 2005 curriculum requires training not only EFL teachers but also their immediate supervisors. Yet, according to Mmbando and Hongoke (2010), heads of schools and school inspectors have lacked in-service training because of

a lack of funds. However much that is true, it is also factual that they do receive training to familiarise themselves with their new responsibilities. Thus, even when they meet for different agendas, a part competence-based curriculum should also be accommodated so that they frequently update their knowledge. Unless cascading principles are followed, INSET experts are dissolved to school levels, and those responsible for cascading are adequately trained, tested and certified, then designing INSET using a cascading approach will continue not to work effectively and efficiently.

### 6.1.4 Training duration and time

The last aspect of the context evaluation was the training duration and time. Sufficient length, intensity and appropriate timing are primary conditions for the effectiveness of any in-service training (Bayar, 2014; Darling-Hammond *et al.,* 2017; Desimone *et al.,* 2006; Desimone and Garet, 2015). Yet, the study findings suggest both INSET duration and time were challenging. Participants critiqued the timing because they had other prior engagements, and only a few received an invitation before the training dates. Though on a different scope, the challenge with time was reported in Turkey, where INSETs usually are done after work and extended till late hours when they are tired and unwilling to learn (Uztosun, 2017).

As for duration, the findings indicated that the duration of the training was too short compared to what trainees were expected to learn. As a result, trainees had limited chances for an in-depth discussion of the matter and reaching a common understanding. Although it is the nature of the workshop or seminar to be short-term and short-lived (5 days maximum) (Richards and Farrell, 2005), short time hardly fulfils the needs of individuals and initiates change (Erkmen and Karaman, 2016). The initial requirement to implement training using three cycles was advocated to provide trainees with plenty of time to learn the theories of competency-based language teaching. In addition, they could have enough time to develop practical skills and to observe and be observed on the best practices. Besides, trainees could have a chance to share the challenges they face when implementing and get solutions before they move on to another phase. Garet *et al*. (2009) also support the above assumptions that when in-service training duration is extended, it provides time for an in-depth discussion of the programme content and allows trainees to try new ideas in their classroom and receive advice. So far, the duration was too short for trainees to benefit from either in-depth discussion or feedback.

### 6.2 The Sufficiency of the Resources

Besides strengths and weaknesses noted in the context, the findings also revealed inadequateness in resources allocated for the smooth implementation of the training and achievement of the goal. Insufficient was pointed out across the areas, i.e., facilitators' quality, facilities and material, training environment and funding, as discussed in the subsequent sections.

#### 6.2.1 INSET facilitators

The findings on the facilitators (national and regional) indicated inadequacies in their selection process, training duration and content. For instance, while criteria for selecting regional facilitators were established and adhered to, it was not so for national facilitators. No criteria were established for selecting them beyond mentioning their titles. So, their education qualification, education background, and experience in language teaching and training of trainers were undefined. According to Wright (2009), Language Teacher Educators (LTEds) need expertise and knowledge of the content, the process of language teacher education and classroom teaching. Moreover, they need to understand local realities, have a command of the English language, have broader experience in teaching English as a foreign language (theoretically and practically), and have expertise in conducting research (Moncada and Ortiz, 2011). In addition, the social constructivism theory of learning insists on being trained by well-informed members of society who can provide adequate support needed to acquire new knowledge and skills (Chu *et al.,* 2017). The study finds that maybe they were engaged in reducing the cost of hiring professional language educators; even then, cost consciousness should not be at the expense of quality training.

The study findings relate to what was observed in Vietnam by Vu (2014), whereby NFs were selected based on the criteria of being a university lecturer only. In Bangladesh, trainers did not have an English language background even though they teach the subject (Uddin, 2020). Equally, in Iran, it was observed that the selection of teacher trainers focused on senior teachers who believed in old teaching methods and lacked familiarity with new teaching theories (Kazemi and Mansooreh, 2014). While that was the case in Vietnam, Bangladesh, Iran and Tanzania, In Ethiopia, however, the practice was observed to be somewhat different. Although super trainers were outsourced from United Kingdom universities, master trainers (university lecturers, teacher educators from colleges, and

secondary school teachers) were insourced. Still, they had to be English language educators with experience not less than five years to twenty-nine. Besides, all participated in language teaching improvement programs (Birbirso, 2013). The case of Ethiopia suggests that not everyone can become a teacher trainer or trainer of the trainer.

The findings further disclosed that regional facilitators were trained for ten days. Realistically, the training duration was insufficient for them to understand the principles of competency-based language teaching proposed in the 2005 curriculum. It has to be remembered that the RFs were not even involved in designing the new curriculum. Mapunda (2018, p. 50) noted that "teachers who are the main implementers of the syllabus were extremely underrepresented…only four (4) subject panel members filled in a questionnaire that was to be part of the reason for changing the syllabus." Thus, like the rest of the English language teachers who participated in this study, it may be that it was their first time to be taught what competency-based language teaching is. Hence, ten days could not be enough for suggested changes to be thoroughly demonstrated enough for them to master for themselves (as English language teachers) as well as be able to train others.

The study acknowledges that training trainers for English language education around the globe may take different durations. For example, the experience shared by Vu (2012) stated that it took him three years of training to become a trainer in Vietnam. He had to take short courses face to face or part-time, do workshops (as a trainer), observe master trainers train and then work independently to deliver training as part of the training process. Perhaps that duration is possible in countries with many resources to support in-service teacher training. However, even in states with limited resources like Tanzania, Hay (2010) suggests that ongoing support and sustainability can help trainers understand the course and methodology practically. Presumably, that was also not the case.

Likewise, there was a challenge in the training content of the facilitators. Among ten days, half a day was spent learning facilitation skills and what makes effective in-service training. The rest of the training focused on what they would facilitate. It must be noted that the regional facilitators were not initially trained as adult educators but as educators of young English language learners. Hence, they needed to be adequately prepared to behave like one (adult educators) before assuming a new role. Using half of the day to

explain effective training, their role as facilitators and facilitation skills was good but insufficient. Time was consumed in training them on what to teach. However, social constructivism and andragogy theory maintain that adult learners are not empty vessels into which knowledge needs to be poured. They know why they are learning and what they need to learn (Knowles *et al.,* 2015; Pritchard and Woollard, 2010).

Similar findings were reported by Baker (2016) that in Thai, trainer-of-the-trainer workshops focused on diffusing knowledge with rare input into the design or content of the training. Nevertheless, it was contrary to what was reported by Roy *et al.* (2018), who reviewed the effectiveness of training the trainer course offered by the Cambridge University Press. During the trainers' training, attention was paid to the design, analysis and delivery of training sessions, teacher observation, feedback management and trainer development. Vu (2012) suggests training the facilitators by paying attention to how to train and develop hands-on experience in planning and delivering practical workshops. With Roy *et al.* and Vu's remarks, trainers training need to concentrate on how to train rather than what to train, which, as per the study findings, the practice was vice versa.

### 6.2.2 Training material and equipment

The findings indicated a lack and shortage of the training materials and equipment characterised the training. The results are similar to those in Bangladesh and Iraq (Hasan, 2016; Nur and Short, 2019). In Bangladesh, for example, in-service training for English language teachers lacked material and equipment to the extent that facilitators had to borrow projectors, multimedia and laptops from local government officials. In addition, Uddin (2020) noted that the same materials had been used for every training, e.g., photocopies, posters, and teacher guides, which caused trainees to lose interest. In Iraq, the only equipment frequently used was a whiteboard, while other tools such as educational films, projectors, pictures and flashcards were averagely used. Libya, on the other hand, INSET lacks the technological devices needed for training unless trainees bring their own (Amara, 2020).

Even though they are at different extreme levels, the situations in Tanzania, Libya, Bangladesh and Iraq make the realisation of effective INSET even more challenging. Furthermore, the practice is against andragogy theory, which insists on the availability of adequate resources for learning that can help adult learners appreciate their potential

(Purwanti, 2017). Teachers need to know how authentic tools can facilitate learning with practical examples. The ICT Education Policy in Tanzania encourages using ICT as a pedagogical tool for teaching and learning and the professional development of teachers, administrators and managers (Ministry of Education and Vocational Training [MoEVT], 2007). Thus, it is high time that ICT facilities are made available and used during INSET. Excuses for being "digital naïve" (Naghmeh *et al.,* 2019) should be abated.

### 6.2.3 The training centre

The strength of the training centre is that, in both regions, the INSET was held at a school. Thus, the preferred model, school-based INSET, was used. According to Craft (2000), the approach is thought when the needs of participating schools are collectively identified and addressed using the same path. Furthermore, researchers have proven that school-based or cluster-based INSET is more effective than off-site training. Compared to off-site training, in school-based INSET, the number of teachers who take part can be relatively high, and the cost of conducting training becomes low and affordable. Besides, teachers are more likely to apply what they learn in classroom training (Erick, 2017; Rugambwa and Joseph, 2014).

Concannon-Gibney and Murphy (2012) add that school-based INSET tends to reflect more on the needs of teachers in a school. Also, there is training sustainability, as training can go throughout the year. Doing so encourages collaboration and support among teachers as they work together to plan and execute the training. Moreover, it allows trainees to consider the relevance of the training ideas in their classes and share them during the training for discussion and material improvement (Waters and Vilches, 2009).

Nevertheless, closely paying attention to the findings on the INSET centre, it was only school-based in the sense that it was done at school. Yet, trainees did not come from the same schools. Likewise, it was also cluster-based since a group of teachers came together for a similar course; thus far, they did not have collective needs. There was no need for identification done collectively or individually by participating schools. Therefore, advantages of school-based INSET such as having a higher number of trainees, immediate application of knowledge, and an INSET which is integrated into day-to-day teachers' activities as suggested by Concannon-Gibney and Murphy (2012) and Erick (2017), as well as Rugambwa and Joseph (2014) were amiss.

In addition, maybe the choice of the schools as training centres was to make training look more school-based so that teachers get a chance for a practical lesson. If that was the case, still, it was done during the holidays when students were not around. Likewise, perhaps schools were chosen to lower the cost since they used some school resources, but not everything was available. In other instances, things were available but not accessible, and trainees still faced an unfavourable INSET learning environment. Besides, trainees complained of classrooms being dirty, lack of power access points in classrooms, scarcity of water and poor quality of accommodation.

Challenges with training centres were also reported elsewhere. For example, Ayvaz-Tuncel and Çobanoglu (2018) and Uysal (2012) found that, in Turkey, INSET classrooms were overcrowded with poor ventilation. In Kuwait, teachers also complained of an uncomfortable training environment (Aljassar and Altammar, 2020). In contrast, Manan *et al.* (2020) noted that the Paper-based TOEFL Preparation Program was affected by the availability of resources and facilities for learning. The above trend hinders INSET from being integrated into day-to-day EFL teachers' activities and limits collaboration in a job-embedded context (Darling-Hammond *et al.,* 2017).

### 6.2.4 INSET funding

Despite the importance of sustainable funding for the effectiveness of an INSET, it was found that a shortage of funds characterised the INSET. That was the case despite a clear indication of the INSET guideline on where the money for INSET should be. Because of insufficient funds, training days and the number of participants were reduced. Not only that, but also the programme lacked continuity. Instead of attending training for three years (10 days per year), they were trained once a year. Comparable findings were also noted by Molope and Oduaran (2019). In their study, the INSET was characterised by insufficient funds and poor financial management, whereas, in Naz (2020), the budget for INSET was not justified. In Tanzania, underfunding of INSET training was also documented by Komba and Mwakabenga (2019) and, the Ministry of Education and Vocational Training and the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) (2014). Both acknowledge that most of the teacher retraining programmes in Tanzania are underfunded. The government is said to rely too much on donor funding to support INSET rather than raising its internal funds.

Dachi (2018), on the other hand, believes that funding problems occur because INSETs for teachers are not yet structured in the education system's legal, administrative and governance frameworks. Yet, according to Education Circular No. 10 of 2009, regional administrative offices, district councils and schools are supposed to set out the budget for training their teachers with the help of stakeholders. Also, the Public Service Regulations of (2003) in section Sec. 103 stipulates who is responsible for training teachers, how often and where the fund should come from. Are these circulars and regulations not legal enough to push the suggested authority to allocate sufficient funds for teachers' in-service training? Therefore, the study finds that underfunding the programme was not due to the absence of legal, administrative and governance frameworks. However, there is a lack of solid political determination to fund and support teacher re-training for effective curriculum implementation.

Nevertheless, despite the challenges in obtaining general funds for EFL training, the current study applauds the efforts to ensure that trainees were paid allowances that covered transport, food, and upkeep during the training despite the variations. Results indicated that in addition to trainees' enjoyment of the training objective, financial gain was also exciting to some participants. Mkonongwa and Komba (2018) suggest that during INSET, teachers must focus more on the knowledge and skills they will gain rather than a financial incentive. However, given that Tanzania is characterised by poor incentive mechanisms, especially for the teachers working in public schools (Makorere and Hudson Mrisha, 2019), financial gain remains a motive for teachers to attend training and pay attention to what is being taught. It also makes them feel valued.

Worldwide, it has been noted that payment during INSET is among the challenges that affect teacher attendance at any in-service. Teachers do not want to attend any training where they are not paid. For example, Rugambwa and Joseph (2014) attempted to implement school-based training; however, in the beginning, teachers imposed sanctions, and some dropped out of the programme after participating for one year because they were not paid. Likewise, in Bangladesh, Uddin (2020) noted that EFL teachers did not want to attend INSET since its daily allowance was too low, and they had to pay for food and residence. Thus, instead of attending INSET, they would rather do private tuition and coaching, where they earn more than they make during INSET.

Along the same line, Hardman *et al.* (2015) noted that when implementing school-based INSET, stakeholders believed there was a need to provide incentives such as certificates, additional pay and promotion for those teachers who participated in the school-based CPD. Principally, "the more teachers are motivated, the better their teaching performance, which, ultimately, leads to students achieving better results (Urio, 2016., p. 101)." Therefore, in Tanzania and most likely in other developing countries where teacher incentive is still challenging, financial incentives contribute to the effective and smooth implementation of in-service training.

### 6.3 The Effectiveness of Training Implementation

Besides effective planning and allocating sufficient resources, effective INSET depends on its implementation. Implementation is usually linked with subject-content focused, having quality instructors, being participant-centred, and using an active and collaborative learning strategy with a chance to observe and observe in a modelled lesson (Bayar, 2014; Darling-Hammond *et al.,* 2017; Alan Waters and Vilches, 2009). The findings indicated that some of the above principles were kept while others were not, as discussed in the following subsections.

#### 6.3.1 INSET content and timetabling

During INSET, the content is essential. It has been proven to be a necessary aspect of trainees' contentment during the teaching and learning process (Gore and Rosser, 2020; Hung, 2016). From the study findings, trainees describe the content of the INSET as "good", "satisfying", "need-based", and "relevant". Participants' fondness for the INSET content was attributed to the fact that, for many, it was their first training since the introduction of CBC in English language teaching. The Same observation was found by Schoen *et al.* (2019), whereby in the USA, the lack of INSET for mathematics teachers teaching probability and statistics increased the odds of positive programme impact.

Another interesting finding with the content was that it was not general but, as Darling-Hammond *et al.* (2017) call "discipline-specific", aimed at communicating knowledge and skills on planning, teaching, and evaluating students per competence-based curriculum demands. While the content was good and relevant, selecting the training content has been challenging In China. Yang (2019) noted that INSET for language teachers focused on general pedagogical knowledge with little focus on subject content

and pedagogical content knowledge. Similarly, in Bangladesh, the provision of outdated content has been affecting the quality of INSET (Nur and Short, 2019).

Though the relevant content characterised teaching and learning, the findings also portrayed a mismatch between programme duration and content to be covered. The content was too broad compared to the time available; subsequently, topics were partially covered. Also, the time was not enough to allow in-depth learning and analysis of the training content. The content focused on helping teachers plan, teach and assess; however, planning was all that was covered. There were no opportunities for modelling lessons (observing and being observed) on teaching and assessing. The absence of modelling on teaching and assessing against the social constructivism theory, which insists on learning by providing meaningful experience and guidance from instructors (scaffolding) (Schreiber and Valle, 2013).

The scenario mentioned above is equivalent to the cases for INSET provided to English language teachers in Uzbekistan Public Schools and Iran. Madaminov and Ashurova (2019), as well as Tajik *et al.* (2019), observed that in the two places, INSET is too theoretical and does not offer a chance for actual classroom practice. As a result, trainees have limited opportunities to encounter real problematic cases in natural settings and seek immediate advice from peers and language educators. Similarly, in Nalan and Grsoy's (2020) study, EFL teachers detested the INSET because it was overcrowded with too many theories and repetitive topics. According to Tabatabaee-Yazdi *et al.* (2018), it is essential that during training, trainees are provided with an appropriate authentic context and opportunities to practice new teaching ideas and methodologies. Practical sessions give them transferrable inputs that would impact their practice, develop confidence and redefine their skills in content delivery (Manasreh, 2018; Nhung, 2018). Unfortunately, the findings indicated neither time nor funds were available to envision best practices in teaching and assessing the English language per CBC.

Lastly, the limitation of the training content was its failure to accommodate technological pedagogical content knowledge related to English language teaching as proposed in the curriculum and English language syllabus. Although one of the sub-topics associated with improvising teaching resources from the local environment, the new learning dynamics, influenced by the introduction of Information and Communication Technology (ICT),

can no longer be ignored (Alnujaidi, 2021). The 2005 syllabus demands video, tape-recorded, radio, and television to enhance students' listening, reading, writing skills, etc. and raise student learning interest. Therefore, the continued abstraction of how EFL teachers in Tanzania can integrate technology to implement CBLT limits their innovation and the chance to make language learning more fun and interactive (Shia and Jiang, 2022).

Therefore, as much as audio and video facilities may be lacking in schools, they can still exploit technological platforms, websites, and various applications. They can teach listening and reading skills using podcasts or TED Talks. They can use an online dictionary to teach vocabulary and access online books and other resources for teaching the English language. In addition, schools may not have computers; nevertheless, most English language teachers own smartphones with the same capacity as personal computers. Therefore, they can be trained on how best they can use them to integrate technological pedagogical content knowledge for language teaching and make language learning an active and interactive process rather than solely relying on books. While traditional classrooms are not obsolete, embracing technological pedagogies in teaching and learning English is necessary for 21st-century learning.

### 6.3.2 Training methodology

The findings specified that the training was facilitated using active teaching methods. The primary learning strategy was lesson study organised around discussion, think-pair, presentation and brainstorming. Sezen *et al.* (2019) describe them as the most preferred form of activities of INSET training by language teachers. Through the methods, trainees commented that they had a chance to actively get involved in hands-on activities such as preparing lesson plans and schemes of work and presenting and receiving feedback from their peers. Principally, the teaching and learning activities during INSET promoted collaboration, interaction and sharing of knowledge and skills among trainees themselves and between trainer and trainees.

The findings align with both andragogy and social constructivism theories as they insist on using active teaching methods because they allow self-directed learning and scaffolding where necessary (Knowles *et al.*, 2015; Öztürk, 2019). Besides, Manan *et al.* (2020), Ong and Tajuddin (2021) and Yastibaş and Kavgaci (2020) found that the INSET

process used different methods that were student-centred, interactive and provided them with consideration and feedback. In Iran, however, INSET was documented to lack opportunity for sharing (Kazemi and Mansooreh, 2014).

However, even if the study applauds the INSET for using active teaching methods, very few were used, i.e., discussion, think-pair, presentation and brainstorming. That could be because the time was insufficient to cover the content and explore other teaching methods. Even then, in those seven days, diversification was essential to help trainees learn different strategies to develop students' language competencies depending on the level they teach. Discussion and presentation may be practical for teachers but not applicable across their teaching levels. The above reservation was also noted by El Afi (2019) in Abu Dhabi, whereby INSET for EFL teachers, though good, did not consider the age groups that teachers were teaching. Thus, limiting an INSET to a discussion also affects teachers' exposure and ability to understand how other methods can facilitate students' competencies development. McKeown *et al.* (2019) encourage an INSET to use teaching methods and processes that teachers would use in their classrooms.

