TEACHER PARTICIPATION IN CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT PROCESS: VIEWS OF TEACHERS FROM SELECTED PRIMARY SCHOOLS IN MWANZA CITY

WILFORD CHALE

A DISSERTATION SUBMITTED IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE OF MASTER OF EDUCATION (ARTS) IN CURRICULUM DESIGN AND DEVELOPMENT OF THE OPEN

UNIVERSITY OF TANZANIA

2018

CERTIFICATION

The undersigned certifies that he has read and hereby recommends for acceptance by the Open University of Tanzania a dissertation entitled," *Teacher Participation in Curriculum Development Process: Views of Teachers from Selected Primary Schools in Mwanza City*" in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Education (Arts) in Curriculum Design and Development of the Open University of Tanzania.



Dr. Mushi, P. S. D (Supervisor)

.....

Date

COPYRIGHT

No part of this dissertation may be reproduced, stored in any retrieval system, or transmitted in any form by any means, electronic, mechanical, photocopying, recording or otherwise without prior written permission of the author or the Open University of Tanzania in that behalf.

DECLARATION

I, **Wilford Chale**, do hereby declare that this dissertation is my original work and that it has not been presented and will not be presented to any other university for a similar or any other degree award.

.....

Signature

.....

Date

DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to my parents, Mr. and Mrs. Bernard Wilford Chale who laid a strong foundation in my education that inspired me to get through this higher studies also to my Wife Glory Sechali and our beloved children for their prayers, encouragement and motivation that signify their contribution to this successful completion of this work, May the Almighty God be with them.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

The completion of this dissertation is a product of considerable support rendered by some individuals, which is my pleasure to acknowledge. Primarily I thank the Almighty God for this charitable life and the strength throughout my studies to him is the Glory. I wish to express my profound gratitude to my supervisor, Dr. Mushi, P.S.D for unwavering support in expertise, mentorship and guidance throughout this journey. I say thank you for believing in me that I can handle to travel safely and reach the Masters' degree destination.

Sincere appreciation goes to the heads of the Technical Colleges, Primary Schools, Teachers, and Students from sampled schools expressly teachers who, willingly participated in this study that enabled to attain the vital information. I also thank my employer the National Council for Technical Education (NACTE) for the Financial and Material support, and also the permit to attend the MED (Arts) in Curriculum Design and Development programme.

Awesome thanks are granted to my wife Glory and my children Neema, Baraka, Nuru, Loveness, Ibrahim and Giana. They diligently provided Moral and Material support, incessant and tireless efforts encouraged and keyed up to the completion of this study. Special thanks should also go to my beloved parents, sisters, brothers and other relatives for their support and prayers during my studies. Without excluding my gratitude to all members of the Department of Education, Lectures and Colleagues of MED (Arts) CDD enrolled in Academic Year 2016/2017 for their advice and prop up which was very significant in the deed of this study. I ought to declare that in case of shortfalls in this dissertation, I remain sorely responsible and accountable.

ABSTRACT

Teachers' participation in curriculum development process is a contentious issue worldwide despite including Africa and Tanzania despite a recognition of their importance. The lack of expertise and clear framework for participation seem to dominant huddles. This study adopted a cross-sectional design using questionnaire and interview to collect data. A total number of 318 teachers from 20 regions of Tanzania were sampled using convenient sampling techniques. Analysis of the findings using descriptive statistics and thematic analysis revealed that, curriculum content did not reflect learning objectives due to poor participation of teachers on curriculum design and evaluation. Educational guides on the other hand do not include a policy that obliges involvement of teachers in curriculum review or change process. Moreover, level of participation of teachers on curriculum development was revealed very low as they were only involved in implementation process and in curriculum capacity building programs. However, the capacity building programs were perceived not effective due to time, resource, and budget constraints thus they do not accommodate efficient number of participants. The study conclude that, it is evidently teachers are not involved in curriculum review and change process rather implementation stage. In addition, curriculum capacity building programs are not effective since they do not involve adequate number of participants with regard to available population of teachers. Consequently, the study recommends government and curriculum developers to review educational guides policies on involvement of stakeholders particularly teachers in the curriculum development process. Further, changes of the current hierarchical structure of curriculum should be taken into account in accordance to the proposed structure.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