Likewise, the learning process did not feature many authentic learning situations that would trigger a change in teachers' practice. Mostly, trainees were advised on how to plan a lesson but not teaching, assessing and evaluating the lesson. The above situation is equivalent to the INSET provided to English language teachers in Uzbekistan Public Schools and Iran. Madaminov and Ashurova (2019), as well as Tajik *et al.* (2019), observed that in the two places, INSET was too theoretical and did not offer a chance for actual classroom practice. The practice contradicts the social constructivism theory that insists on learning by providing meaningful experience and guidance from instructors (scaffolding) (Schreiber and Valle, 2013). It also limits the opportunities to encounter real problematic cases in natural settings and seek immediate advice from peers and language educators.

Therefore, it is crucial that during training, trainees are provided with an appropriate authentic context and opportunities to practically practice new teaching ideas and methodologies (Tabatabaee-Yazdi *et al.*, 2018). Doing so gives them transferrable inputs that would impact their practice, develop confidence and redefine their skills in content delivery (Manasreh, 2018; Nhung, 2018).

### 6.3.3 Facilitator's ability to train

The findings showed that the role of the facilitator was confined to creating activities and facilitating trainees' effective participation in discussion, presentation and reflection. The above role is supported by the social constructivism theory, which insists on learning through interaction and negotiation of meaning (Schreiber and Valle, 2013). It also aligns with andragogy theory, which insists on providing adult learners with a chance for self-directed and autonomous learning depending on their prior experience (Yusuf, 2021).

While the trainers' role findings were constructive, participants indicated they lacked expertise and could not conclude on some issues. The possible explanation for the situation could be RF were professional EFL teachers but not professional language educators with expertise in competency-based language teaching. They had familiarity with the topics, but not deep enough to allow them to be experts beyond the training manual suggestions. Similar concerns were reported in Indonesia, where trainers lacked expertise in what they were training (Zein, 2016). In Iraq, trainers were competent and led the training well, but they frequently used lecture teaching methods, resulting in non-interactive training (Hasan, 2016).

Also, in Bangladesh, one of the challenges that affected the implementation of the £50 million INSET was the failure of trainers to address the individual needs of the trainees and their urge to teach everything, which made it difficult for trainees to adopt what they were taught (Karim *et al.,* 2019). In Manasreh's (2018) study, trainees mentioned that they could teach better than their facilitators. Even though the facilitators understood the topics, their presentation was inappropriate. The above situation was, however, contrary to Begum's (2016) findings, whereby trainees were satisfied with their facilitators as they had the knowledge and ability to explain the application of some concepts clearly. In addition, they could effectively present, organise the lesson, demonstrate the application of communicative language teaching and provide feedback.

In a nutshell, facilitators need to demonstrate deep knowledge through education or have experience of not less than five (Schachter *et al.,* 2019). In addition, they need to be selected from among professional teachers and empowering educators who are more articulate with a deep knowledge base. Thus, their inability to effectively implement the lesson was contrary to the social constructivism theory, which insists on learning from a

knowledgeable member of the society who can support learners in their Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) (Khadimally, 2019). Besides, trainers limited knowledge, poor interpersonal communication skills and favouritism were also reported. The practice conflicts with andragogy theory, which insists that any education programme designed for adult learners must promote a sense of belonging, mainly in students' cognitive and affective domains (Jennings, 2021). Thus, the study finds that the RF's role was to create a friendly learning environment considering adult learners' characteristics. Besides, Avery (2017) insists that "names are important". Therefore, it was their role also to make sure that they knew the name of every trainee and enthusiastically engaged the whole group in learning.

### 6.3.4 Assessments during learning

In connection with using active teaching and learning methods, assessment of learning during training is also imperative. Pre-assessment helps trainers determine trainees' knowledge and skills before instruction, establish where to begin teaching and tape for the experience and skill level of the trainees. It is a good baseline for judging improved learning, communicating expectations of both trainer and trainees, checking for any misconceptions trainees may have and addressing them during learning (Guskey, 2016). On the other hand, post-assessment is a good predictor of how trainees will use the knowledge and skills gained from the training in their actual work setting (Samuel *et al.*, 2019). Despite its importance, the findings indicated no pre-assessment was done, while post-assessment was done in one region. According to Warr *et al.* (1999), one part assessment cannot be used to measure training outcomes. They suggest measuring training outcomes regarding change from pre-test to post-test rather than pre-test or post-test only. Thus, post-assessment, done by trainees from Kilimanjaro, could not help when determining programme effectiveness.

Apart from being a one-part assessment, the activities were done through written examination. Yet, Griffith and Lim (2014) state that the paper and pencil assessment method is not encouraged under the competence-based approach unless writing skills are assessed. They further elaborate that competency-based education needs to be assessed using real-world tasks using knowledge and skills to complete a task. Hence, the form of assessment was against andragogy and social constructivism of learning theory, which insists on authentic learning and assessment linked to teachers' day-to-day practice

(Adams, 2006; Knowles *et al.*, 2015). Besides, English language teachers in Qatar prefer to be assessed by observing teaching and oral presentation to examinations (Manasreh, 2018).

In Sezen *et al.* (2019) study, when EFL teachers were asked about the form of assessment they prefer during INSET, 31.4% chose observed teaching, 31.4% did not want to be assessed at all while tests, written assignments, and exams scored 24.8%, 23.8% and 12.4%. Thus, tests, assignments and examinations are traditional and cannot be used to test teachers' abilities under competence-based teaching. Fundamentally, the assessment tools used during INSET training were not suitable for testing trainees' ability to implement competency-based language teaching. It was a humorous finding considering the training's primary focus was to encourage and promote EFL teachers in Tanzania to move away from traditional assessment approaches, i.e., pen and pencil, to more authentic assessments that promote the demonstration of learners' communicative competence.

### 6.4 The Impact of In-Service Training on Teacher Learning

The last research objective evaluated in-service training's impact on trainees' knowledge and skills. The study only focused on what they learned or gained from attending that was directly linked to the training objectives. From the study findings, respondents inscribed an INSET as a vital tool that has helped improve their content knowledge, general knowledge and pedagogical content knowledge in competency-based language teaching. Acquiring multiple dimensions of proficiency facilitates smooth teaching and learning, boosts their confidence and allows EFL teachers to engage students in different learning activities that enhance the acquisition of numerous language competencies. The findings align with constructivism theory, which insists on developing constructive teachers who can facilitate learning and apply learner-centred pedagogy. In addition, they need to understand the context in which learning occurs and provide learners with autonomy and feedback while learning (Pritchard and Woollard, 2010).

Moreover, the above results are similar to Yook and Lee's (2016) findings, whereby the INSET helped EFL teachers improve their proficiency in the English language and teaching method. Moreover, Vietnam EFL teachers indicated that the course they attended, "English for teaching", increased their confidence, and they would even recommend their friends to learn it (Burns, 2017). Evaluating the effectiveness of TESOL

teachers' CPD, Al Balushi (2021) noted that the course influenced teachers' beliefs, motivation to teach and methodology for teaching. Similar results were also documented by Amara (2020), Arifani *et al.* (2019), Liu and Kleinsasser (2015), Mahmoudi *et al.* (2021), Ulla (2018) and Yirci, 2021). However, that was contrary to Jacob *et al.* (2017) and Uddin's (2020) observations, whereby the training could not impact teachers learning due to a mismatch between the content and teachers' needs.

The constructive impact of the training could have been influenced by the overall shortage of INSET opportunities in Tanzania, which was also reported by Mkonongwa and Komba (2018). Also, Mapunda (2018) noted that very few were retrained even after the new curriculum was introduced. Therefore, most EFL teachers across the country lacked skills for its implementation, which increased the possibility of appreciating any INSET provided (as it was in this case). The above observation is supported by Minor *et al.* (2016) that when teachers with weak prior knowledge of the content attend a high-quality content-focused INSET, they tend to gain multi-dimensional knowledge compared to those with substantial prior knowledge of the areas that are being facilitated.

Moreover, the knowledge and skills gained resulted from constructive pedagogy and an active learning environment during facilitation. While learning, tasks were set, and trainees had a chance to plan, discuss, present and receive feedback from their peers and facilitators. Doing so made learning interactive, experience-based, and constructed by learners with little or no dependency on facilitators compared to being passive (Desimone and Garet, 2015; Hằng *et al.,* 2017). Apart from that, it stems from the fact that it was content-focused. It has been widely acknowledged that in-service training can result in a substantial gain in teachers' knowledge when its content is subject-specific, focusing on methods for students learning and strategies for teaching (Holland, (2005); Darling-Hammond *et al.,* 2017; Goldschmidt and Phelps, 2010). Similarly, the INSET was helpful since there was coherence between the change proposed by the INSET and the countrywide curriculum reform introduced in 2005. The above observation is supported by Desimone and Garet (2015), that an INSET can be effective when there is coherence between INSET goals, its content, teachers' and students' need and proposed reforms.

Still, despite trainees' immense acknowledgement of knowledge and skills gained, there was a discrepancy in some aspects of the updated knowledge. For example, the findings

indicate variance on whether allocating the number of teaching periods in a topic is determined by the number of subtopics or teaching activities. Another different view was noted on writing general objectives, whether derived from topic or subtopic and whether an assessment column in the scheme of work should be written in the statement, question, or write assessment methods/tools used to assess. The above concerns indicate that, while an INSET may have improved EFL teachers' knowledge in some areas, it has created more confusion and divergence.

Furthermore, from the findings, some felt the training had no impact. Novozhenina and Pinzón (2018) also reported similar results; while some participants experienced new learning, others did not. In our case, the lack of impact could be attributed to participants being at different stages of career growth. But also, "no impact" could be an influence of the varying working environment (rural vs urban) as well as solid teacher cognition of the old curriculum (content-based), which impedes the new learning. The three situations, therefore, call for more personalised and extended in-service training. Doing so can facilitate the gradual transformation of EFL from old to new curriculum knowledge and impact them with knowledge, skills and attitudes more related to the nature of the student they teach, working environment and career stage.

Lastly, the INSET focused on helping EFL teachers plan, teach, assess and evaluate listening, speaking, reading and writing skills, as well as forms and function, among others. Yet, knowledge and skills gained in those aspects concentrated more on lesson planning and teaching methodology rather than teaching and assessing. Also, there was no significant change story in planning, teaching, assessing and evaluating forms and function. The above findings also hint that despite the INSET, trainees will likely face challenges in teaching, assessing and evaluating form and function as per competence-based demand.

### 6.5. Chapter Summary

Chapter Six critically discussed the study's key findings on each objective and explained how the findings are similar or dissimilar to different literature. The chapter also presented how the study findings are linked to or contradicted with the theories used. The discussion indicated that while teachers' in-service training is the key to a successful curriculum innovation adoption worldwide, not all are designed and implemented in a

manner that they bring impact in teachers' work. While that is the case, the fact remains that teachers who are insufficiently supported to adopt a new curriculum will not be able to oversee its effective implementation in the classroom. Besides, there will never be one relationship between policy documents and what goes on in the classrooms. Thus, while countries invest in adopting new curricula and revising existing ones, carefully planned and sustained efforts must also be invested in teacher change. The next chapter will present a summary, conclusion, and study recommendations.

# CHAPTER SEVEN

## 7.0 SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

### 7.1 Summary of the Findings

The findings highlighted strengths and weaknesses across in-service training context, resources, implementation and outcome evaluation. In context, findings exposed coherence between the need for in-service training and country priority. Moreover, collective participation was promoted since all trainees were English Language teachers. Perceived weaknesses included a lack of coherence between training objectives and teachers' actual needs. Equally, collective participation was limited because trainees taught mixed grades with varied work environments and experiences. Besides, heads of schools were not involved during training planning. Even those tasked with a lead role to cascade training to untrained teachers lacked the confidence and competence to do so. Furthermore, appraising the resources provided resources to achieve the goals; the study found that the billed resources were insufficient. Even though respondents were partly satisfied with the financial incentives, the in-service training was still deprived of a conducive training environment, stable funding, quality facilitators and sufficient material and facilities for learning.

Likewise, in the training implementation process, different aspects of the training delivery, such as the content, the facilitator's ability to train, teaching methods and assessment, had both fortes and faintness. While the content was good, relevant and timely, it was too broad and repetitive. Thus, learning became tedious, and the content could not be sufficiently covered in time. The plan was to help trainees learn how to plan, teach and assess as per competency-based language teaching; nevertheless, only lesson planning was covered. Likewise, while the facilitators used active teaching methods, a chance to observe and be observed while teaching and assessing was a miss. Lastly, the assessment of trainees was partial and done through written examination. While traditional assessment is not obsolete, it only tested teachers' ability to recall and reproduce facts but not their ability to plan, teach, and assess competently.

The last objective looked at the outcome of the training in teachers learning. It was found that the in-service training effectively impacted teachers' learning on subject knowledge, general knowledge, and pedagogical content knowledge relating to competency-based

language teaching. Even then, there was a discrepancy in some facets of knowledge gained and limited change stories related to the planning, teaching, and assessing grammar call in for more in-service training so that teachers gain the correct information and appropriately teach and assess grammar by associating it with functional usage, which suggest the need for more training.

### 7.2 Contribution of the Study

The study contributes to the body of knowledge of INSET. It fills the gap regarding the effectiveness of INSET for improving EFL teachers' understanding and implementation of competency-based language teaching in Tanzania. The study has comprehensively highlighted elements in designing, supporting, implementing and the outcome that needs enhancement. Therefore, the study findings can help education stakeholders and policymakers improve how INSET is designed, supported and delivered for English language teachers for better results in competency-based teaching.

The study also contributes to the literature on the features of effective INSET. While the study agrees with other scholars like Bayar (2014), Darling-Hammond *et al.* (2017) and Önalan and Gürsoy (2020) on global features of effective INSET such as content focus, active learning, collaboration, models and modelling, provision of coaching and expert support, sustained duration etc., there is also a need to consider effective features that are context specific. The study found the provision of incentive that has an economic impact is a factor for effective INSET in Tanzania. That may not be a typical feature for effective INSET worldwide, but in a context where teachers' motivation and welfare are still challenging.

Theoretically, the study has two significant contributions: first, it contributes to the need to use social constructivism and andragogy theories as a framework for INSET design, implementation and evaluation. The curriculum for teacher training in Tanzania insists on teachers learning using a student-centred approach, interaction during learning and active learning experience. It also strengthens the need for regular and timely feedback, paying attention to students' diversified needs, authentic learning and different assessment strategies. The aforementioned features are accommodated by social constructivism and andragogy theory. Nonetheless, they were minimally integrated into the INSET process since its inception. Fortunately, similar elements are also adopted in

the curriculum for secondary education, and according to Kosnik *et al.* (2018), if teachers experience constructivism in their learning process, they are likely to adopt and apply it to their students' learning as well. Thus, INSET needs to be improved by integrating social constructivism theory and andragogy theory tenants into the planning and implementation of INSET for better results.

The second theoretical contribution is linked to the andragogy theory. The study enriches the andragogy principle of adult learning, specifically on the assumption that the motivation for learning in adult learners is primarily internal. Based on the study findings, external motivation also matters because respondents, apart from the knowledge gained, INSET also impacted them financially. Therefore, while the motive for their INSET attendance was to improve their classroom practice, the economic impact was equally important. Thus, contextually, internal and external motivation factors for learning should be considered to increase the likelihood of adult learning and INSET effectiveness.

The last contribution is linked to the study's evaluation approach and responsive evaluation methodology. Qualitatively, the study evaluated the effectiveness of in-service training in enhancing EFL teachers' competency in competency-based language teaching. While the use of the evaluation approach and methodology was without limits, they managed to humanise the evaluation result since the study valued trainees' points of view and used their experience as a source of learning and programme improvement. Thus, through in-depth semi-structured interviews and documentary reviews, the study used the key INSET beneficiary points of view and experience as sources of knowledge to inform the need for INSET improvement in Tanzania.

### 7.3 Conclusion

The study evaluated the effectiveness of in-service education and training for English foreign language teachers in Tanzania. The findings highlighted several strengths and weaknesses in how it planned, supported, implemented and impacted teachers learning. Was the INSET effective? Yes, partially effective. While the training was relevant and timely, the participants' constructive reactions to the course design, implementation, and outcome were limited. Therefore, unless there is a change in how in-service training for transforming EFL teachers' practice from content-based to competency is stimulated, reinforced and executed, the effective implementation of CBC in English language

teaching and learning will continue to be a fantasy. Likewise, the need to provide teachers with INSET to implement the curriculum will forever remain scholars' crucial recommendation, irrespective of how much the Government insists that EFL teachers are being trained.

### 7.4 Implication and recommendations of the study

The findings provide practical and policy implications for The Ministry of Education Science and Technology (MoEST), Tanzania Institute of Education (TIE), and The President's Office– Regional Administration and Local Government (PO-RALG) to improve how in-service training is managed, delivered and supervised. Participatory planning, sufficiently allocating resources and implementing INSET in the manners embedded in competency-based language teaching is not an option for a country that relies on the English language to develop students' communicative competence. Therefore, since developing teachers' competency-based language teaching depends on the in-service training quality, the following recommendations are provided to strengthen INSET provision.

#### 7.4.1. Recommendations on INSET Context

i. Regional and district educational officers should coordinate and guarantee that EFL teachers have a say on what and how to learn by customising training objectives and content to their needs. Doing so will help develop authentic programme objectives and content rather than inverted ones.

ii. MoEST and PO-RALG should ensure that INSET related to curriculum change is provided to EFL teachers' immediate supervisors, such as quality assurers (zonal, regional and districts), regional and district education officers and heads of schools. If trained, it will be easy for them to ensure that district-based and school-based cascading is appropriately, correctly advise and supervise the curriculum implementation at the classroom level.

iii. MoEST and PO-RALG should prepare the guideline for effectively cascading INSET at districts and school levels.

iv. Regional educational officers and district education offices should ensure that INSET planning appeals to individual differences and the nature of the school

they teach to avoid one-size-fits-INSET, which tends to ignore contextual differences.

v. District executive directors and district education officers should extend training duration to provide teachers enough time to unlearn their previous knowledge and beliefs and learn new ones. One- or two weeks of training disconnected from the classroom with no sustained support is inadequate.

### 7.4.2 Recommendations on training resources

i. MoEST and PO-RALG should enforce district executive directors and district education officers - to mobilise resources for effective implementation of in-service training. Punishments such as removal from office and award of a clean or dirty certificate of the municipalities and city council that did or did not do well in teachers INSET in every financial year audit can be awarded. Without strong political will, leadership and commitment to mobilising resources for in-service training, practical implementation of competency-based curriculums will not be achieved.

ii. MoEST should establish criteria for selecting the national facilitators based on their education level, background, and experience in language teacher education. Not just because someone is a university lecturer, tutor, school inspector, or officer from TIE and NECTA, they automatically qualify as the national facilitator.

iii. Regional and district education officers should ensure that in-service training is school-based or district-cluster-based. Doing so will allow English language teachers to have ownership, collaborate to improve their practice and have an opportunity to implement the ideas in class and receive feedback from their mentors and peers. It will also solve problems of accommodation, food and reduce the cost of its implementation and the distance teachers have to travel to attend training.

iv. Regional and district education officers should revisit the quality of the training centre. It is not enough to select a training centre with accommodation facilities, convenient working space, water and electricity; it also needs the best training centre with the best facilities and social services.

### 7.4.3 Recommendations on INSET implementation

Zonal, regional and district quality assurance officers should monitor and evaluate the INSET implementation process to ensure the following:

i. A balance between theory and practice during training. Trainers must practically demonstrate to their trainees the best practice of implementing CBLT beyond lesson planning. They need to observe as well as be observed in how they can teach and assess students in grammar, listening, writing, speaking and reading. Otherwise, it will be hard for them to adopt something they did not observe how it practically works.

ii. Before and after INSET assessment is done using appropriate assessment tools that can help establish the effectiveness of the training. Doing so could help show if there is any change in the trainee's knowledge and skills when results from before and after are compared.

iii. Assessments should focus on what they can do rather than remembering or recalling. Doing theoretical tests and examinations does not indicate EFL teachers' ability to plan, teach and assess per CBC demands.

### 7.5.4. Recommendations on INSET outcome

i. Mistakes, confusion, and discrepancies in knowledge and skills gained indicate a lack of sustained support and feedback for continuous improvement and clarification. Therefore, MoEST and PO-RALG should ensure that after INSET, national and regional trainers continue to mentor and coach trainees as they apply training ideas in the classroom.

## 7.5 Limitations of the Study

The study limitations were as follows:

i. Evaluation of the INSET outcome focused on knowledge and skills gained from the training. So, whether the INSET impacted teachers' classroom practice and student achievement was not covered.

ii. The study was a formative evaluation that relied on data from a documentary review and participants recalling their experience of INSET. However, it was done when the programme ended, and the research was not involved in either INSET designing or implementing it. Therefore, despite the fact that the questions were asked in all the essential aspects through a semi-structured interview, it's

also possible that some parts, i.e., INSET implementation, could have been simulated better with observation.

iii. The evaluation focused on a specific INSET designed and implemented for English foreign language teachers. However, there is a chance that the study findings do not reflect how INSETs for other subjects are designed, supported, implemented and impact teacher's classroom practice. Therefore, generalisation to other subjects INSETs is limited.

iv. The last limitation is based on the confinement of the study area. Even though the evaluated INSET was reported to be implemented nationally, the study was done only in two regions. Thus, the INSET strengths and weaknesses in how the INSET was designed and implemented in the studies regions might be different from other regions. Thus, more inclusion of the study areas could have brought more striking findings on the strengths and weaknesses in other regions. Secondly, it could have expanded the experience and allowed the generalisation of the study findings to the broader population.

### 7.6 Suggestions for Future Research

More research is still needed in the following areas:

i. A critical evaluation of INSET aimed at improving English language teachers' competency-based language teaching in other levels of education, such as primary and advanced secondary education, teacher's colleges and universities.

ii. Another study should make classroom observations of trained EFL teachers. Doing so will help identify the extent to which knowledge and skills gained from INSET have been integrated into classroom practice and facilitate and hinder conditions for change.

iii. The current study only involved members who took part in INSET at the regional level. Thus, another study should attempt to collect data from a broader population of stakeholders engaged in INSET design, implementation and evaluation from the national. Doing so can help gain a broader perspective of INSET effectiveness.

iv. Moreover, the INSET, which was evaluated, was provided to EFL teachers teaching public secondary schools in Tanzania. A critical evaluation of INSET for similar purposes provided to EFL teachers in private secondary schools must also be done.

## REFERENCES


Abdala, J. (2020). Teacher's perception and classroom practices in the application of communicative language teaching in secondary schools in Tanzania. Thesis for the award of PhD Degree. University of Dar es Salaam: Tanzania.

Abma, T. (2004). Responsive evaluation: The meaning and special contribution to public administration. *Public Administration*, *82*(4), 993–1012.
https://doi.org/10.1111/J.0033-3298.2004.00428.X

Adams, P. (2006). Exploring social constructivism: Theories and practicalities. *Education 3-13*, *34*(3), 243–257. https://doi.org/10.1080/03004270600898893

Ahmad, A. K., Krogh, E., & Gjøtterud, S. M. (2014). Reconsidering the philosophy of Education for Self-reliance (ESR) from an experiential learning perspective in contemporary education in Tanzania. *Educational Research for Social Change South Africa Educational Research for Social Change*, *3*(1), 319.

Al Balushi, K. (2021). Effectiveness of TESOL teachers' continuous professional development: Perspectives form Oman. *Advances in Language and Literary Studies*, *12*(1), 1. https://doi.org/10.7575/aiac.alls.v.12n.1.p.1

Aldapit, E., & Suharjana, S. (2019). CIPP evaluation model for the coaching program of running athletes. *Psychology, Evaluation, and Technology in Educational Research*, 1(2), 104-116.

Aliakbari, M., & Ghoreyshi, M. (2013). On the evaluation of Master of Arts program in teaching English as a foreign language (TEFL) at Ilam University. *European Online Journal of Natural and Social Sciences: Proceedings*, 2(2s), pp-545.

Aljassar, S., & Altammar, J. (2020). A framework for the professional development of in-service teachers in Kuwait. *Journal of Turkish Science Education*, *17*(3), 364–386. https://doi.org/10.36681/tused.2020.33

Alnujaidi, S. (2021). A contrastive analysis of pre-service and in-service EFL teachers' levels of technological, pedagogical, and content knowledge. *Canadian Academy of Oriental and Occidental Culture*, *22*(1), 21–33.
http://52.196.142.242/index.php/sll/article/view/12026

Altan, M. (2016). The need for more effective in-service training for professional development of English language teachers. *British Journal of Education, Society & Behavioural Science*, *15*(2), 1–12. https://doi.org/10.9734/bjesbs/2016/24594

Altinyelken, H. K. (2010). Curriculum change in Uganda: Teacher perspectives on the new thematic curriculum. *International Journal of Educational Development*, *30*(2), 151–161. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijedudev.2009.03.004

Amani, J., Kitta, S., Kapinga, O. S., & Mbilinyi, C. (2021). Secondary school teachers' knowledge on procedures for constructing quality classroom tests in Tanzania. *Üniversitepark Bülten*, *10*(1), 40–54. https://doi.org/10.22521/unibulletin.2021.101.3

Amara, T. M. (2020). In-service teacher training programs in Libya: EFL teachers' perceptions and training efficiency. *International Journal of Research and Innovation in Social Science*, 4(11), 378-385.

Amineh, R. J., & Asl, H. D. (2015). Review of constructivism and social constructivism. *Journal of Social Sciences, Literature and Languages*, *1*(1), 9–16.

Anangisye, W. A. L. (2012). Developing quality teacher professionals: A reflective inquiry on the practices and challenges in Tanzania. *Centre for the Study of International Cooperation in Education (CICE),* 137-154.

Anangisye, W. A. L. (2017). The neglected ethical dimension in Tanzanian academic research. *Journal of Education, Humanities and Sciences*, *6*(1), 1–13.

Anatory, A. (2018). The use of modes in teaching English Language: A Case of Secondary Schools in Tanzania. *LWATI: A Journal of Contemporary Research*, *15*(4), 42–58.

Anney, V. N. (2014). Ensuring the quality of the findings of qualitative research: Looking at trustworthiness criteria. *Journal of Emerging Trends in Educational Research and Policy Studies (JETERAPS)*, *5*(2), 272–281.

Arghode, V., Brieger, E. W., & McLean, G. N. (2017). Adult learning theories: Implications for online instruction. *European Journal of Training and Development*, *41*(7), 593–609. https://doi.org/10.1108/EJTD-02-2017-0014

Arifani, Y., Khaja, F. N. M., Suryanti, S., & Wardhono, A. (2019). The influence of blended in-service teacher professional training on EFL teacher creativity

and teaching effectiveness. *3L: Language, Linguistics, Literature*, *25*(3), 126–136. https://doi.org/10.17576/3L-2019-2503-10

Arifin, S. R. M. (2018). Ethical considerations in qualitative study. *International Journal of Care Scholars*, *1*(2), 30–33.

Arslan, S., MİRİCİ, İ., & Hüseyin, Ö. Z. (2019). In-service training needs of EFL teachers in non-formal education settings. *Selçuk Üniversitesi Edebiyat Fakültesi Dergisi*, (42), 223-244.

Atai, M. R., & Mazlum, F. (2013). English language teaching curriculum in Iran: Planning and practice. *Curriculum Journal*, *24*(3), 389–411. https://doi.org/10.1080/09585176.2012.744327

Avery, A., Whitehead, K., Halliday, V. and Avery, A. (2016). What makes a good facilitator? In How to Facilitate Lifestyle Change (eds A. Avery, K. Whitehead and V. Halliday). https://doi.org/10.1002/9781118949887.ch3

Awasthy, R. (2020). Nature of qualitative research. In *Methodological Issues in Management Research: Advances, Challenges and the Way Ahead* (pp. 145–161). Emereld Publishing Limited. https://doi.org/10.1108/978-1-78973-973-220191010

Ayvaz-Tuncel, Z., & Çobanoglu, F. (2018). In-service teacher training: Problems of the teachers as learners. *International Journal of Instruction*, *11*(4), 159–174. https://doi.org/10.12973/iji.2018.11411a

Aziz, S., Mahmood, M., and Rehman, Z. (2018). Implementation of CIPP Model for quality evaluation at school level: A case study. *Journal of Education and Educational Development*, *5*(1), 189–206.

Baker, L. L. (2016). Re-conceptualizing EFL professional development: Enhancing communicative language pedagogy for Thai teachers. *TEFLIN Journal*, *27*(1), 23–45. https://doi.org/DOI: http://dx.doi.org/10.15639/teflinjournal.v27i1/23-45 Glob.

Bandu, D. J., Abdulhak, I., Wahyudin, D., Rusman, R., & Indah, R. N. (2021). Context evaluation on implementation of English for Islamic studies program in IAIN Palu, Indonesia. *Kasetsart Journal of Social Sciences*, 42(2), 307-312.

Barrett, J. (1994). Why is English still the medium of education in Tanzanian secondary schools? *Language, Culture and Curriculum*, *7*(1), 3–16. https://doi.org/10.1080/07908319409525162

Bayar, A. (2014). The Components of effective professional development activities in terms of teachers' perspective. *International Online Journal of Educational Sciences*, *6*(2), 319–327. https://doi.org/10.15345/iojes.2014.02.006

Begum, N. (2016). Effectiveness of in-service training courses on the secondary school English teachers in Bangladesh. Thesis for the award of Master of Philosophy Degree at the University of Dhaka: Bangladesh.

Birbirso, D. T. (2013). Failure to achieve development in spite of a series of reforms: what is wrong with EFL teachers' English proficiency? *African Journal of Teacher Education*, *3*(3), 1–18.

Biseko, J., Manyilizu, M., Mwaipape, J., Nyinge, D., & Adriano, U. (2020). Curriculum materials as a barrier to the use of communicative approach to English language teaching in EFL context: Examples from Tanzania. *Journal of Applied Studies in Language*, *4*(1), 19–37.

Bloomberg, L. D., & Volpe, M. (2019). *Completing your qualitative dissertation: a road map from beginning to end* (4th ed.). SAGE Publication Ltd, 456pp.

Borg, S. (2011). The impact of in-service teacher education on language teachers' beliefs. *System*, *39*(3), 370–380. https://doi.org/10.1016/J.SYSTEM.2011.07.009

Borko, H. (2004). Professional development and teacher learning: Mapping the terrain. *Educational Researcher*, *33*(8), 3–15. https://doi.org/10.3102/0013189X033008003

Bowen, G. A. (2009). Document analysis as a qualitative research method. *Qualitative Research Journal*, *9*(2), 27–40. https://doi.org/10.3316/QRJ0902027

Braun, V., & Clarke, V. (2012). Thematic analysis. In H. Cooper (Ed.), APA handbook of research methods in psychology. American Psychological Association (Vol. 2), 57–71. https://doi.org/10.1037/13620-004

Braun, V., & Clarke, V. (2020). Can I use TA? Should I use TA? Should I not use TA? Comparing reflexive thematic analysis and other pattern-based qualitative analytic approaches. *Qualitative Research in Psychology*, *00*, 1–11. https://doi.org/10.1002/capr.12360

Braun, Virginia, & Clarke, V. (2013). *Successful qualitative research*. SAGE Publication Ltd, 400pp.

Bressler, D. M., Oltman, J., & Vallera, F. L. (2018). Inside, Outside, and Off-Site: Social Constructivism in Mobile Games. In J. Keengwe (Ed.), Handbook of Research on Mobile Technology, Constructivism, and Meaningful Learning. I, 1–22. IGI Global. https://doi.org/10.4018/978-1-5225-3949-0.ch001

Britten, N. (1995). Qualitative interviews in medical research. *British Medical Journal*, *311*(6999), 251–253.

Broke-Utne, B. (2012). Understanding what a teacher is saying - Kiswahili and English medium primary schools in Tanzania. In M. Qorro, Z. Desai, & B. Brock-Utne (Eds.), Language of instruction: A key to understanding what the teacher is saying. KAD Associates.

Bruce, A., Beuthin, R., Sheilds, L., Molzahn, A., & Schick-Makaroff, K. (2016). Narrative research evolving: Evolving through narrative research. *International Journal of Qualitative Methods*, *15*(1), 1–6. https://doi.org/10.1177/1609406916659292

Burns, A. (2017). Classroom English proficiency: What can be learned from the Vietnam experience? In D. Freeman & L. Le Dréan (Eds.), Developing classroom English competence: Learning from the Vietnam experience, 84–106.

Bwala, B. (n.d.). Regenerating teacher education for self-reliance and national development. *Journal of Teacher Perspective*, 1-10.

Cameron, B. T. (2014). Using responsive evaluation in Strategic Management. *Strategic Leadership Review*, *4*(2). https://slr.scholasticahq.com/article/426.pdf

Carless, D., & Douglas, K. (2017). Narrative research. *The Journal of Positive Psychology: dedicated to furthering research and promoting good practice*, 12(3), 307-308.

Centre for Educational Research and Innovation [OECD]. (1998). Staying ahead: In-service training and teacher professional development. In *PUB DATE 73 NOTE 132p.*https://doi.org/http://dx.doi.org.ezproxy1.lib.asu.edu/10.1787/9789264163041-en

Chambulila, C. (2013). *Quality enhancement in teacher education: Tanzanian teacher educators' conceptions and experiences*. Åbo Akademi University Press, Åbo, 128pp.

Cheng, Y. C. (1994). Effectiveness of curriculum change in school: An organizational perspective. *International Journal of Educational Management*, *8*(3), 26–34. https://doi.org/10.1108/09513549410062416

Chu, S.K.W., Reynolds, R.B., Tavares, N.J., Notari, M., Lee, C.W.Y. (2017). 21st Century Skills Development Through Inquiry-Based Learning. Springer, Singapore. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-981-10-2481-8_8

Cohen, L., Manion, L., & Keith, M. (2018). *Research Methods in Education* (8th Ed.). Routledge.

Concannon-Gibney, T., & Murphy, B. (2012). School-based teacher professional development to transform the teaching of reading comprehension: an Irish case study. *Professional Development in Education*, *38*(1), 131–147. https://doi.org/10.1080/19415257.2011.576264

Cook, D. A. (2010). Twelve tips for evaluating educational programs. *Medical Teacher*, *32*(4), 296–301. https://doi.org/10.3109/01421590903480121

Craft, A. (2000). Continuing Professional Development: A practical guide for teachers and schools Second edition. *Journal of Chemical Information and Modelling, 53* (9), Routledge Falmer.

Creswell, J. W. (2017). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches*. Sage Publications, 304pp.

Creswell, J. W., & Poth, C. N. (2018). *Qualitative inquiry & research design choosing among five approaches* (4th Ed.). SAGE Publication, 488pp.

Cullen, R. (2001). The use of lesson transcripts for developing teachers' classroom language. *System*, 29(1), 27-43.

Dachi, H. (2018). Reflecting on five decades of teacher professional development in Tanzania: The missing dimensions. *Papers In Education and Development*, *36*(9), 118–136. https://doi.org/10.1017/CBO9781107415324.004

Dangara, Y. (2016). Educational resources: An integral component for effective school administration in Nigeria. *Online Submission*, *6*(13), 27–37.

Daniel, E. (2013). An appraisal of competence based English language curriculum implementation in secondary schools in Tanzania: The case of Kinondoni District. Dissertation for the Award of Master Degree at the University of Dar es salaam: Tanzania.

Darling-Hammond, L., & McLaughlin, M. W. (2011). Policies that support professional development in an era of reform. *Phi Delta Kappan*, 92(6), 81-92.

Darling-hammond, L., Hyler, M. E., & Gardner, M. (2017). Effective teacher professional development. Palo Alto, CA: Learning Policy Institute, 76pp.

Daugaard, L. M., Sarungi, V., & Amani, J. (2017). Flexible language strategies in early years education in Tanzania. *In 5th Annual Research Institute: Educational Leadership that Makes a Difference in the 21st Century*. Held at Aga Khan University, Dar es Salaam, Tanzania, 22- 24 March 2027.

Day, C. (1999). Professional Development and Reflective Practice: Purposes, processes and partnerships. *Pedagogy, Culture and Society*, *7*(2), 221–233. https://doi.org/10.1080/14681366.1999.11090864

Day, C. (2002). *Developing teachers: The challenges of lifelong learning*. Routledge, 264pp.

Day, C., & Smethem, L. (2009). The effects of reform: Have teachers really lost their sense of professionalism? *Journal of Educational Change*, *10*(2–3), 141–157. https://doi.org/10.1007/S10833-009-9110-5/METRICS

Deneme, S., & Çelik, H. (2017). The features of a standard INSET. In K. Dikilitaş & I. H. Erten (Eds.), *Facilitating In-Service Teacher Training for Professional Development*, 1–14. IGI Global. https://doi.org/10.4018/978-1-5225-1747-4.ch001

Depranoto, S. (2020). Program evaluation of the Indonesian navy's mental development (a CIPP model evaluation research). *Proceedings of the International Conference on Educational Psychology and Pedagogy - "Diversity in Education"* (ICEPP 2019), 167-172, https://doi.org/10.2991/assehr.k.200130.106

Desimone, L. M., & Garet, M. S. (2015). Best practices in teachers' professional development in the United States. *Psychology, Society, & Education*, *7*(3), 252–263.

Desimone, L. M., Smith, T. M., & Ueno, K. (2006). Are teachers who need sustained, content-focused professional development getting It? An administrator's dilemma. *Educational Administration Quarterly*, *42*(2), 179–215. https://doi.org/10.1177/0013161X04273848

Dichaba, M. M., & Mokhele, M. L. (2012). Does the cascade model work for teacher training? Analysis of teachers' experiences. *International Journal of Educational Sciences*, *4*(3), 249–254. https://doi.org/10.1080/09751122.2012.11890049

Dornyei, Z. (2007). *Research Methods in Applied Linguistics.* Oxford University Press: New York, 748pp.

El Afi, A. D. (2019). The impact of professional development training on teachers' performance in Abu Dhabi Cycle Two and Three schools. *Teacher Development*, *23*(3), 366–386. https://doi.org/10.1080/13664530.2019.1589562

El-Fiki, H. A. (2012). Teaching English as a foreign language and using English as a medium of instruction in Egypt: Teachers' perceptions of teaching approaches and sources of change. Thesis submitted for the award of PhD Degree at the University of Toronto: Canada.

Erick, F. Y. (2017). Impact of cluster-based INSET on instructional practices of Public JHS English Teachers: The case of Tain District of the Brong Ahafo Region, Ghana. Thesis submitted for award of Master of Philosophy Degree at the University for Development Studies: Ghana.

Erkmen*, A. Ö. B., & Karaman, A. C. (2016). English language teacher professional development: When institutional frameworks fall short. *The Inonu University Journal of the Faculty of Education*, *17*(1), 55–65. https://doi.org/10.17679/iuefd.17152899

Firmin, M. (2008). Structured interview. In G. L (Ed.), *The Sage Encyclopaedia of Qualitative Research,* 2, 837–838, Sage Publication. https://digitalcommons.cedarville.edu/psychology_publications/145/

Fouka, G., & Mantzorou, M. (2011). What are the major ethical issues in conducting research? Is there a conflict between the research ethics and the nature of nursing? *Health Science Journal*, *5*(1), 3–14.

Frye, A. W., & Hemmer, P. A. (2012). Program evaluation models and related theories: AMEE Guide No. 67. *Medical Teacher*, *34*(5). https://doi.org/10.3109/0142159X.2012.668637

Garet, M. S., Porter, A. C., Desimone, L., Birman, B. F., & Porter, A. C. (2009). What makes professional development effective? Results from a national

sample of teachers. *American Educational Research Journal*, *38*(4), 915–945.

Gauttier, S. (2020). Q-method as a tool to facilitate meaningful public engagement with science. *Qualitative Research Journal*, *20*(1), 86–102. https://doi.org/10.1108/QRJ-01-2019-0005

Gboku, M. & Lekoko, R. N. (2007). *Developing programmes for adult learners in Africa*. Pearson South Africa, 202pp.