CERTIFICATIONii
COPYRIGHTiii
DECLARATION iv
DEDICATIONv
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTvi
ABSTRACT vii
LIST OF TABLES xiv
LIST OF FIGURES xv
LIST OF APPENDICES xvi
LIST OF ABBREVIATION xvii
CHAPTER ONE 1
THE PROBLEM AND ITS CONTEXT 1
1.1 Introduction 1
1.2 Background of the Problem
1.2.1 Teacher Participation: Importance and Demands from Globalisation of
Curriculum
1.2.2 The Nexus of the Teacher as a Curricular Training Eexpert
1.2.3 Argument for Teacher Participation on Curriculum Development Process 8
1.2.4 Teachers as Managers in Curriculum Execution
1.2.5 Teachers as Decision Markers 11
1.2.6 Teachers as Curriculum Technocrats 11
1.2.7 Teachers as Professional Autonomous Body 12
1.2.8 Advocates for and Challenges for Teacher Participation

1.2.9	Challenges on Teachers Participation 14			
1.2.1	0 Responses on Teacher Participation Gaps 20			
1.3	Statement of the Problem			
1.4	Objectives of the Study			
1.4.1	General Objective			
1.4.2	Specific Objectives			
1.4.3	1.4.3 Research Questions			
1.5	5 Significance of the Study			
СНА	PTER TWO			
LITH	ERATURE REVIEW			
2.1	Introduction			
2.2	Theoretical Literature			
2.2.1	Definition of Curriculum			
2.2.2	Definition of Curriculum Development			
2.2.3	UNESCO-IBE Definition of Curriculum Development			
2.2.4	Globalization and Curriculum Re-Definition and Reforms			
2.3	Learning Theories			
2.3.1	Theoretical Background in Curriculum Development			
2.3.2	Theories Related to the Study			
2.3.3	Behaviorism Theory			
2.3.4	Socio-Cultural Learning Theories			
2.3.5	Constructive Alignment Theories			
2.4	Ideological and Political Underpinnings			
2.4.1	The Teacher-Government Tensions and Participation Process in Britain 37			

2.4.2	Teacher Participation in the Sub-Saharan Africa Countries
2.4.3	South Africa and the Doubt to Listen to Teacher Voices
2.4.4	Ghana and the Curriculum Planner – Teacher Gap 44
2.4.5	The Case of Burn-out Teachers in Zimbabwe
2.4.6	The Botswana Teachers and Skewed Decision Making
2.4.7	The Marginalized-Isolated Science Teachers in Nigeria
2.4.8	The Center-Periphery Gap and Decimal Teacher Participation
	in Kenya
2.4.9	The Unpredictable Form of Teacher Input in Tanzania Curriculum
	Reforms
2.4.10	A Broad Teachers Participation Across Countries from Bennet
2.4.11	Curriculum Innovation in Malaysia and the Consultant – Actors Gap 55
2.4.12	Curriculum Innovation in Malaysia and the Consultant – Actors Gap 55
2.4.13	Rwanda TVET Project Exemplar for Teacher Participation
2.4.14	Emerging Patterns of Teacher Participation in Curriculum Development
	Process
2.4.15	Preparation for Teacher Involvement in Curriculum
	Development
2.5	Conceptual Framework
2.5.1	Exploitive Authoritative System
2.5.2	Benevolent Authoritative System
2.5.3	Consultative System
2.5.4	Participative/Group System
2.6	Identified Research Gaps from the Literature Review

CHAPTER THREE				
RESE	RESEARCH METHODOLOGY 67			
3.1	Introduction	67		
3.2	Research Design	67		
3.2.1	Selected Research Design for this Study	68		
3.3	The Research Setting	69		
3.4	Research Population	69		
3.5	Sample and Sampling Technique	69		
3.5.1	Sample Size	69		
3.5.2	Sampling Technique	70		
3.6	Data Collection Methods	70		
3.6.1	Secondary and Primary Data Collection	71		
3.6.1.1	Secondary Data Collection	71		
3.6.1.2	Primary Data Collection	71		
3.6.2.1	Structured Interviews	71		
3.6.2.2	Advantages of a Structured Interview	72		
3.6.2.3	Disadvantages of Structured Interviews	72		
3.6.2.4	Mitigation of the Disadvantages	73		
3.6.3	Focus Group Discussion	73		
3.6.3.1	Format	74		
3.6.3.1	Facilitation	74		
3.6.3.2	Materials and instruments	74		
3.6.3.4	Advantages	75		
3.6.3.5	Disadvantages	75		