Gichuru, F. M., Khayeka-Wandabwa, C., Olkishoo, R. S., Marinda, P. A., Owaki, M. F., Kathina, M. M., & Yuanyue, W. (2021). Education curriculum transitions in Kenya: An account and progress to competency-based education policy. *Curriculum Perspectives*, *41*(2), 153–162. https://doi.org/10.1007/s41297-021-00137-5

Glassner, A., Back, S., Glassner, A., & Back, S. (2020). Connectivism: Networks, Knowledge, and Learning. *Exploring Heutagogy in Higher Education*. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-981-15-4144-5_3

Goldie, J. (2009). AMEE Education Guide no. 29: Evaluating educational programmes. *Medical Teacher*, *28*(3), 210–224. https://doi.org/10.1080/01421590500271282

Goldschmidt, P., & Phelps, G. (2010). Does teacher professional development affect content and pedagogical knowledge: How much and for how long? *Economics of Education Review*, *29*(3), 432–439. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.econedurev.2009.10.002

González Moncada, A., & Quinchía Ortiz, D. I. (2011). Tomorrow's EFL teacher educators. *Colombian Applied Linguistics Journal*, *5*, 86. https://doi.org/10.14483/22487085.183

Gore, J., & Rosser, B. (2020). Professional development in education beyond content-focused professional development: Powerful professional learning through genuine learning communities across grades and subjects across grades and subjects. *Professional Development in Education*, *00*(00), 1–15. https://doi.org/10.1080/19415257.2020.1725904

Govender, S. (2018). South African teachers' perspectives on support received in implementing curriculum changes. *South African Journal of Education*, *38*, 1–12. https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.15700/saje.v38ns2a1484

Gruba, P., Moffat, a., Sondergaard, H., & Zobel, J. (2004). What drives curriculum change. *ACE '04 Proceedings of the Sixth Australasian Conference on Computing Education*, *1997*, 109–117.

Guba, E. G. (1981). Criteria for assessing the trustworthiness of naturalistic inquiries. *ERIC / ECTJ Annual Review Paper*, *29*(2), 75–91.

Güler, S., & Yonca, Ö. (2018). Podcast applications in pre-service language teacher education from a constructivist perspective. *World Journal on Educational Technology: Current Issues*, *10*(3), 131–141.

Guo, L. (2013). New Curriculum Reform in China and its Impact on Teachers. *Canadian and International Education / Education canadienne et internationale 41*(2).

Guskey, T. R. (2000). *Evaluating professional development.* Corwin Press, 328pp.

Guskey, T. R., & McTighe, J. (2016). Pre-assessment: Promises and cautions. *Educational Leadership*, 73(7), 38-43.

Hakielimu. (2021). *The education we want: A critical analysis of the Education and Training Policy (ETP) 2014, issues, and recommendations*. Hakielimu, Dar es Salaam, 24pp

Hall, D. T., & Hite, R. L. (2022). School-level implementation of a state-wide professional development model for developing globally competent teachers. *Https://Doi.Org/10.1080/13664530.2022.2132281*, *26*(5), 665–682. https://doi.org/10.1080/13664530.2022.2132281

Hamisi, M. (2018). Influence of LANES professional development programmes in enhancing numeracy and literacy skills in Tanzania: The case of selected primary schools in Dodoma Municipality. Dissertation Submitted for the Award of Master Degree at the University of Dodoma: Tanzania.

Haney, J. J., & Lumpe, A. T. (1995). A teacher professional development framework guided by reform policies, teachers' needs, and research. *Journal of Science Teacher Education*, *6*(4), 187–196. https://doi.org/10.1007/BF02614642

Hằng, N. V. T., Bulte, A. M. W., & Pilot, A. (2017). Interaction of Vietnamese teachers with a social constructivism-based primary science curriculum in a framework appropriate for a Confucian heritage culture. *Asia-Pacific Science Education*, *3*(1). https://doi.org/10.1186/s41029-017-0013-0

Hardman, F., Abd-Kadir, J., Agg, C., Migwi, J., Ndambuku, J., & Smith, F. (2009). Changing pedagogical practice in Kenyan primary schools: The impact of

school-based training. *Comparative Education*, *45*(1), 65–86. https://doi.org/10.1080/03050060802661402

Hardman, F., Hardman, J., Dachi, H., Elliott, L., Ihebuzor, N., Ntekim, M., & Tibuhinda, A. (2015a). Implementing school-based teacher development in Tanzania. *Professional Development in Education*, *41*(4), 602–623. https://doi.org/10.1080/19415257.2015.1026453

Hardman, F., Hardman, J., Dachi, H., Elliott, L., Ihebuzor, N., Ntekim, M., & Tibuhinda, A. (2015b). Implementing school-based teacher development in Tanzania. *Professional Development in Education*, *41*(4), 602–623. https://doi.org/10.1080/19415257.2015.1026453

Harwell, S. (2003). Teacher professional development: It's not an event, it's a process. *CORD*https://www.academia.edu/download/62082661/teacher_professional_development20200212-102284-1hqtnzx.pdf

Hasan, A. M. (2016). Intermediate schools EFL teachers' evaluation of an in-service training programme on "Iraq Opportunities." *Journal of College of Education for Women*, *27*(4), 1493–1506.

Hasanah, S. S., Permanasari, A., & Riandi, R. (2021). Online professional development for improving teacher's STEM PCK competence, can it be an alternative? (An Evaluation Using the CIPP Model). *JIPI*, 5(2), 162-171. https://doi.org/10.24815/jipi.v5i2.20713

Hay, E. (2010). Career paths in teacher training and trainer training. *Teacher Development and Education in Context*, 29-34.

Hayes, D. (2000). Cascade training and teachers' professional development. *ELT Journal*, *54*(2), 135–145. https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/54.2.135

Hayes, D. (2012). Mismatched perspectives: In-service teacher education policy and practice in South Korea. In T. Christopher (Ed.), *Managing Change in English Language Teaching: Lessons from Experience* (Issue May, pp. 99–104). British Council.

Hayes, H., Scott, V., Abraczinskas, M., Scaccia, J., Stout, S., & Wandersman, A. (2016). A formative multi-method approach to evaluating training. *Evaluation and Program Planning*, *58*, 199–207. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.evalprogplan.2016.06.012

Hennessy, S., Haßler, B., & Hofmann, R. (2015). Challenges and opportunities for teacher professional development in interactive use of technology in African schools. *Technology, Pedagogy and Education*, *24*(5), 1–28. https://doi.org/10.1080/1475939X.2015.1092466

Hiner, C. A., Mandel, B. G., Weaver, M. R., Bruce, D., McLaughlin, R., & Anderson, J. (2009). Effectiveness of a training-of-trainers model in a HIV counselling and testing program in the Caribbean Region. *Human Resources for Health*, *7*(1), 11. https://doi.org/10.1186/1478-4491-7-11

Hiza, C. (2020). Emphasising Kiswahili as a Medium of Instruction for Effective Education Output in Tanzania. In J. J. Agbaire, S. S. Agema, & J. Kumar (Eds.), *Education and Development: International insights on exclusions inclusion and, transformational change*, Sevhage Publisher, 154–164

Hogan, R. L. (2010). The Historical Development of Program Evaluation: Exploring Past and Present. *Online Journal for Workforce Education and Development*, *2*(4). https://opensiuc.lib.siu.edu/ojwed/vol2/iss4/5

Holland, H. (2005). Teaching teachers: Professional development to improve student achievement. *American Educational Research Association (AERA)*, 3 (1) 1-4.

Hong, L. (2012). Making it work: A case study of a teacher training programme in China. In Christopher Tribble (Ed.), *Managing Change in English Language Teaching: Lessons from Experience* (pp. 143–146). British Council.

House, E. R. (2001). Responsive evaluation (and its influence on deliberative democratic evaluation). *New Directions for Evaluation*, *2001*(92), 23–30. https://doi.org/10.1002/EV.32

Hung, B. P. (2016). Evaluation of an in-service training program for primary school teachers of English in Vietnam. *International Journal of English Linguistics*, *6*(4), 96. https://doi.org/10.5539/ijel.v6n4p96

Ilomo, O., & Ilomo, S. M. (2021). The use of visual aids in supporting English language teaching in English medium primary schools: A case study in Meru District. *International Journal of Contemporary Applied Research*, 8(5) 27-41.

Irvin, J. (2008). Social Constructivism in the Classroom: From A Community of Learners to A Community of Teachers. In M. Goos, R. Brown, & M. Katie

(Eds.), *Proceedings of the 31st Annual Conference of the Mathematics Education Research Group of Australasia Inc,* 1, 87–293.

Ismail, N., Kinchin, G., & Edwards, J.-A. (2017). Pilot study, does it really matter? learning lessons from conducting a pilot study for a qualitative PhD Thesis. *International Journal of Social Science Research*, *6*(1), 1. https://doi.org/10.5296/ijssr.v6i1.11720

Jacob, R., Hill, H., & Corey, D. (2017). The impact of a professional development program on teachers' mathematical knowledge for teaching, instruction, and student achievement. *Journal of Research on Educational Effectiveness*, 10(2), 379-407. https://doi.org/10.1080/19345747.2016.1273411.

Jamuhuri ya Muungano wa Tanzani. (2023). *Rasimu ya riport ya kamati ya kitaifa ya wataalamu ya kusimamia kazi ya maboresho ya mitaala ya elimu ya awali, msingi, selondari na uwalimu*.

Jansen, J. D. (1998). Curriculum reform in South Africa: A critical analysis of outcomes-based education. *Cambridge Journal of Education*, *28*(3), 321–331. https://doi.org/10.1080/0305764980280305.

Jenkins, G. (2020). Teacher agency: the effects of active and passive responses to curriculum change. *Australian Educational Researcher*, *47*(1), 167–181. https://doi.org/10.1007/S13384-019-00334-2/METRICS

Jennings, C. L. B. (2021). Best practices for motivating and supporting learning for adult and non- traditional learners. *IGI Global*, 128–130. https://doi.org/10.4018/978-1-7998-6762-3.ch008

Jinks, A., English, S., & Coufopoulos, A. (2012). Evaluation of a family-centred children's weight management intervention. *Emerald*, *113*(2), 88–101. https://doi.org/10.1108/09654281311298786

John, P. (2017). Promoting multilingualism in Tanzanian education policy: Challenges and options. *The Cradle of Knowledge African Journal of Educational and Social Science Research*, *5*(3), 43–55.

Jonathan, W. (2019). The role of self-directed professional development approach on primary school teachers' career development in Kilosa District, Tanzania. The Dissertation Submitted for the Award of Master Degree at the University of Dodoma: Tanzania.

Joyce-Gibbons, A., Galloway, D., Mollel, A., Mgoma, S., Pima, M., & Deogratias, E. (2018). Successful transition to secondary school in Tanzania: What are

the barriers? *Journal of International Development*, *30*(7), 1142–1165. https://doi.org/10.1002/jid.3304

Kabole, Z. (2013). Perceptions of primary school teachers towards school-based in-service training for primary education (MWAKEM): The case of Bagamoyo District, Coast region. The Dissertation Submitted for the Award of Master Degree at the University of Dodoma: Tanzania.

Kadeghe, M. (2010). In defence of continued use of English as the language of instruction in secondary and tertiary education in Tanzania. In B. Brock-Utne *et al.* (Eds.), *Language of instruction in Tanzania and South Africa-Highlights from a project*, Brill, 61-75.

Kafyulilo, A. C., Rugambuka, I. B., & Moses, I. (2013). Implementation of competency-based teaching in Morogoro teachers' training college, Tanzania. *Makerere Journal of Higher Education*, *4*(2), 311–326. https://doi.org/DOI: http://dx.doi.org/10.4314/majohe.v4i2.13

Kapinga, O. (2012). Professional Development among educators pursuing a B.Ed. program in special education in Tanzania: A study of motives and perceived outcomes. Åbo Akademi University Press: Åbo.

Karani, O. A., Miriam, K. N., & Mironga, J. (2021). Teaching competence-based agriculture subject in primary schools in Kenya: A review of institutional preparedness. *International Journal of Education, Technology and Science*, *1*(1), 14–30.

Kardiyanto, D. W., Setijono, H., & Mintarto, E. (2017). The Evaluation of Indonesia Paralympic Coaching. *European Journal of Special Education Research*, *2*(4), 103. https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.891047

Karim, A., Ahmed, Z., Shahed, F. H., Rahman, M. M., & Mohamed, A. R. (2019). Challenges affecting the implementation of £ 50 million in-service training program for English teachers in Bangladesh. *The Qualitative Report Article*, *24*(10), 2457–2485.

Kasuga, W. (2019). The status of professional development programmes for science and mathematics teachers in Tanzania. *National Journal of Multidisciplinary Research and Development,* 4(1), 91-96.

Kazemi, A., & Mansooreh, A. (2014). In-service training programs for Iranian EFL teachers revisited. *International Journal of Asian Social Science*, *4*(10), 1062–1076.

Khadimally, S. (2019). Technology-assisted ESL acquisition and development for nontraditional learners. In L. A. Tomei (Ed.), *Advances in Educational Technologies and Instructional Design (AETID) Book Series*, IGI Global, 1–37.

Kirk, D., & MacDonald, D. (2001). Teacher voice and ownership of curriculum change. *Journal of Curriculum Studies*, *33*(5), 551–567. https://doi.org/10.1080/00220270010016874

Kirkpatrick, J. (2006). *Evaluating Training Programme*. Berrett-Koehler Publishers.

Kiswaga, G. E. (2017). Implementation of competence based English curriculum in Tanzania secondary schools: How far has it been successful? In *International Conference on Education*, *1* (1).

Kitta, S., & Fussy, D. (2013). Bottlenecks in preparation of quality teachers in Tanzania. *Time Journals of Arts and Educational Research*, 1(5), 29-38.

Knowles, M. S. (1980). The modern practice of adult education: From pedagogy to andragogy. The Adult Education Company, New York: Cambridge, 43pp.

Knowles, M., Holton III, E., & Swansonis, R. A. (2015). The *adult learner: The definitive classic in adult education and human resource development*. (8thEd). Routledge.

Komba, S. C., & Mwakabenga, R. J. (2019). Teacher Professional Development in Tanzania: Challenges and Opportunities. *Educational Leadership*. https://doi.org/10.5772/intechopen.90564

Komba, S., & Mwandaji, M. (2015). Reflections on the Implementation of Competence Based Curriculum in Tanzanian Secondary Schools. *Journal of Education and Learning*, *4*(2), 73–80. https://doi.org/10.5539/jel.v4n2p73

Komba, W. L., & Nkumbi, E. (2008). Teacher professional development in Tanzania: Perceptions and practices. *Journal of International Cooperation in Education*, *11*(3), 67–83.

Kosnik, C., Menna, L., Dharamshi, P., Beck, C., Kosnik, C., Menna, L., Dharamshi, P., & Beck, C. (2018). Constructivism as a framework for literacy teacher education courses: The cases of six literacy teacher educators. *European Journal of Teacher Education*, *41*(1), 105–119. https://doi.org/10.1080/02619768.2017.1372742

Krefting, L. (1991). Rigor in qualitative research: The assessment of trustworthiness. *The American Journal of Occupational Therapy*, 45(3), 214-222.

Lam, P., & Mcnaught, C. (2008). A three-layered cyclic model of e-learning. *Journal of Interactive Learning Research (2008)*, *19*(2), 313–329.

Lauwo, M. (2020). Language ideologies in multilingual Tanzania: Parental discourses, school realities, and contested visions of schooling. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development*, *0*(0), 1–15. https://doi.org/10.1080/01434632.2020.1760286

Lee, T., Cheng, Y. C., & Ko, J. (2017). Curriculum reform with a school-based approach: intellectual, structural and cultural challenges intellectual, structural and cultural challenges. *School Leadership & Management*, *0*(0), 1–24. https://doi.org/10.1080/13632434.2017.1386647

Li, M. (2018). Understanding the impact of INSET on teacher change in China. Springer, 159pp. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-981-13-3311-8

Lincoln, Y. S., & Guba, E. G. (1986). But is it rigorous? Trustworthiness and authenticity in naturalistic evaluation. *New directions for program evaluation*, 1986(30), 73-84.

Lindvall, J., Helenius, O., Eriksson, K., & Ryve, A. (2022). Impact and design of a national-scale professional development program for Mathematics teachers. *Scandinavian Journal of Educational Research*, *66*(5), 744–759. https://doi.org/10.1080/00313831.2021.1910563

Linneberg, M. S., & Korsgaard, S. (2019). Coding qualitative data: A synthesis guiding the novice data. *Qualitative Research Journal*, *19*(3), 259–270. https://doi.org/10.1108/QRJ-12-2018-0012

Linzalone, R., & Schiuma, G. (2015). A review of program and project evaluation models. *Measuring Business Excellence*, *19*(3), 90–99. https://doi.org/10.1108/MBE-04-2015-0024

Liu, M. H., & Kleinsasser, R. C. (2015). Exploring EFL teachers' call knowledge and competencies: In-service program perspectives. *Language, Learning and Technology*, *19*(1), 119–138.

Loeng, S. (2018). Various ways of understanding the concept of andragogy. *Cogent Education*, *5*(1), 1–15. https://doi.org/10.1080/2331186X.2018.1496643

Lokollo, L. J., Lagun, J., & Jafar, S. (2020). Evaluation of Community Learning Activity Center Program (PKBM) as a community learning resource in Ambon City based on evaluation of Input. *International Journal of Advanced Science and Technology*, *29*(5), 1457–1466.

Losioki, B. E. (2020). Professional development and empowerment among secondary school teachers in Mkuranga District, Tanzania. *Journal of Education and Practice*, *11*(24), 92–98. https://doi.org/10.7176/jep/11-24-11

Loucks-Horsley, S., Stiles, K. E., Mundry, S. E., Love, N. B., & Hewson, P. W. (2010). *Designing professional development for teachers of Science and Mathematics* (3rd Ed.). Corwin.

Lozano, A. S., Sung, H., Padill, A. M., & Silva, D. M. (2002). Evaluation of professional development for language teachers in California. *Foreign Language Annals*, *35*(2), 161–170. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1944-9720.2002.tb03152.x

Lugimbana, A. A. (2017). The dynamics of implementing competence-based education and training approach in selected Tanzanian tertiary technical training institutions. A Thesis Submitted for the Award of PhD Degree at the University of Dar es Salaam: Tanzania.

Lukindo, J. J. (2016). Exploring competence-based education (CBE) in rural secondary schools in Tanzania: English language teachers' conceptions and experiences. *Journal of Education and Practice*, *7*(29), 62–67.

Lusekelo, A., & Alphonce, C. (2018). The linguistic landscape of urban Tanzania: An account of the language of billboards and shop-signs in district headquarters. *Journal of Language, Technology & Entrepreneurship in Africa*, *9*(1), 1-28–28. https://doi.org/10.4314/jolte.v9i1

Lyimo, D., & Mapunda, G. (2016). Do Tanzanian secondary school teachers of English use the communicative approach as required? Lessons from Kilimanjaro Region. *Journal of Linguistics and Language in Education*, *10*(2), 73–92.

M'mboga, A. B. (2021). Revisiting education reform in Kenya: A case of Competency Based Curriculum (CBC). *Social Sciences & Humanities Open*, *3*(1), 100107. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ssaho.2021.100107

Macdonald, D. (2003). Curriculum change and the post-modern world: Is the school curriculum-reform movement an anachronism? *Journal of Curriculum Studies*, *35*(2), 139–149. https://doi.org/10.1080/00220270210157605

Madaminov, M., & Ashurova, U. (2019). A Critical Review of the Proposed Changes to the EFL Curriculum in Public Schools in Uzbekistan. 金城学院大学論集. 人文科学編, 15(1), 61-73.

Madondo, F. (2021). Perceptions on curriculum implementation: A Case for rural Zimbabwean early childhood development teachers as agents of change. *Journal of Research in Childhood Education,* 35(3), 399-416.

Magidanga, F. S. (2017). Impediments towards enhancing the pedagogical content knowledge to secondary school teachers in Tanzania. *International Journal of Education and Research*, *5*(1), 273–284.

Mahmoudi, M., Rashtchi, M., & Abbasian, G. R. (2021). Efficacy of in-service education and training (INSET) courses in improving EFL teachers' technological pedagogical and content knowledge (TPACK). *Journal of Modern Research in English Language Studies*, 8(1), 31-54.

Majid, M. A. A., Othman, M., Mohamad, S. F., Lim, S. A. H., & Yusof, A. (2017). Piloting for interviews in qualitative research: Operationalization and lessons learnt. *International Journal of Academic Research in Business and Social Sciences*, *7*(4). https://doi.org/10.6007/ijarbss/v7-i4/2916

Makewa, L. N., Elizabeth, R. O. L. E., & Tuguta, E. (2013). Students' perceived level of English proficiency in secondary schools in Dodoma, Tanzania. *International Journal of instruction,* 6(2).

Makia, A. (2018). Professional development programs for improving in-service secondary school teachers' pedagogical skills in Tanzania: A case of Ilemela District Council. Dissertation Submitted for the Award of Master Degree at the University of Dodoma: Tanzania.

Makopoulou, K., Neville, R. D., Ntoumanis, N., & Thomas, G. (2019). An investigation into the effects of short-course professional development on teachers' and teaching assistants' self-efficacy. *Professional Development in Education*, *00*(00), 1–16. https://doi.org/10.1080/19415257.2019.1665572

Makorere, R., & Hudson Mrisha, S. (2019). Approaches and challenges of motivating educational staff in public schools in Tanzania: Some insights from Morogoro Municipality. *Journal of Human Resource Management*, *7*(4), 87. https://doi.org/10.11648/j.jhrm.20190704.12

Makori, M. (2018). Assessing the criteria for selection of teachers for professional development in public secondary schools in Tanzania: A case of Bunda District. Dissertation Submitted for the Award of Master Degree at the University of Dodoma: Tanzania

Makunja, G. (2016). Challenges facing teachers in implementing competence-based curriculum in Tanzania: The case of community secondary schools in Morogoro Municipality. *International Journal of Education and Social Science*, *3*(5), 30.

Malekela, G. A. (2010). English as a medium of instruction in post-primary education in Tanzania: Is it a fair policy to the learners? In B. Brock-Utne, Z. Desai, M. A. S. Oorro, & A. Pitman (Eds.), *Language of Instruction in Tanzania and South Africa-Highlights from a Project*, Brill, 33-41.

Manan, A., Fadhilah, M. A., Kamarullah, K., & Habiburrahim, H. (2020). Evaluating paper-based TOEFL preparation program using the Context, Input, Process, and Product (CIPP) model. *Studies in English Language and Education*, 7(2), 457-471.

Manasreh, M. (2018). Improving ELT teacher training practices through planning, design and implementation of an ICT-supported INSET Programme. Thesis for the Award of PhD Degree at the University of Warwick: United Kingdom.

Mapunda, G. (2018). An investigation of performance in national English language examinations in Tanzania: A curriculum processes. *Journal of Education, Humanities and Sciences*, *7*(1), 45–58.

Martens, D. (2014). *Research and evaluation in education and psychology* (4th Ed.). SAGE Publication.

Mbaga, S. (2015). Classroom interaction: A key to effective teaching and learning. *General Education Journal*, *4*(1), 44–52.

McGregor, H. E. (2013). Curriculum change in Nunavut: Towards Inuit Qaujimajatuqangit. *McGill Journal of Education*, *47*(3), 285–302. https://doi.org/10.7202/1014860ar

McKeown, D., Brindle, M., Harris, K. R., Sandmel, K., Steinbrecher, T. D., Graham, S., Lane, K. L., & Oakes, W. P. (2019). Teachers' voices: perceptions of effective professional development and class wide implementation of self-regulated strategy development in writing. *American Educational Research Journal*, *56*(3), 753–791. https://doi.org/10.3102/0002831218804146

Mdadila, P. (1967). *Education for self-reliance*. https://www.academia.edu/download/31208943/julius_nyerere.pdf

Mdima, D. A. (2015). Adherence to principles of conducting competence-based continuous assessment among secondary school English language teachers and its effects on students' attainment of competences. Dissertation for the award of Master Degree at the University of Dar es salaam: Tanzania.

Meena, W. E. (2009). Curriculum innovation in teacher education: exploring conceptions among Tanzanian teacher educators. Åbo Akademi University Press: Åbo.

Memon, M. (2013). Curriculum Change in Pakistan: An Alternative Model of Change. *Curriculum and Teaching*, *12*(1), 56–65. https://doi.org/10.7459/ct/12.1.06

Merriam, S. (2018). Adult learning theory: Evolution and future directions. In K. Illeris (Ed.), *Contemporary Theories of Learning* (2nd Ed). Routledge, 276pp.

Meyer, A., Richter, D., & Hartung-Beck, V. (2022). The relationship between principal leadership and teacher collaboration: Investigating the mediating effect of teachers' collective efficacy. *Educational Management Administration & Leadership*, *50*(4), 593–612. https://doi.org/10.1177/1741143220945698

Mgaiwa, S. J. (2018). Emerging fundamental issues of teacher education in Tanzania: A reflection of practices. *Educational Process: International Journal*, *7*(4), 246–264. https://doi.org/10.22521/edupij.2018.74.3

Ministry of Education and Vocational Training (MoEVT). (2007). Information and Communication Technology (ICT) Policy for Basic Education.

Ministry of Education and Vocational Training, & UNESCO. (2014). Enhancing teacher education for bridging the education quality gap in Africa: The case of Tanzania - needs assessment report.

Minor, E., Desimone, L., Caines, J., & Hochberg, E. D. (2016). Insights on how to shape teacher learning policy: The role of teacher content knowledge in explaining differential effects of professional development. *Redalyc.Org*, *24*, 1–34. https://www.redalyc.org/pdf/2750/275043450035.pdf

Mkonongwa, M. (2018). Competency-based teaching and learning approach towards quality education.

Mkonongwa, M., & Komba, S. (2018). Enhancing the quality of teaching and learning in Tanzania through improved English language teaching and educational management skills. *International Journal of Research Studies in Language Learning, 7*(2), 1–14. https://doi.org/10.5861/ijrsll.2017.1705 Accepted:

Mmbando, J., & Hongoke, C. (2010). Management, inspection and supervision for effective delivery of quality education. *Thematic Paper for the Joint Education Sector Annual Review.*

Mohamed, K. S. (2015). Implementation of English subject competence-based curriculum in community based secondary schools in Dar es Salaam Region. Thesis for the Award of PhD Degree at the University of Dar es Salaam: Tanzania.

Mohamed, M., & Karuku, S. (2017). Implementing a competency-based curriculum in science education: A Tanzania mainland case study. In F. S. Otulaja & M. B. Ogunniyi (Eds.), *The World of Science Education: Handbook of Research in Science Education in Sub-Saharan Africa*. Sense Publishers, 101–102.

Mohr, S., & Ochieng, D. (2017). Language usage in everyday life and in education: Current attitudes towards English in Tanzania. *English Today*, *33*(4), 12–18. https://doi.org/10.1017/S0266078417000268

Molope, M., & Oduaran, A. (2019). Development in Practice Evaluation of the community development practitioners' professional development programme: CIPP model application. *Development in Practice*, *0*(0), 1–13. https://doi.org/10.1080/09614524.2019.1650894

Moon, B. (2007). School-based teacher development in Sub-Saharan Africa: building a new research agenda School-based teacher development in Sub-Saharan Africa: building a new research agenda. *The Curriculum Journal*, 37–41. https://doi.org/10.1080/09585170701590007

Moser, A., & Korstjens, I. (2018). Series: Practical guidance to qualitative research. Part 3: Sampling, data collection and analysis. *European Journal of General Practice*, *24*(1), 9–18. https://doi.org/10.1080/13814788.2017.1375091

Mosha, H. J. (1990). Twenty years after education for self-reliance: A critical review. *International Journal of Educational Development*, *10*(1), 59–67. https://doi.org/10.1016/0738-0593(90)90016-H

Mosha, H. J. (2012). A case study of learning materials used to deliver knowledge and skills or competency-based curricula (in Tanzania). *Association for the Development of Education in Africa (ADEA)*, 60pp.

Mosha, M. A. (2014). Factors affecting students' performance in English language in Zanzibar rural and urban secondary schools. Journal of Education and Practice, 5(35), 64-76.

Msanjila, Y. P. (2010). Problems of teaching through the medium of Kiswahili in teacher training colleges in Tanzania. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development*, *11*(4), 307–317. https://doi.org/10.1080/01434632.1990.9994419

Muduli, A., Kaura, V., & Quazi, A. (2018). Pedagogy or andragogy? Views of Indian postgraduate business students. *IIMB Management Review*, *30*(2), 168–178. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.iimb.2018.01.008

Muganda, C. K. (1999). Education privatisation policy reforms in Tanzania and New Zealand since the 1980s: A comparative critical policy analysis study. Dissertation for the Award of PhD degree at the Massey University: New Zealand.

Mugiraneza, F., & Andala, H. O. (2019). Competence based learning and skills acquisition in secondary schools of Rwanda. *Stratford Peer Reviewed Journals and Book Publishing Journal of Education*, *2*(3), 86–108.

Mulenga, D. C. (2001). Mwalimu Julius Nyerere: A critical review of his contributions to adult education and postcolonialism. *International Journal of Lifelong Education*, *20*(6), 446–470. https://doi.org/10.1080/02601370110088436

Murphy, J. (2020). The five essential reasons for the failure of school reforms. *Journal of Human Resource and Sustainability Studies*, *08*(01), 1–17. https://doi.org/10.4236/JHRSS.2020.81001

Musengimana, J., Kampire, E., & Ntawiha, P. (2021). Investigation of most commonly used instructional methods in teaching Chemistry: Rwandan lower secondary schools. *International Journal of Learning, Teaching and Educational Research*, *20*(7), 241–261. https://doi.org/10.26803/IJLTER.20.7.14

Mushi, P. (2009). *History and development of education in Tanzania.* Dar es Salaam University Pres.

Mushi, S. L. (1996). Some general ideas informing second language teaching globally: Obstacles to their utilisation in Tanzania. Language, Culture and Curriculum, 9(2), 133-147.

Mwangi, N. W. (2013). *Factor contributing to effective provision of INSET for primary school teachers: Case of Nyandarua South District, Nyandarua County-Kenya*.

Mwesiga, A., & Okendo, E. O. (2018). Effectiveness of heads of schools in supervising teachers' teaching activities in secondary schools in Kagera Region, Tanzania. *International Journal of Scientific Research and Management*, *6*(04), 91–107. https://doi.org/10.18535/ijsrm/v6i4.sh04

Mwinsheikhe, H. (2008). Overcoming the language barrier: An in-depth study of the strategy used by secondary science teachers and students in coping with the English-Kiswahili dilemma. In M. A. S. Qorro, Z. Desai, & B. Brock-Utne (Eds.), *LOITASA: Reflecting on Phase I and Entering Phase II* (pp. 123–142). E & D Vision Publishing Limited.

Naghmeh, N., Zohreh, N., Masoomeh, E., Marandi, S. S., & Wang, S. (2019). Evaluating novice and experienced EFL teachers' perceived TPACK for their professional development. *Cogent Education*, *6*(1), 1–26. https://doi.org/10.1080/2331186X.2019.1632010

Nalan, O., & Grsoy, E. (2020). EFL teachers views and needs on in-service training as a part of professional development: A case study in Turkish context. *Bartan University Journal of Faculty of Education*, *9*(2), 373–387. https://doi.org/10.14686/buefad.713100

Namamba, A., & Rao, C. (2017). Preparation and professional development of teacher educators in Tanzania: Current practices and prospects. *Journal of Education and Practice*, *8*(8), 136–145.

Naz, S. (2020). Evaluation of Punjab Education and English Language Initiative (PEELI) Project in Theoretical Framework: CIPP Evaluation Model Purpose and Research Questions Research Setting and Methods. *Global Regional Review*, *1*, 332–339. https://doi.org/10.31703/grr.2020(V-I).36

Ndulila, E. S., & Msuya, E. A. (2017). Tanzanian EFL teachers' perceptions and attitudes towards communicative language teaching (CLT): a case study of secondary schools in Morogoro municipality, Tanzania. *International Journal on Studies in English Language and Literature*, 5(9), 60-69.

Nevo, D. (1983). The conceptualization of educational evaluation: An analytical review of the literature. *Review of Educational Research*, *53*(1), 117–128. https://doi.org/10.3102/00346543053001117

Nhung, P. H. (2018). General English proficiency or English for teaching? The preferences of in-service teachers. *RELC Journal*, *49*(3), 339–352. https://doi.org/10.1177/0033688217691446

Norine, W., & Ally, M. (2020). Bridging human and machine: Future education with intelligence. In S. Yu, M. Ally, & A. Tsinakos (Eds.), *Bridging Human and Machine: Future Education with Intelligence* (pp. 89–111). https://doi.org/10.1007/978-981-15-0618-5_10

Novozhenina, A., & López Pinzón, M. M. (2018). impact of a professional development program on EFL teachers' performance. *HOW*, *25*(2), 113–128. https://doi.org/10.19183/how.25.2.406

Nuangpolmak, A. (2019). Designing a Professional Development Program for English Teachers: Insights from the Lower Mekong Initiative. *Rangsit Journal of Educational Studies*, *6*(2), 55–67.

Nur, S., & Short, M. (2019). Factors affecting the quality and efficacy of English language teaching in-service teacher education and training (ELT-INSET): A case study of Bangladesh. *Waikato Journal of Education, 24*(1), 55–59. https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.15663/wje.v24i1.600

Nyamubi, G. J. (2016). Students' attitudes and English language performance in secondary schools in Tanzania. *International Journal of Learning, Teaching and Educational Research*, *15*(2), 117–133.

Nyamubi, G. J. (2019). Socio-economic status as determinants of students' performance in English language in secondary schools in Tanzania. *Education Journal*, 8(3), 110-119.

Nyarigoti, N. (2013). Continuing professional development needs for English language teachers in Kenya. *International Journal of Research in Social Sciences*, *3*(2), 138–149.

Nyerere, J. K. (1967). Education for self-reliance. *The Ecumenical Review*, *19*(4), 382–403. https://doi.org/10.1111/J.1758-6623.1967.TB02171.X

Nzilano, J. L. (2015). Influences and outcomes of social constructivist curriculum implementation on tutors' beliefs and practices in teacher education colleges

in Tanzania. Thesis Submitted for the award of PhD degree at Victoria University of Wellington: New Zealand.

O'Donahue, C. (2012). Change in Tamil Nadu, India. In Christopher Tribble (Ed.), *Managing Change in English Language Teaching: Lessons from Experience*. British Council, 148–153,

OECD. (2009). The professional development of teachers. In *Creating Effective Teaching and Learning Environments: First Results from The Professional Development of Teachers*, 47–86.

Omari, J. A. (2019). Role of Secondary School English Language Teachers in Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) in Tanzania: Visual Methodological Study. *PED*, *2*(37), 90–111.

Önalan, O., & Gürsoy, E. (2020). EFL teachers' demands and preferences on in-service training in Turkey. *International Online Journal of Education and Teaching*, *7*(3), 945–958.

Ong, J. W., & Tajuddin, A. J. A. (2021). Investigating cascade training of CEFR-aligned standards-based English language curriculum (SBELC) in Rural Malaysia. *International Journal of Learning, Teaching and Educational Research*, *20*(7), 100–117.

Osamwonyi, E. F. (2016). In-service education of teachers: Overview, problems and the way forward. *Journal of Education and Practice*, *7*(26), 83–87.

Otomewo, A. G., & Okandeji, C. O. (2014). Secondary school for self-reliance: A necessity for economic development in Nigeria. *Journal of Teacher Perspective*, 8(4).

Otunnu, O. (2014). Mwalimu Julius Kambarage Nyerere's philosophy, contribution, and legacies. *African Identities*, *13*(1), 18–33. https://doi.org/10.1080/14725843.2014.961278

Outhwaite, D., Sahlin, S., & Mifsud, D. (2023). The impact of ICA on leadership preparation and development policies in England and Sweden: Comparing policy and practice. *In Improving Higher Education Models Through International Comparative Analysis*, 253-270. IGI Global.

Oygen, G. (2017). Evaluation of the Implementation of School-Based In-service Training Programme (MWAKEM) Pin Makete Primary Schools in Njombe, Tanzania. Dissertation for the Award of Master Degree at the University of Dar es Salaam: Tanzania.

Öztürk, M. (2019). An evaluation of an innovative in-service teacher training model in Turkey. *International Journal of Higher Education*, *8*(1), 23–36. https://doi.org/10.5430/ijhe.v8n1p23

Padwad, A., & Dixit, K. K. (2013). Multiple stakeholders' views of continuing professional development. In R. Bolitho & P. Amol (Eds.), *Continuing Professional Development: Lessons from India*. British Council, 11–22.

Patel, M. (2012). The ETeMS project in Malaysia: English for the Teaching of Mathematics and Science. In Christopher Tribble (Ed.), *Managing Change in English Language Teaching: Lessons from Experience* British Council, 106–109.

Patton, M. Q. (2015). *Qualitative Research and Evaluation Methods* (4th ed.). SAGE Publication.

Paulo, A., & Tilya, F. (2014). The 2005 Secondary school curriculum reforms in Tanzania: Disjunction between policy and practice in its implementation. *Journal of Education and Practice*, *5*(35), 114–123.

Peltz, D. (2019). Andragogy, culture, and adult learning worldviews. In D. P. Peltz & A. C. Clemons (Eds.), *Multicultural Andragogy for Transformative Learning* (pp. 92–114). https://doi.org/10.4018/978-1-5225-3474-7.ch006

Penuel, W. R., Fishman, B. J., Yamaguchi, R., & Gallagher, L. P. (2007). What makes professional development effective? Strategies that foster curriculum implementation. *American Educational Research Journal*, *44*(4), 921–958. https://doi.org/10.3102/0002831207308221

Perrin, B. (2002). How to and how not to evaluate innovation. *Evaluation*, *8*(1), 13–28. https://doi.org/10.1177/1358902002008001514

Peterson, B. L. (2017). Thematic analysis/interpretive thematic analysis. *The International Encyclopaedia of Communication Research Methods*, 1–9. https://doi.org/10.1002/9781118901731.iecrm0249

Petrie, K., & McGee, C. (2012). Teacher professional development: Who is the learner? *Australian Journal of Teacher Education*, *37*(2), 58–72. https://doi.org/10.14221/AJTE.2012V37N2.7

Petty, N. J., Thomson, O. P., & Stew, G. (2012). Ready for a paradigm shift? Part 1: Introducing the philosophy of qualitative research. *Manual Therapy*, *17*(4), 267–274. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.math.2012.03.006

Prihidayanti, Y., Florentinus, T. S., & Kustiono, K. (2019). The effect of the education and training program of continuous professional development program of in-on-in modes on pedagogical and professional competence of teachers in Kendal. *Innovative Journal of Curriculum and Educational Technology*, 8(2), 90-91.

Pritchard, A., & Woollard, O. (2010). Psychology for the classroom: Constructivism and social learning. In *Psychology for the Classroom: Constructivism and Social Learning*. Routledge. https://doi.org/10.4324/9780203855171

Prosper, G., & Doroth, E. (2017). Strengthening English learning in language transition classes by spiralling English teachers' competencies in Tanzania. Asian Research Journal of Arts & Social Sciences, 3(3), 1-15.

Prosper, G., & Doroth, E. (2017). Strengthening English learning in language transition classes by spiralling English teachers' competences in Tanzania. *Asian Research Journal of Arts and Social Sciences*, *3*(3), 1–15. https://doi.org/10.9734/arjass/2017/32271

Purwanti, E. (2017). Understanding the EFL lecturers' beliefs about their professional learning from the lens of Malcolm Knowles theory of andragogy. *Journal of Foreign Language Teaching and Learning*, 2(1), 30-43.

Qorro, M. (2010). Testing Students' ability to learn through English during the transition from primary to secondary schooling. In B. Brock-Utne, Z. Z. Desai, M. A. S. Qorro, & A. Pitman (Eds.), *Language of Instruction in Tanzania and South Africa - Highlights from a Project* E & D Ltd, 5, 157–188pp.

Qorro, M. A. S. (2013). Language of instruction in Tanzania: Why are research findings not heeded? *International Review of Education*, *59*(1), 29–45. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11159-013-9329-5

Rahimi, M., & Alavi, J. (2017). The role of teaching experience in language teachers' perceptions of a top-down curriculum change. *Curriculum Journal*, *28*(4), 479–503. https://doi.org/10.1080/09585176.2017.1344134

Rahman, F., Jumani, N. B., Yasmin, A., Chisthi, S. U. H., & Ajmal, M. (2011). Relationship between Training of Teachers and Effectiveness Teaching. *International Journal of Business and Social Science*, *2*(4), 150–160.

Rajani, R. (2003). Is primary education heading in the right direction? Thinking with Nyerere. *In 6th UDSM Convocation Symposium*. University of Dar Es Salaam: Tanzania.

Raud, N., & Orehhova, O. (2017). In-service training of teachers of English as a foreign language in Estonia: Mapping of trends and opportunities. *Problems of Education in the 21st Century*, *75*(2), 194–203.

Richards, J. C., & Farrell, T. S. C. (2005). *Professional Development for Language Teachers Strategies for Teacher Learning*. Cambridge University Press.