3.6.3.6	Mitigation of the Disadvantages	76
3.7	Data Processing and Analysis	76
3.7.1	Variables and Measurement Procedures	77
3.7.1.1	Independent Variables	77
3.7.1.2	Dependent Variable	77
3.7.1.3	Intervening Variables	77
3.8	Reliability and Validity Analysis	77
3.8.1	Reliability Analysis	77
3.9.1	Validity Analysis	78
3.9.2	Construct Reliability, Convergent validity and Discriminant validity	79
3.10	Ethical Consideration	80
СНАР	TER FOUR	81
0		
	ENTATION OF FINDINGS	
		81
PRES	ENTATION OF FINDINGS 8	81 81
PRES 4.1	ENTATION OF FINDINGS	81 81 81
PRES 4.1 4.2	ENTATION OF FINDINGS	81 81 81 82
PRES 4.1 4.2 4.3	ENTATION OF FINDINGS 8 Overview 8 Questionnaire Return Rate 8 Socio-Demographic Characteristics 8	81 81 82 84
PRES 4.1 4.2 4.3 4.4	ENTATION OF FINDINGS 8 Overview 8 Questionnaire Return Rate 8 Socio-Demographic Characteristics 8 Views of Teachers in Preparation of Curriculum Development 8	81 81 82 84 84
PRES 4.1 4.2 4.3 4.4 4.4.1	ENTATION OF FINDINGS 8 Overview 8 Questionnaire Return Rate 8 Socio-Demographic Characteristics 8 Views of Teachers in Preparation of Curriculum Development 8 Views on Curriculum Content 8	 81 81 81 82 84 84 85
PRES 4.1 4.2 4.3 4.4 4.4.1 4.4.2	ENTATION OF FINDINGS 8 Overview 8 Questionnaire Return Rate 8 Socio-Demographic Characteristics 8 Views of Teachers in Preparation of Curriculum Development 8 Views on Curriculum Content 8 Views on Curriculum Evaluation 8	 81 81 81 82 84 84 85 85
PRES 4.1 4.2 4.3 4.4 4.4.1 4.4.2 4.4.3	ENTATION OF FINDINGS 8 Overview 8 Questionnaire Return Rate 8 Socio-Demographic Characteristics 8 Views of Teachers in Preparation of Curriculum Development 8 Views on Curriculum Content 8 Views on Curriculum Evaluation 8 Views of Teachers on Educational Guides 8	 81 81 81 82 84 84 85 85
PRES 4.1 4.2 4.3 4.4 4.4.1 4.4.2 4.4.3 4.4.4	ENTATION OF FINDINGS 8 Overview 8 Questionnaire Return Rate 8 Socio-Demographic Characteristics 8 Views of Teachers in Preparation of Curriculum Development 8 Views on Curriculum Content 8 Views on Curriculum Evaluation 8 Views of Teachers on Educational Guides 8 Views of Teachers on Educational Policies 8	 81 81 82 84 84 85 85 86

	of Teachers in Curriculum Development	8
4.5.1.2	2 Participation Ratio of Teachers on Curriculum Implementation Training 9	2
4.6	Mode of Teachers' Participation in Curriculum Development Process9	3
4.6.1	Teachers' Perspectives on the Mode of Participation in Curriculum	
	Development Teachers' Participation in Curriculum Development	5
CHAI	PTER FIVE	6
SUM	MARY, DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION9	6
5.1	Summary of the Findings	6
5.2	Discussion of the Findings	8
5.2.1	Views of Preparation of Teachers' Involvement in Curriculum	
	Development	8
5.2.2	Level of Teachers' Participation in Curriculum Development 10	0
5.2.3	Mode of Teachers' Participation in Curriculum Development Process 10	2
5.2.4	Impact of Teachers Participation on Curriculum Development 10	4
5.3	Conclusion of the Study 10	5
5.4	Recommendations 10	6
REFE	CRENCES 10	9
APPE	NDICES 11	9