Rogan, J. M., & Grayson, D. J. (2003). Towards a theory of curriculum implementation with particular reference to science education in developing countries. *International Journal of Science Education*, *25*(10), 1117–1204. https://doi.org/10.1080/09500690210145819

Roy, C., Rahim, S., & Khojah, A. (2018). Perceptions of EFL teachers at King Abdulaziz University Regarding the effectiveness of Cambridge University Press's Train the Trainer Course. *Arab World English Journal*, *9*(2), 92–107. https://doi.org/10.24093/awej/vol9no2.6

Rubagumya, C. M. (1986). Language planning in the tanzanian educational system: Problems and prospects. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development*, *7*(4), 283–300. https://doi.org/10.1080/01434632.1986.9994245

Rubagumya, C. M. (1991). Language promotion for educational purposes: The example of Tanzania. *International Review of Education*, *37*(1), 67–85. https://doi.org/10.1007/BF00598168/METRICS

Rugambwa, A., & Joseph, A. (2014). School-based in-service training program: the audacity of hope for teacher professional development in Tanzania. *International Conference on Education and Social Sciences (Intcess14), Vols I and II*.

Rugambwa, A., Anangisye, W. A., & Mwaikokesya, M. J. (2022). The contribution of school-based teacher professional development to learner-centred pedagogical practices in secondary schools in Tanzania. *Papers in Education and Development*, 40(1).

Russell, J. (2010). Success as a source of conflict in language-planning: The Tanzanian case. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development*, *11*(5), 363–375. https://doi.org/10.1080/01434632.1990.9994423

Salema, V. (2015). Assessment of the attitude of teachers and students towards learner centred pedagogy in secondary schools in Kilimanjaro Region. *Educational Research*, *6*(2), 31–38. https://doi.org/DOI: http:/dx.doi.org/10.14303/er.2015.11

Sampson, H. (2004). Navigating the waves: The usefulness of a pilot in qualitative research. *Qualitative Research*, *4*(3), 383–402. https://doi.org/DOI: 10.1177 /1468794104047236

Samuel, T., Azen, R., & Campbell-Kyureghyan, N. (2019). Evaluation of learning outcomes through multiple choice pre- and post-training assessments. *Journal of Education and Learning*, *8*(3), 122–135. https://doi.org/10.5539/jel.v8n3p122

Sane, E., & Sebonde, R. (2014). Suitability of communicative approach in teaching English language in Tanzania secondary schools. *Art and Social Science Journal*, *5*(2), 1–6. https://doi.org/10.4172/2151-6200.100074

Sanga, I. (2016). Education for self-reliance: Nyerere's policy recommendations in the context of Tanzania. *African Research Journal of Education and Social Sciences*, *3*(2), 1–7.

Satoshi, K. (2020). The Role of Curriculum Studies in the Spread of Competency-Based Educational Reforms in African Countries. *Africa Educational Research Journal Number*, *11*(11), 26–35.

Saumure, K., & Given, L. M. (2008). Rigor in qualitative research. In L. Given (Ed.), *The Sage encyclopaedia of qualitative research methods* (p. 1043). SAGE Publication, Inc.

Schachter, R. E., Gerde, H. K., & Hatton-Bowers, H. (2019). Guidelines for selecting professional development for early childhood teachers. *Early Childhood Education Journal*, *47*(4), 395–408. https://doi.org/10.1007/S10643-019-00942-8/METRICS

Schoen, R. C., LaVenia, M., Chicken, E., Razzouk, R., Kisa, Z., & Boylan, M. (2019). Increasing secondary-level teachers' knowledge in statistics and probability: Results from a randomized controlled trial of a professional development program. *Cogent Education*, *6*(1). https://doi.org/10.1080/2331186X.2019.1613799

Scholey, M. (2012). Materials design and development in English for the world of work in Turkey: Policy, strategies and processes. In Christopher Tribble

(Ed.), *Managing Change in English Language Teaching: Lessons from Experience* British Council, 106–115.

Schreiber, L. M., & Valle, B. E. (2013). Social constructivist teaching strategies in the small group classroom. *Small Group Research*, 44(4), 395-411.

Schunk, D. H. (2012). *Learning theories an educational perspective*. Pearson Education, Inc

Shakman, K., Goodyear, L., DeLisi, J., Schiavo, N., Mansori, S., Rodriguez, S., McMahon, T., Louie, J., Greller, S., Fitzhugh, G., & Irwin, C. (2017). Book Review: Qualitative Research & Evaluation Methods: Integrating Theory and Practice (4th Ed.). *American Journal of Evaluation*, *38*(4), 603–605. https://doi.org/10.1177/1098214016689486

Sharan, M., & Tisdell, E. (2015). *Qualitative research: A guide to design and implementation* (4th Ed.). John Wiley & Sons.

Shenton, A. K. (2004). Strategies for ensuring trustworthiness in qualitative research projects. *Education for information*, 22(2), 63-75.

Shia, L., & Jiang, L. (2022). How EFL teachers perceive and self-evaluate the knowledge components in forming Technological Pedagogical Content Knowledge (TPACK). *English Language Teaching Educational Journal, 5*(1), 1–12. http://journal2.uad.ac.id/index.php/eltej/article/view/5914

Shih, Y. D. (2019). Evaluating an English Elite Program in Taiwan Using the CIPP Model. *The Journal of Asia TEFL 16*(1), 200–219.

Simpson, J. (2012). Mind the gap: Language policy reform in Rwanda. In Christopher Tribble (Ed.), *Managing Change in English Language Teaching: Lessons from Experience*. British Council, 116–123.

Spiegel, A. N., Bruning, R. H., & Giddings, L. (1999). Using responsive evaluation to evaluate a professional conference. *American Journal of Evaluation*, *20*(1), 57–67. https://doi.org/10.1177/109821409902000105

Stake, R. (2001). Responsive Evaluation. In R. (2003). R. Evaluation. I. K. T., S. D. L. (eds) Stake (Ed.), *International Handbook of Educational Evaluation* (pp. 63–68). Springer, Dordrecht. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-94-010-0309-4_5

Stake, R. (2003). Standards-Based and Responsive Evaluation. *Sage Publications.* http://ipen.evaleurasia.org/conference/2006/StandardsBased-Resp.pdf

Stake, R. E. (1983). Program evaluation, particularly responsive evaluation. In D. Stufflebeam, G. Madaus, & T. Kellaghan (Eds.), *Evaluation in Education*

*and Human Services*, 343–362. Springer, Dordrecht. https://doi.org/10.1007/0-306-47559-6_18

Stufflebeam, D. L. (2001). Evaluation Models. *New Directions for Evaluation*, *89*, 7–98. https://doi.org/10.1002/ev.1

Sumra, S., & Katabaro, J. (2014). Declining quality of education: Suggestions for arresting and reversing the trend. *Economic and Social Research Foundation.*

Swai, S. E. (2015). Effect of teachers' networks on teachers' professional development and student performance in secondary Schools in Tanzania. *African Educational Research Journal,* 3(1), 39-46.

Tabatabaee-Yazdi, M., Motallebzadeh, K., Ashraf, H., & Baghaei, P. (2018). Continuing Professional Development Strategies: A Model for the Iranian EFL Teachers' Success. *SAGE Open*, *8*(1). https://doi.org/10.1177/2158244018764234

Tajik, L., Mirhosseini, S. A., & Ramezani, A. (2019a). "Now as a teacher": Novice teachers reflect on English language teacher education in Iran. *The Qualitative Report, 24(6), 1373-1398.*, *24*(6), 1373–1398. https://doi.org/10.46743/2160-3715/2019.3413

Tajik, L., Mirhosseini, S., & Ramezani, A. (2019b). "Now as a teacher": Novice Teachers Reflect on English Language Teacher Education in Iran. *The Qualitative Report*, *24*(6), 1373–1398.

Thanh, N. C., & Tran, T. L. T. (2015). The Interconnection Between Interpretivist Paradigm and Qualitative Methods in Education. *American Journal of Educational Science*, *1*(2), 24–27.

Tibategeza, E. R. (2018). The prospects of Kiswahili as a medium of instruction in the Tanzanian education and training policy. *Journal of Language and Education*, *4*(3), 88–98. https://doi.org/10.17323/2411-7390-2018-4-3-88-98

Tibategeza, E., & Du Plessis, T. (2012). Language-in-education policy development in Tanzania: An overview. *Language Matters: Studies in the Languages of Africa*, *43*(2), 184–201. https://doi.org/10.1080/10228195.2011.573801

Tikkanen, L., Pyhältö, K., Pietarinen, J., & Soini, T. (2019). Lessons learnt from a large-scale curriculum reform: The strategies to enhance development work

and reduce reform-related stress. *Journal of Educational Change*, *0123456789*. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10833-019-09363-1

Tikkanen, L., Pyhältö, K., Soini, T., & Pietarinen, J. (2017). Primary determinants of a large-scale curriculum reform: National board administrators' perspectives. *Journal of Educational Administration*, *55*(6), 702–716. https://doi.org/10.1108/JEA-10-2016-0119

Tilya, F., & Mafumiko, F. (2018). The compatibility between teaching methods and competence-based curriculum in Tanzania. *Papers in education and development*, (29).

Tran, L. T. Q. (2018). Meeting the demands of ELT innovation in Vietnam: Teachers' linguistic and pedagogic challenge. *International Perspectives on Teachers Living with Curriculum Change*, 83–102.

Uddin, M. R. (2020). In-Service training for secondary English teachers of Bangladeshi Madrasahs: Investigating adequacy and effectiveness. *Journal of Linguistics and Education*, *10*(1), 36–45.

Ugwu, C. I., Ekere, J. N., & Onoh, C. (2021). Research paradigms and methodological choices in the research process. *Journal of Applied Information Science and Technology*, *14*(2), 116–124.

Ulla, M. B. (2018). In-service teachers' training: The case of university teachers in Yangon, Myanmar. *Australian Journal of Teacher Education*, *43*(1), 66–77. https://doi.org/10.14221/ajte.2018v43n1.4

United Republic of Tanzania (URT). (2007). Curriculum for ordinary level secondary education in Tanzania (2013th Ed.). Tanzania Institute of Education.

United Republic of Tanzania [URT]. (2005). English Language Syllabus for Secondary Education Form I - IV. Dar es Salaam, Tanzania.

Urio, P. (2016). Supervision of instructional programmes for improving students' performance in secondary schools in Tanzania. *Papers in Education and Development, 36.*

URT. (1995). The education and training policy. Ministry of Education and Culture: Dar es Salaam, Tanzania.

URT. (1999). The Tanzania development vision 2025. Planning Commission.

URT. (2004). Secondary Education Development Plan (SEDP) 2004 – 2009. In Education Sector Development Programme. Ministry of Education and Culture: Tanzania.

URT. (2008). A Performance audit report on school inspection programme for secondary schools in Tanzania: Report of the Controller and Auditor General of The United Republic of Tanzania.

URT. (2010). Education Sector Development Programme, (July 2010 – June 2015).

URT. (2014). Sera ya Elimu na Mafunzo. http://library1.nida.ac.th/termpaper6/sd/2554/19755.pdf

URT. (2018). Basic education statistical abstract 2004-2017.

URT. (2019). National curriculum framework for basic and teacher education. Tanzania Institute of Education.

URT. (2020a). National framework for teachers' continuous professional development. Dar es Salaam Tanzania.

URT. (2020b). Performance audit report on the management of the provision of capacity building to in-service teachers, Dar es Salaam: Tanzania.

URT. (2021). Taarifa ya matokeo ya upimaji wa Darasa La Nne (SFNA), Kidato cha Pili (FTNA) na Mtihani wa Kidato cha Nne (CSEE) na Maarifa (QT) iliyofanyika Novemba/Desemba 2020: Tanzania.

URT. (2023). Taarifa ya matokeo ya mtihani wa Kidato cha Nne (CSEE) na Maarifa (QT) iliyofanyika Novemba na Desemba 2022.

Uysal, H. H. (2012). Evaluation of an in-service training program for primary-school language teachers in Turkey. *Australian Journal of Teacher Education*, *37*(7), 14–29. https://doi.org/10.14221/ajte.2012v37n7.4

Uztosun, M. S. (2017). In-service teacher education in Turkey: English language teachers' perspectives. *Professional Development in Education*, *44*(4), 557–569. https://doi.org/10.1080/19415257.2017.1374989

Uzunkaya, M. (2017). Theory-based evaluation of public–private partnership projects and programmes. *The Emerald Handbook of Public–Private Partnerships in Developing and Emerging Economies*, 579–604. https://doi.org/10.1108/978-1-78714-493-420171022

Viáfara, J. J., & Largo, J. D. (2018). Colombian English teachers' professional development: The case of master programs. *Profile: Issues in Teachers' Professional Development*, *20*(1), 103–119.

https://doi.org/10.15446/profile.v20n1.63323

Vilches, M. L. (2018). Involving teachers in the change process: One English language teacher's account of implementing curricular change in Philippine Basic Education. In M. Wedell & L. Grassick (Eds.), *International Perspectives on Teachers Living with Curriculum Change*, 1–15. https://doi.org/10.1057/978-1-137-54309-7_1

Visse, M., Abma, T., & Widdershoven, G. (2015). Practising Political Care Ethics: Can Responsive Evaluation Foster Democratic Care? *Ethics and Social Welfare, 9*(2), 164–182. https://doi.org/10.1080/17496535.2015.1005550

Viswanathan, R. (2018). Effectiveness of Teacher Training in Using Latest Technologies. In *Encyclopedia of Information Science and Technology, Fourth Edition*, 7635-7646. IGI Global.

Vu, M. T. (2012). Some Thoughts on being a Trained as a Trainer of Primary Teachers. *The Teacher Trainer Journal*, *26*(2), 7–8.

Vuzo, M. (2004). Using English as a Medium of Instruction in Tanzania Secondary Schools: An Investigation of Classroom Practices. *A Paper Presented at LOITASA Conference in Arusha, Tanzania*.

Vuzo, M. (2008). Revising the language policy in Tanzania: a comparative study of geography study taught in English and Kiswahili. In M. A. S. Qorro, Z. Desai, & B. Brock-Utne (Eds.), *LOITASA: Reflecting on Phase I and Entering Phase II.* E & D Vision Publishing Limited: Dar es Salaam, 102–122.

Wabike, P. (2015). Educating a nation towards self-reliance: Tanzania's journey in search for an education that is meaningful to its people. *Educational Research for Policy and Practice*, *14*(1), 19–32. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10671-014-9169-5

Warr, P., Allan, C., & Birdi, K. (1999). Predicting three levels of training outcome. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 72(3), 351-375.

Waters, A., & Vilches, M. L. C. (2001). Implementing ELT innovations: A needs analysis framework. *ELT Journal*, *55*(2), 133–141. https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/55.2.133

Waters, A., & Vilches, M. L. C. (2012). 'Tanggap, tiklop, tago' (receive, fold, keep): Perceptions of best practice in ELT INSET. *British Council ELT*, 313.

Wedell, M. (2003). Giving TESOL change a chance: Supporting key players in the curriculum change process. *System*, *31*(4), 439–456. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2003.02.001

Wedell, M. (2009). *Planning for Educational Change*. Continuum International Publishing Group, 194pp.

Wedell, M. (2011). More than just "technology": English language teaching initiatives as complex educational changes. In H. Coleman (Ed.), *Dreams and realities: Developing countries and the English language* British Council, 269–290) https://www.researchgate.net/profile/Martin.

Wedell, M. (2012). The Oman BA Project: ELT change implementation, process or event? In Christopher Tribble (Ed.), *Managing Change in English Language Teaching: Lessons from Experience*. British Council, 167–171.

Wedell, M. (Ed) (2013). *Teacher education planning handbook: Working together to support teachers' continuing professional development.* British Council, India, pp 128.

Wedin, Å. (2008). Language ideologies and schooled education in rural Tanzania: The case of Karagwe. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, *8*(6), 568–587. https://doi.org/10.1080/13670050508669069

Williams, W. P. (2008). Students' perceptions of bullying after the fact: A qualitative study of college students' bullying experiences in their K-12 schooling. Thesis submitted for the Award of PhD Degree at the Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University: Virginia.

Wolgemuth, J., Erdil-moody, Z., Cross, J., & Opsal, T. (2014). Participants' experiences of the qualitative interview: Considering the importance of research paradigms. *Qualitative Research*, 1–22. https://doi.org/10.1177/1468794114524222

World Bank. (2010). Project performance assessment report Tanzania: Secondary education development program.

World Bank. (2017). Secondary Education Development Program II: Implementation Completion and Results.

Wozniak, K. (2020). Personalized learning for adults: An emerging andragogy. In *Emerging Technologies and Pedagogies in the Curriculum* (pp. 185–198). Springer, Singapore. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-981-15-0618-5_11

Wright, T. (2009). “Trainer development”: Professional development for language teacher educators. In A. Burns & J. Richard (Eds.), *The Cambridge Language Teacher Guide to Second Education*. Cambridge University Press, 102pp.

Wyse, D., Sugrue, C., Fentiman, A., & Moon, S. (2014). English language teaching and whole school professional development in Tanzania. *International Journal of Educational Development*, *38*, 59-68.

Xu, Y. (2009). School - based teacher development through a school – university collaborative project: A case study of a recent initiative in China School-based teacher development through a school – university collaborative project: a case study of a recent initiative. *Journal of Curriculum Studies*, *41*(1), 49–66. https://doi.org/10.1080/00220270802546740

Yan, C. (2012). “We can only change in a small way”: A study of secondary English teachers’ implementation of curriculum reform in China. *Journal of Educational Change*, *13*(4), 431–447. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10833-012-9186-1

Yan, C., & He, C. (2015). ‘Short courses shouldn’t be short-lived!’ Enhancing longer-term impact of short English as a foreign language INSET initiatives in China. *Professional Development in Education*, *41*(5), 759–776. https://doi.org/10.1080/19415257.2014.944671

Yang, W. (2019). Fundamental issues on in-service training among English foreign language teacher in colleges and universities. *1st International Education Technology and Research Conference (IETRC 2019) Fundamental*, *Ietrc*, 287–296. https://doi.org/10.25236/ietrc.2019.062

Yastibaş, A. E., & Kavgaci, T. (2020). Evaluating English for academic purposes II course through the CIPP model. *Gümüşhane Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Dergisi, 11*(1), 86-94.

Yirci, R., Durna, S., & Kocabas, I. (2021). The Current Status of In-Service Trainings for Teachers and Expectations: Do They Match? *International Online Journal of Education and Teaching*, 8(2), 762-777.

Yogi, M. (2017). Kiswahili or English: A Policy Analysis of Language Instruction in Tanzania. *Capstone Collection*, 1–34.

Yoo, J. H. (2016). The effect of professional development on teacher efficacy and teachers' self-analysis of their efficacy change. *Journal of Teacher Education for Sustainability*, *18*(1), 84–94. https://doi.org/10.1515/JTES-2016-0007

Yook, C., & Lee, Y. hun. (2016). Korean EFL teachers' perceptions of the impact of EFL teacher education upon their classroom teaching practices. *Asia-Pacific Journal of Teacher Education*, *44*(5), 522–536. https://doi.org/10.1080/1359866X.2016.1144171

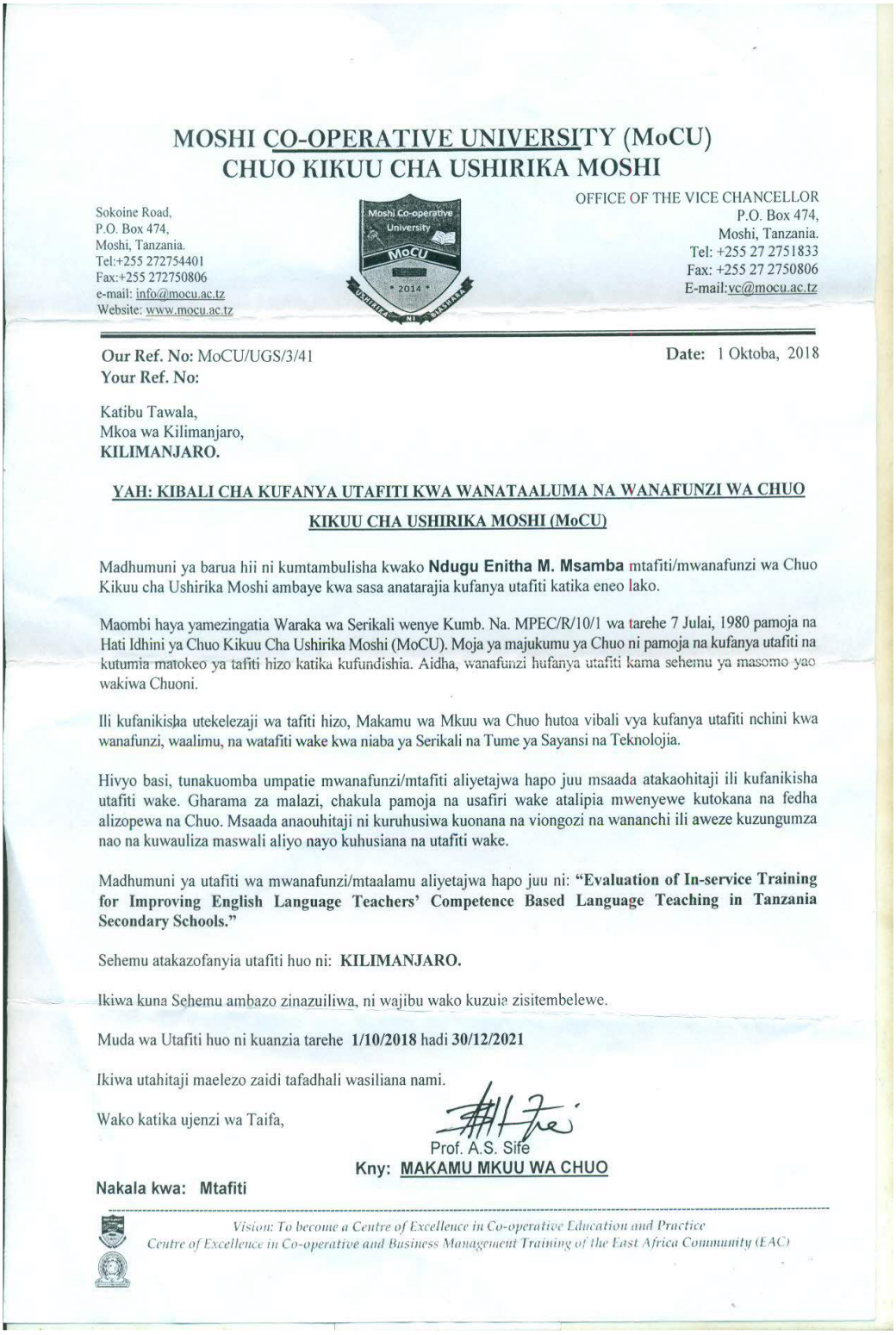
Yusuf, M. A. (2021). Adult Learning Principles a Strategy for Improving Instructional Delivery in Higher Institutions of Learning in Nigeria. *Asian Journal of Education and Social Studies*, *15*(1), 38–45. https://doi.org/10.9734/ajess/2021/v15i130369

Zein, S. (2016). Factors affecting the professional development of elementary English teachers. *Professional Development in Education*, *42*(3), 423–440. https://doi.org/10.1080/19415257.2015.1005243

Zengin, O. (2020). Mobile Technologies Course Design: The Use of ICT Skills, Attitudes, and Self-Efficacy in EFL Instructors. In *ICT-Based Assessment, Methods, and Programs in Tertiary Education*, 232-256. IGI Global.

# APPENDICES

## Appendix A: Research Clearance Letters



MOSHI CO-OPERATIVE UNIVERSITY (MoCU)
CHUO KIKUU CHA USHIRIKA MOSHI

Sokoine Road,
P.O. Box 474,
Moshi, Tanzania.
Tel:+255 272754401
Fax:+255 272750806
e-mail: info@mocu.ac.tz
Website: www.mocu.ac.tz

OFFICE OF THE VICE CHANCELLOR
P.O. Box 474,
Moshi, Tanzania.
Tel: +255 27 2751833
Fax: +255 27 2750806
E-mail:vc@mocu.ac.tz

**Our Ref. No:** MoCU/UGS/3/41
**Your Ref. No:**

**Date:** 1 Oktoba, 2018

Katibu Tawala,
Mkoa wa Kilimanjaro,
**KILIMANJARO.**

**YAH: KIBALI CHA KUFANYA UTAFITI KWA WANATAALUMA NA WANAFUNZI WA CHUO KIKUU CHA USHIRIKA MOSHI (MoCU)**

Madhumuni ya barua hii ni kumtambulisha kwako **Ndugu Enitha M. Msamba** mtafiti/mwanafunzi wa Chuo Kikuu cha Ushirika Moshi ambaye kwa sasa anatarajia kufanya utafiti katika eneo lako.

Maombi haya yamezingatia Waraka wa Serikali wenye Kumb. Na. MPEC/R/10/1 wa tarehe 7 Julai, 1980 pamoja na Hati Idhini ya Chuo Kikuu Cha Ushirika Moshi (MoCU). Moja ya majukumu ya Chuo ni pamoja na kufanya utafiti na kutumia matokeo ya tafiti hizo katika kufundishia. Aidha, wanafunzi hufanya utafiti kama sehemu ya masomo yao wakiwa Chuoni.

Ili kufanikisha utekelezaji wa tafiti hizo, Makamu wa Mkuu wa Chuo hutoa vibali vya kufanya utafiti nchini kwa wanafunzi, waalimu, na watafiti wake kwa niaba ya Serikali na Tume ya Sayansi na Teknolojia.

Hivyo basi, tunakuomba umpatie mwanafunzi/mtafiti aliyetajwa hapo juu msaada atakaohitaji ili kufanikisha utafiti wake. Gharama za malazi, chakula pamoja na usafiri wake atalipia mwenyewe kutokana na fedha alizopewa na Chuo. Msaada anaouhitaji ni kuruhusiwa kuonana na viongozi na wananchi ili aweze kuzungumza nao na kuwauliza maswali aliyo nayo kuhusiana na utafiti wake.

Madhumuni ya utafiti wa mwanafunzi/mtaalamu aliyetajwa hapo juu ni: **"Evaluation of In-service Training for Improving English Language Teachers' Competence Based Language Teaching in Tanzania Secondary Schools."**

Sehemu atakazofanyia utafiti huo ni: **KILIMANJARO.**

Ikiwa kuna Sehemu ambazo zinazuiliwa, ni wajibu wako kuzuia zisitembelewe.

Muda wa Utafiti huo ni kuanzia tarehe **1/10/2018** hadi **30/12/2021**

Ikiwa utahitaji maelezo zaidi tafadhali wasiliana nami.

Wako katika ujenzi wa Taifa,

Prof. A.S. Sife
**Kny: MAKAMU MKUU WA CHUO**

**Nakala kwa: Mtafiti**

*Vision: To become a Centre of Excellence in Co-operative Education and Practice*
*Centre of Excellence in Co-operative and Business Management Training of the East Africa Community (EAC)*

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

**MKOA WA KILIMANJARO**
Anuani ya simu **REGCOM KILIMANJARO**
Simu: 027-2754236/7-02752184
E-mail: ras@kilimanjaro.go.tz
ras.kilimanjaro@tamisemi.go.tz
Fax Na. 027-2753248- na 027-2751381
Unapojibu tafadhali taja

OFISI YA MKUU WA MKOA,
S.L.P. 3070,
**MOSHI**

Kumb. Na. FA.228/276/03/124 15 Oktoba, 2018

Katibu Tawala Wilaya,
**SIHA, HAI, MOSHI, ROMBO,**
**MWANGA** na **SAME**

Yah: **KIBALI CHA KUFANYA UTAFITI CHA BI ENITHA M. MSAMBA**

Tafadhali husika na mada tajwa hapo juu.

2. Mtajwa hapo juu ni mwanafunzi/mtafiti wa Chuo cha Ushirika Moshi (MoCU) ambaye ameomba kibali cha kufanya utafiti juu ya ***"Evaluation of In-service Training for Improving English Language Teachers' Competence Basel Language Teaching in Tanzania Secondary Schools".***

3. Kwa barua hii, nakujulisha kuwa kibali kimetolewa kwake kufanya utafiti huo kuanzia tarehe ***01/10/2018*** hadi ***30/09/2019.***

4. Tafadhali mpokeeni, na kumtambulisha katika maeneo husika na kumpa ushirikiano wa kutosha ili kufanikisha utafiti wake. Aidha, mwanafunzi huyu atahitajika kuzingatia sheria, kanuni na maadili ya kufanya utafiti katika kipindi chote cha utafiti wake.

Nashukuru kwa ushirikiano.

Bwai M. Biseko
Kny: **KATIBU TAWALA MKOA**
**KILIMANJARO**

kny. KATIBU TAWALA WA MKOA
KILIMANJARO

Nakala: Mkuu wa Chuo, (MoCU),
S.L.P. 474,
**MOSHI**

: Bi. Enitha M. Msamba,
Mtafiti,
**MoCU - MOSHI**

# MOSHI CO-OPERATIVE UNIVERSITY (MoCU)
# CHUO KIKUU CHA USHIRIKA MOSHI

Sokoine Road,
P.O. Box 474,
Moshi, Tanzania.
Tel:+255 272754401
Fax:+255 272750806
e-mail: info@mocu.ac.tz
Website: www.mocu.ac.tz

OFFICE OF THE VICE CHANCELLOR
P.O. Box 474,
Moshi, Tanzania.
Tel: +255 27 2751833
Fax: +255 27 2750806
E-mail:vc@mocu.ac.tz

Our Ref. No: MoCU/UGS/3/41 Date: 29 Oktoba, 2018
Your Ref. No:

Katibu Tawala,
Mkoa wa Manyara,
MANYARA.

**YAH: KIBALI CHA KUFANYA UTAFITI KWA WANATAALUMA NA WANAFUNZI WA CHUO KIKUU CHA USHIRIKA MOSHI (MoCU)**

Madhumuni ya barua hii ni kumtambulisha kwako **Ndugu Enitha M. Msamba** mtafiti/mwanafunzi wa Chuo Kikuu cha Ushirika Moshi ambaye kwa sasa anatarajia kufanya utafiti katika eneo lako.

Maombi haya yamezingatia Waraka wa Serikali wenye Kumb. Na. MPEC/R/10/1 wa tarehe 7 Julai, 1980 pamoja na Hati Idhini ya Chuo Kikuu Cha Ushirika Moshi (MoCU). Moja ya majukumu ya Chuo ni pamoja na kufanya utafiti na kutumia matokeo ya tafiti hizo katika kufundishia. Aidha, wanafunzi hufanya utafiti kama sehemu ya masomo yao wakiwa Chuoni.

Ili kufanikisha utekelezaji wa tafiti hizo, Makamu wa Mkuu wa Chuo hutoa vibali vya kufanya utafiti nchini kwa wanafunzi, waalimu, na watafiti wake kwa niaba ya Serikali na Tume ya Sayansi na Teknolojia.

Hivyo basi, tunakuomba umpatie mwanafunzi/mtafiti aliyetajwa hapo juu msaada atakaohitaji ili kufanikisha utafiti wake. Gharama za malazi, chakula pamoja na usafiri wake atalipia mwenyewe kutokana na fedha alizopewa na Chuo. Msaada anaouhitaji ni kuruhusiwa kuonana na viongozi na wananchi ili aweze kuzungumza nao na kuwauliza maswali aliyo nayo kuhusiana na utafiti wake.

Madhumuni ya utafiti wa mwanafunzi/mtaalamu aliyetajwa hapo juu ni: **"Evaluation of In-service Training for Improving English Language Teachers' Competence Based Language Teaching in Tanzania."**

Sehemu atakazofanyia utafiti huo ni: **MANYARA.**

Ikiwa kuna Sehemu ambazo zinazuiliwa, ni wajibu wako kuzuia zisitembelewe.

Muda wa Utafiti huo ni kuanzia tarehe **1/10/2018** hadi **30/10/2019**

Ikiwa utahitaji maelezo zaidi tafadhali wasiliana nami.

Wako katika ujenzi wa Taifa,

Prof. F.K. Bee
**MAKAMU MKUU WA CHUO**

**Nakala kwa: Mtafiti**

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

Simu Na: 027-2510066,
027-2510075,
027-2510060,
Fax Na: 027-2530294.
E-mail: rasmanyara@manyara.go.tz
Website:www.manyara.go.tz

Ofisi ya Mkuu wa Mkoa,
Mkoa wa Manyara,
S.L.P. 310,
BABATI.

HALMASHAURI YA MJI BABATI
IMEPOKELEWA
TAR 05/11/2018
S. L. P. 383 BABATI

Unapojibutafadhalitaja: -
Kumb. Na.FA. 262/347/01"I"/42

05 Novemba, 2018

**Wakurugenzi watendaji/ Miji,**
Mamlaka za Serikali za Mitaa.
**Mkoa wa Manyara.**

**YAH: KIBALI CHA KUFANYA UTAFITI KWA WANATAALUMA NA MWANAFUNZI WA CHUO KIKUU CHA USHIRIKA MOSHI (MoCU)**

Tafadhali rejea kichwa cha somo tajwa hapo juu.

Ofisi ya Mkuu wa Mkoa imepokea barua yenye Kumb. Na. MoCU/UGS/3/41 ya tarehe 29 Oktoba, 2018 na somo tajwa hapo juu kutoka Chuo Kikuu cha Ushirika Moshi (MoCU).

Madhumuni ya barua hiyo ni kumtambulisha kwetu Ndugu Enitha M. Msamba mtafiti/mwanafunzi wa Chuo Kikuu cha Ushirika Moshi ambaye kwa sasa anatarajia kufanya utafiti katika Mkoa wetu.

Kwa barua hii mnaombwa kutoa ushirikiano wa kutosha kwa mtafiti tajwa hapo juu ili aweze kufanikisha zoezi hilo la kufanya utafiti kipindi atakachokuwa katika maeneo yenu. Madhumuni ya utafiti wa mwanafunzi/mtaalamu aliye tajwa hapo juu ni *"Evaluation of in-service Training for Improving English Language Teachers' Competence Based Language ni Tanzania".* Gharama za malazi, chakula pamoja na usafiri wake atalipia mwenyewe kutokana na fedha alizopewa na Chuo.

Msada anaohitaji ni kuruhusiwa kuonana na viongozi na wananchi ili aweze kuzungumza nao na kuwauliza maswali aliyonayo kuhusiana na utafiti wake. Muda wa utafiti ni kuanzia tarehe 1 Oktoba, 2018 hadi tarehe 30 Oktoba, 2019.

Nawatakia utekelezaji mwema.

Ally S. Mokiwa
**Kny: KATIBU TAWALA (M)**

Nakala: Makatibu Tawala (W)
**Mkoa wa Manyara**

Mtafiti, (**Enitha M. Msamba**)

**Appendix B: Participant Letter and Consent Form**

To: Trainers, trainees, education officers, regional INSET co-ordinators and heads of schools at regional level

From: Enitha Michael Msamba

Re: Request to a respondent in the study titled "Evaluating the effectiveness of the in-service training for English foreign language teachers in Tanzania"

Dear,

My name is Enitha Michael Msamba, a PhD student at Moshi Co-operative University with registration HD/T/SUA/MoCU/013/2016. I am collecting data to Evaluate the effectiveness of the in-service training for English foreign language teachers in Tanzania**.** In particular, the study intends to evaluate the effectiveness INSET context, resources, implementation, and its impact on trainees' knowledge. I request that you participate in the study, re-live and share your experience of the training for its improvement.

As a respondent, you are requested to:

a) Take part in a face-to-face interview, which will be audio recorded.
b) Take part in classroom observation of the topic of your choice, which will also be audio recorded.
c) Share documents, especially scheme and lesson plan before and after the training, INSET, journal, invitation letter etc.

The data collected will only be used for thesis writing and will also be published or presented in professional meetings. However, your identity and any incriminating information will be removed. In place of names, pseudonyms will be used instead. Feel free to contact me if you have any additional information regarding the study. Please sign below if you agree to take part in the study.

**Sincerely**

---

Enitha Michael Msamba

Doctoral Candidate, Moshi Co-operative University

Phone: …… Email: …….

**Consent Form**

By signature, I affirm that having read and understood the above information, I hereby agree to participate in the study as a research participant.

I understand that in all accounts of my interview, pseudonyms will be used. I also understand interviews and lesson observations will be recorded, and the recorded information will be restricted to the researcher only.

Signature : ----------

Participant name : ----------

Date : ----------

## Appendix C: Data Collection Instrument

### I. Trainees interview guide

Part A: Respondent's background information

- Who are you? (Name, school, academic qualification and teaching subjects)
- For how long have you been a teacher?
- During college/university, what subject did you major in?
- For how long have you been teaching an English language subject?
- Is there any other subject that you teach besides English?

### PART B: Questions relating to the study objectives

### C.1 In-service training planning/designing

a) How did you know about the INSET?
b) How were you selected to attend it?
c) Were you given enough time to prepare before attending it?
d) Were you asked about your needs before the INSET was conducted?
e) To what extent did the INSET objectives reflect your need? If not, what objectives could have been added?
f) Were the course objectives clear and understandable?
g) Did you cover all the objectives during training? If not, what were the barriers?

### C.2. In-service training resources

### C.2.1. The overall training environment

a) How did you find the training centre?
b) Was the classroom environment conducive to learning?
c) Was it big enough to accommodate all the participants?
d) Were chairs and tables comfortable?
e) Were the rooms equipped with up-to-date technological devices like projectors, computers, etc.?
f) Did it have a well-equipped library with up-to-date reference materials?
g) Did it have proper facilities for meals and accommodation?

**C.2.2. Training time and duration**

a) When was the training conducted?
b) How long did it last?
c) Was the time well spent?
d) Was the chosen time convenient for you?
e) Was the training duration sufficient to cover all INSET objectives?
f) Were you provided with time to practise the change?

**C.2.3 INSET funding and incentive**

a) Who funded the training?
b) Were you supported to attend the training? If yes, how? By whom?
c) Were incentives sufficient to sustain you for all training days?

**C.3.2 INSET material and facilities**

a) What materials were available during the training?
b) Were they adequate?
c) Were they relevant to the course content?
d) Did you use technological facilities for learning?
e) Were there any challenges related to the material given during the INSET?

**C.3 Evaluation of training implementation**

**C.3.1 Content of the programme**

a) Was the content of the INSET relevant to the INSET objectives?
b) Was it manageable for the allocated time?
c) Was the content fixed or negotiated?
d) Was it coherent to day-to-day English language teaching activities and your experience?
e) Were you satisfied with the content? If not, what are the topics or skills that you feel you need more?

**C3.3 Training methodology**

a) Can you take me through a typical class session? What did you do from morning to evening?
b) What teaching methods were used during learning?

c) Was there facilitator-trainee interaction or trainees-trainee interaction?

**C.3.4 Instructors' quality**

What can you comment on the quality of instructors in terms of the following:

a) Mastery of the subject matter,
b) Value trainees' ideas,
c) Ability to use technological devices for facilitation,
d) Punctuality,
e) Time management,
f) Ability to provide feedback,
g) Interpersonal communication skills,
h) The link between theory and practice etc.

**C.3.5 Assessment**

a) Were you assessed after and after the training? If yes, how?
b) Was the assessment based on what you covered during the training?
c) Did you have a chance to micro-teaching?
d) Generally, what motivated or hindered your learning during INSET delivery?

**C.4: INSET impact on EFL teachers' knowledge**

1. What were your most significant change stories in the following areas?
    a) Understanding of the 2005 English language syllabus and its features
    b) Scheme of work and lesson plans
    c) Listening skills
    d) Speaking skills
    e) Reading skills
    f) Writing skills
    g) Forms and function; and
    h) Organisation and management of the classroom
2. Is there anything else you have gained beyond the scope of the INSET objectives?

**Interview Guide for Heads of School**

1) Kindly introduce yourself (Name, teaching subject, level of education)
2) For how long have you been the head of school?
3) How were you involved in the INSET, which was done for English language teachers?
4) Were you trained on a competence-based curriculum along with your teachers?
5) Was your school involved in teachers' need identification?
6) How does your school support teachers to attend INSET?
7) Are there any follow-up procedures to ensure teachers implement what they learned in in-service training?
8) Is there anything you want to comment on regarding training EFL teachers on competency-based English language teaching?
9) Considering the number of trainees, duration of the training and other efforts invested in bringing the programme to life, do you think the project was worthwhile? Why and why not?

**Interview Guide for Regional Facilitators**

1. Who are you? (Name, school, academic qualification, Teaching subject)
2. For how long have you been a teacher?
3. During college/university, what subject did you major in?
4. For how long have you been teaching the English language?
5. Is there any other subject that you teach besides English?
6. For how long have you been an EFL teacher trainer?
7. How did the INSET start?
8. How were you selected as an instructor for the training?
9. Were you trained? If yes, by whom? For how long?
10. What was the content for the training?
11. How long were you trained?
12. How often did you facilitate training before the actual training?
13. Besides training, what was your role in designing the INSET?
14. Since the NSET module was already in place, did you analyse the content to see if it matches the needs of EFL teachers in the region? If yes, were there any adjustments made? If not, why?
15. How did you find the level of trainees' engagement during the lesson?
16. Did you conduct follow-ups to see if trainees are implementing ideas gained and assisting them where there is a challenge? If yes, how? If not, why?
17. Do you think the program, in general, was beneficial for the trainees?
18. Related to your insights, are there any areas where the programme could be improved?
19. Considering the number of trainees, duration of the training and other efforts invested in bringing the programme to life, do you think the project was worthwhile? Why and why not?

**Interview Guide for INSET Coordinators/Regional, District and Education Officers/School Inspectors/Quality Assurers**

1) Kindly introduce yourself.
2) How was the INSET initiated?
3) How were you involved in designing and implementing the INSET?
4) Did you need identification? If yes, how? If not, why?
5) What criteria were for selecting schools and teachers to participate in the INSET?
6) Since the INSET module was already in place, did you analyse the content to see if it matches the needs of EFL teachers in the region? If yes, were there any adjustments made? If not, why?
7) Were you also trained on a competency-based curriculum?
8) Did you conduct follow-ups to see if trainees are implementing ideas gained and assisting them where there is a challenge? If yes, how? If not, why?
9) Just like any other project, there are strengths and weaknesses. About the INSET, what were they?
10) Considering the number of trainees, duration of the training and other effort invested in bringing the programme to life, do you think the project was worthwhile? Why and why not?

## Appendix D: Tables

**Table 1: Responsible organs for TCPD in Tanzania**

| Category | Actor | Role |
|---|---|---|
| National | Permanent Secretary- Ministry of Education, Science and Technology (MoEST) | ▪ Develop policies, guidelines, rules and regulations to foster quality TCPD programmes.<br>▪ Set standards or teachers' competencies.<br>▪ Identify and plan for TCPD programme interventions.<br>▪ Approve TCPD programmes and service providers.<br>▪ Maintain data and information of TCPD providers.<br>▪ Coordinate and regulate TCPD provision through a Teacher Education Unit.<br>▪ Provide necessary resources/Finance TCPD programmes and implementation plans.<br>▪ Collaborate with PO-RALG to carry out Monitoring and Evaluation of TCPD programmes.<br>▪ Review TCPD Priorities and develop programmes for teachers.<br>▪ Assess the CPD programme and award recognition.<br>▪ Prepare and disseminate TCPD national reports |
| | Permanent Secretary -President's Office – Regional Administration and Local Government (PO-RALG) | ▪ Approve national TCPD priorities.<br>▪ Collaborate with the MoEST in TCPD implementation.<br>▪ Plan and finance TCPD interventions and<br>▪ Collaborate with MoEST to supervise and monitor TCPD implementation at all levels. |
| | Tanzania Institute of Education (TIE) | ▪ Develop, review and approve resource materials for TCPD.<br>▪ Orient developed TCPD materials to the facilitators; and<br>▪ Prepare and disseminate TCPD reports. |
| Regional | Regional Administrative Secretary (RAS) /Regional Education Officer | ▪ Coordinate Regional TCPD Priorities.<br>▪ Supervise and monitor Regional TCPD activities.<br>▪ Report to MoEST and PO-RALG on TCPD implementation. |
| District/ Council | District Executive Director<br>District Education Officer - | ▪ Identify District TCPD priorities.<br>▪ Supervise, Coordinate and monitor district, ward/clusters and school TCPD activities.<br>▪ Supervise TCPD Cluster formation.<br>▪ Create awareness and promote inclusive and diverse education in all schools.<br>▪ Plan and finance TCPD programmes; and |

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| | | ▪ Report to RAS on TCPD implementation, achievement and challenges. |
| Zonal and Regional/ District School Quality Assurance | Zonal and District School Quality Assurance Officer | ▪ Ensure the quality of TCPD sessions at all levels.<br>▪ Supervise and monitor teachers in Zonal and District level TCPD.<br>▪ Conduct Regional/ District TCPD impact assessment.<br>▪ Ensure the promotion of inclusive and diversity education in all schools.<br>▪ Report to MoEST on the provision of quality TCPD, achievement and challenges. |
| Teacher College/ Universities | College Principal | ▪ Determine TCPD needs in collaboration with District Councils and the TEP Coordinator.<br>▪ Collaborate with District Councils in the planning and provision of TCPD.<br>▪ Monitor the provision of TCPD at the District Council and provide technical support.<br>▪ Coordinate research and publication of educational materials through TEP.<br>▪ Coordinate preparation of annual TCPD plan; and<br>▪ Prepare and keep records for TCPD-implemented activities |
| Ward / Cluster | Ward Education Officer and Teaching Resource Center (TRC) Coordinator / Cluster coordinator | ▪ Determine TCPD needs in collaboration with Heads of School.<br>▪ Supervise the formulation of a subject team for TCPD.<br>▪ Plan and support the wards/clusters and schools in collaboration with the Head of Schools for TCPD activities.<br>▪ Ensure the efficiency of collaborative school sessions.<br>▪ Ensure a conducive and supportive environment for collaborative sessions in schools.<br>▪ Create awareness and promote inclusive and diverse education in all schools.<br>▪ Supervise, monitor and document learning experiences, gaps and challenges for TCPD activities.<br>▪ Ward and Cluster level Participate in the leadership of collaborative sessions at the district level.<br>▪ Ensure all schools have annual TCPD plans.<br>▪ Monitor and evaluate TCPD activities.<br>▪ Collect data about TCPD activities at the ward/cluster level.<br>▪ Report to DED on TCPD implementation. |
| School | Head of School | ▪ Identify TCPD needs at the school.<br>▪ Integrate TCPD activities into the whole school development plan. |

| | |
|---|---|
| | ▪ Ensure a conducive and supportive environment for collaborative sessions.<br>▪ Facilitate and coordinate inter-school collaborative sessions at the ward/cluster level.<br>▪ Facilitate, observe, mentor and support teacher development activities at school.<br>▪ Create awareness and ensure inclusive and diverse education at the school level.<br>▪ Participate in leadership sessions for TCPD at ward/cluster, district level.<br>▪ Report to WEO on TCPD implementation. |

Source: URT, (2020)

**Table 4: Respondents demographic characteristics**

| Name | Type of school | Gender | District | Education Level | Subject Majored | Working experience |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| T1K | Public | Female | D1K | Master Degree | Environment Eng. (Master Degree) Geography; Literature (Bachelor Degree) English (Diploma) | 12 years |
| T2K | Public | Male | D2K | Bachelor Degree | English; Kiswahili | 9years |
| T3K | Public | Female | D5K | Diploma | Kiswahili; English | 33years |
| T4K | Public | Female | D3K | Bachelor Degree | Linguistics; Geography | 4years |
| T5K | Public | Male | D1K | Diploma | Geography; English | 6years |
| T6K | Public | Female | D5K | Bachelor Degree | English | 9years |
| T7K | Public | Male | D3K | Bachelor Degree | English; Geography | 3years |
| T8K | Public | Female | D4K | Bachelor Degree | Linguistics; Literature | 3years |
| T9K | Public | Male | D6K | Bachelor Degree | English; History | 4years |
| T10K | Public | Female | D3K | Bachelor Degree | English; Geography (Diploma) Geography (Degree) | 17years |
| T11K | Public | Female | D4K | Bachelor Degree | English Geography (Diploma) English; Literature (Degree) | 11yeras |
| T12K | Public | Male | D4K | Bachelor Degree | Kiswahili; English | 3years |
| T13K | Public | Male | D4K | Bachelor Degree | Linguistics, Geography | 9years |
| T1M | Public | Male | D3M | Bachelor Degree | English | 5yers |
| T2M | Public | Female | D1M | Bachelor Degree | Kiswahili; English | 12years |

| | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| T3M | Public | Male | D1M | Bachelor Degree | English; History | 14yers |
| T4M | Public | Male | D3M | Bachelor Degree | English; Geography | 5years |
| T5M | Public | Female | D2M | Bachelor Degree | English; Kiswahili | 6years |
| T6M | Public | Male | D2M | Master Degree | English; Literature (Bachelor Degree) Ed. Planning (Master Degree) | 6years |
| T7M | Public | Male | D1M | Bachelor Degree | English; History | 11years |
| T8M | Public | Male | D1M | Advanced Diploma | English | 6years |
| F1K | Public | Female | D3K | Bachelor Degree | English Geography | 17 years |
| F1M | Public | Female | D1K | Bachelor Degree | English History | 12 years |
| HoS1K | Public | Male | D4K | Bachelor Degree | - | - |
| HoS2K | Public | Female | D4K | Bachelor Degree | - | - |
| HoS3K | Public | Male | D3K | Bachelor Degree | - | - |
| HoS4K | Public | Male | D3K | Bachelor Degree | - | - |
| HoS1M | Public | Male | DM2 | Bachelor Degree | - | - |
| HoS2M | Public | Male | D1M | Bachelor Degree | - | - |
| HoS3M | Public | Male | D1M | Bachelor Degree | - | - |
| Co1K | Public | Male | D5K | Bachelor Degree | - | - |
| EOK1 | - | Female | D1K | Bachelor Degree | - | - |
| EOK2 | - | Male | D2K | Bachelor Degree | - | - |
| Co1M | Male | Male | D2M | Bachelor Degree | - | - |

**Table 5: Codes-quotations list for training context**

| Codes-quotations list | Sub-theme | Main theme |
|---|---|---|
| I was not asked my need {13-0} | Need assessment | |
| Need assessment at school {1-0} | | |
| Training plan at school {1-0} | | |
| Need assessment at district {4-0} | | |
| Course objectives were clear {7-0} | Objective relevance | |
| We covered all objective {3-0} | | |
| There was nothing new {2-0} | | |
| Objective partially covered {1-0} | | |
| Objective partially matched my need {2-0} | | |
| Training/objective relevance {25-0} | | |
| Advanced diploma {1-0} | Respondents' features | |
| Degree {13-0} | | |
| Diploma {3-0} | | In-service training context |
| Master {2-0} | | |
| Male {12-0} | | |
| Female {10-0} | | |
| Major {20-0} | | |
| Criteria for selecting trainees {8-0} | | |
| Why someplace had a lot of representatives{2-0} | | |
| The training t was very useful {1-0} | Training relevance | |
| The training was very good {3-0} | | |
| Training appraisal {8-0} | | |
| Training evolution {2-0} | | |
| Given time to prepared {1-0} | Training marketing | |
| Received a call {9-0} | | |
| Selected by Head of School {9-0} | | |
| I arrived late {8-1} | | |
| I just received a letter {12-0} | | |
| Nominated {4-0} | | |
| Knowledge sharing {32-0} | Cascading plans | |
| Sharing time {2-0} | | |
| Sharing challenge {15-0} | | |
| Head of school support {9-0} | | |
| Head teachers' involvement in training {9-0} | | |

**Table 6: Codes-quotations list for training resources**

| Codes-quotations list | Sub-themes | Main them |
|---|---|---|
| Classrooms were not clean {1-0} | Training Centre | |
| Distance of the training centre {2-0} | | |
| Location of the training centre-peripheral {1-0} | | |
| Need for ICT facility {3-0} | | |
| No power source in classrooms {1-0} | | |
| No syllabus and reference books {1-0} | | |
| No water throughout {1-0} | | |
| The training place was not bad {14-0} | | |
| There are other good places we could go {1-0} | | Training resources |
| We were less than 40 {4-0} | | |
| Chairs were normal {4-0} | | |
| Accommodation {20-0} | Training Logistics | |
| Food {23-0} | | |
| Trainees allowance {22-0} | | |
| Training funding {1-0} | | |
| Allowance challenge {4-0} | | |
| Materials were not enough {16-0} | Material and Facilities | |
| Mostly we used flipchart {15-0} | | |
| No library, ICT facility {22-0} | | |
| There was no projector. {17-0} | | |
| Tomorrow come with *Choroko* {1-0} | | |
| Duration {9-0} | Duration and Time | |
| Duration vs Content {12-0} | | |
| Time {20-1} | | |

**Table 7: Codes-quotations list for training implementation**

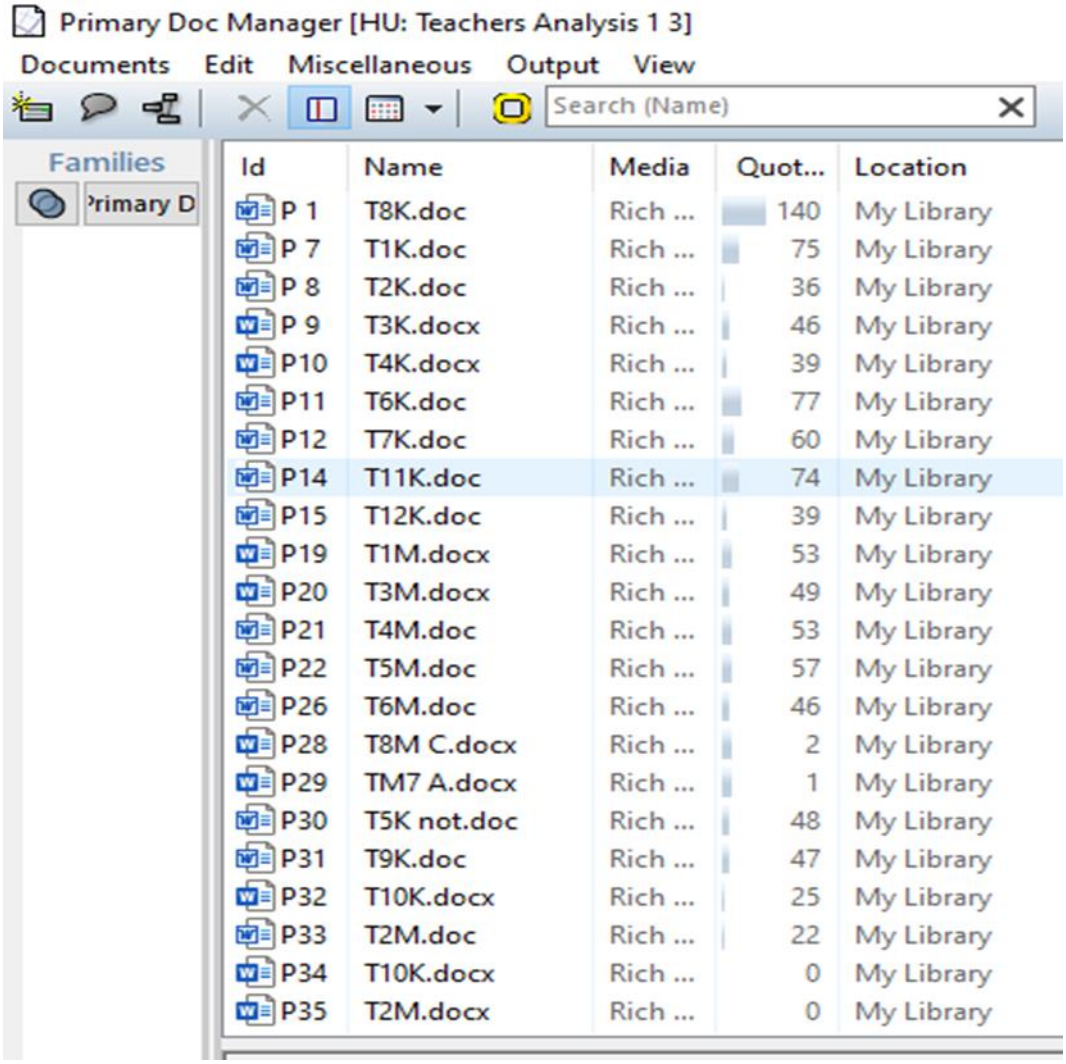
| Codes-quotations list | Sub-themes | Main theme |
|---|---|---|
| A lot more needed to be learned {12-0} | Content of the training | |
| Content flexibility {14-0} | | |
| Content repetition {1-0} | | |
| The content was good but needed more {21-0 | | Training implementation |
| The link between theory and practice {12-0} | | |
| Technological pedagogical content {5-0} | | |
| Interaction and feedback during learning {2-0} | Teaching methodology | |
| Microteaching {3-0} | | |
| Teaching method {32-0} | | |
| Facilitator not well prepared {18-0} | Trainers' ability to facilitate | |
| Facilitators were competent {12-0} | | |
| They valued prior knowledge {6-0} | | |

**Table 8: Codes-quotations list for training impact on learning**

| Codes-quotations list | Category /Family | Theme |
|---|---|---|
| 2-3 students who have speaking skills {2-0} | Classroom management | General pedagogical knowledge |
| Classroom management {2-0} | | |
| Not controlling the class {2-0} | | |
| Not related {1-0} | | |
| Silent class {1-0} | | |
| Teaching aid {3-0} | | |
| We don't beat students {2-0} | | |
| Allocating time {7-0} | Format for a scheme of work | General pedagogical knowledge |
| Competence {10-0} | | |
| Scheme of work {2-0} | | |
| Scheme of work and lesson plan {2-0} | | |
| Teachers' activities {2-0} | | |
| Allocating time {7-0} | Format of lesson plan | General pedagogical knowledge |
| Competence {10-0} | | |
| Consolidation {3-0} | | |
| Did not understand ...remark {5-0} | | |
| Format of the lesson plan {10-0} | | |
| Introduction {2-0} | | |
| New knowledge {1-0} | | |
| Objective {4-0} | | |
| Pupil evaluation {15-0} | | |
| Reference book as teaching aid {2-0} | | |
| Reflection {3-0} | | |
| Reinforcement {1-0} | | |
| Specific objective {4-0} | | |
| Teacher evaluation {4-0} | | |
| Teaching aid {3-0} | | |
| Writing assessment {2-0} | | |
| Consider learners knowledge {2-0} | Structure and organisation of the 2005 syllabus | Pedagogical content knowledge |
| Letter {1-0} | | |
| New knowledge {1-0} | | |
| Not applicable {2-0} | | |
| Now we do like how the syllabus {3-0} | | |
| Prepare notes {1-0} | | |
| Reading skills and sub-skills {3-0} | | |
| Student can advise on method {7-0} | | |
| Supervisor {5-0} | | |
| Teaching method {13-0} | | |
| Four skills {2-0} | Four skills and grammar | Subject/academic content knowledge |
| Grammar {2-0} | | |
| Reading skills and sub-skills {6-0} | | |
| Teach listening {3-0} | | |
| Writing {2-0} | | |

**Appendix E: Extracts from the Data Analysis Process**

**Extract 1: Part of the documents uploaded into ATLAS.ti for the coding**




| Id | Name | Media | Quot... | Location |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| P 1 | T8K.doc | Rich ... | 140 | My Library |
| P 7 | T1K.doc | Rich ... | 75 | My Library |
| P 8 | T2K.doc | Rich ... | 36 | My Library |
| P 9 | T3K.docx | Rich ... | 46 | My Library |
| P10 | T4K.docx | Rich ... | 39 | My Library |
| P11 | T6K.doc | Rich ... | 77 | My Library |
| P12 | T7K.doc | Rich ... | 60 | My Library |
| P14 | T11K.doc | Rich ... | 74 | My Library |
| P15 | T12K.doc | Rich ... | 39 | My Library |
| P19 | T1M.docx | Rich ... | 53 | My Library |
| P20 | T3M.docx | Rich ... | 49 | My Library |
| P21 | T4M.doc | Rich ... | 53 | My Library |
| P22 | T5M.doc | Rich ... | 57 | My Library |
| P26 | T6M.doc | Rich ... | 46 | My Library |
| P28 | T8M C.docx | Rich ... | 2 | My Library |
| P29 | TM7 A.docx | Rich ... | 1 | My Library |
| P30 | T5K not.doc | Rich ... | 48 | My Library |
| P31 | T9K.doc | Rich ... | 47 | My Library |
| P32 | T10K.docx | Rich ... | 25 | My Library |
| P33 | T2M.doc | Rich ... | 22 | My Library |
| P34 | T10K.docx | Rich ... | 0 | My Library |
| P35 | T2M.docx | Rich ... | 0 | My Library |

## Appendix F: Published Manuscript