LIST OF TABLES

Table 3.1:	Reliability Analysis	78
Table 3.2:	Construct Reliability, Convergent Validity and Discriminant Validity	79
Table 4.1:	Return Rate Analysis	81
Table 4.2:	Gender	83
Table 4.3:	Age Status	83
Table 4.4:	Education Level	83
Table 4.5:	Teaching Experience	84
Table 4.6:	Views on Curriculum Content	84
Table 4.7:	Teachers' Views on Curriculum Evaluation	85
Table 4.8:	Teachers' Views on Educational Guides	85
Table 4.9:	Teachers' Views on Educational Policies	86
Table 4.10:	: Training Participants from each Region	93

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 2.1: Conceptual Framework	
Figure 4.1: Curriculum Development Administrative Structure	

LIST OF APPENDICES

Appendix	I: Proposed Hierarchical Structure of Curriculum Development	
	Process1	19
Appendix	II: Summary of the Information Collected in the Literature Survey 1	20
Appendix	III: Questionnaires	21
Appendix	IV: Focus Group Discussion Questions1	24
Appendix	V: Interview Guide1	27

LIST OF ABBREVIATION

ADEM	Agency for the Development of Educational Management
CBET	Competence Based Education and Training
COBET	Complementary Basic Education in Tanzania
DED	District Executive Director
ESDP	Education Sector Development Programme
FAO	Food and Agriculture Organization
IBE- UNESCO	International Bureau of Education of the United Nations
	Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
MEMKWA	Mpango wa Elimu kwa Walioikosa
MoEST	Ministry of Education Science and Technology
MoEVT	Ministry of Education and Vocational Training
NCDC	National Curriculum Development Centre
NECTA	National Examination Council of Tanzania
OECD	Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development
PEDP	Primary Education Development Plan
RAEO	Regional Adult Education Officer
SD	Standard Deviation
SDGs	Sustainable Development Goals
SEDP	Secondary Education Development Plan
T.T.C	Teachers Teaching College
TIE	Tanzania Institute of Education
TTISSA	Teacher Training Initiative for sub-Saharan Africa

UN	United Nations
UN Women	United Nations Women
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
UNFPA	United Nations Population Fund
UNHCR	United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund
WCED	Western Cape Education Department
WEF	World Economic Forum

CHAPTER ONE

THE PROBLEM AND ITS CONTEXT

1.1 Introduction

Teachers' participation in curriculum development process is a contentious issue worldwide despite the recognition of their importance (Bennet, 2006; IBE-UNESCO, 2008; Shaffer, 1994; Taylor, 2006; Alsubaie 2016; Carl 2009). The importance of teacher participation claimed by various countries is on cognition the teachers as key implementers of newly developed curriculum and reformed curriculum across the world (George, 2012, Shapers 1988: 5). In Africa, the problem is rather seen as historical encroaching from the lack of expertise and clear framework to guide the teacher participation process (Olorunteg et al. 2010). Involving teachers in the curriculum development process hinges also on the pretext of lack of teacher knowledge and skills on curriculum development cum review processes the area (Alsubaie op. cit: 106). East African countries are not an exception to these challenges including Tanzania and Uganda (Ngussa et al., 2017:25) and Kenya (George op.cit: 7).

This study explores the extent of teacher participation in curriculum development process in Tanzania from primary school teacher's perspectives. The study is organised in five chapters beginning with the problem and its contexts in chapters one followed by literature review and methodology in chapters two and three respectively. The presentations of the findings are covered in chapter four while the last chapter concluded the study by discussion and recommendation of the study. Chapter one comprises of the background of the study, statement of the problem, objectives of the study, significance of the study, limitation of the study and delimitation of the study, definition of key terms, and conceptual framework.

1.2 Background of the Problem

Teachers' participation in curriculum development process claims its origins from the curriculum improvement writings by educators and curriculum leaders about education reforms in the past one-century. Dewey's paradigm of democracy in education in 1903 asserts for example that:

"...The question of curriculum development process should be submitted to the discussion of decision of those actually engaged in the work of teaching" (Bennet 2002:3).

Taba and Tanner and Tanner among other curriculum pioneers shared this paradigm. Taba (1962) uses grassroots approach to curriculum development process meaning that, the teachers should play a central role in the process. The curriculum progression movements (USA) in the mid-1990s revealed an extensive use of teachers as central to curriculum revision programmes. The Virginia curriculum revision programme in 1931 is one of the examples. Advanced three teachers meeting in various school districts preceded the 1932 curriculum reforms. Deliberations included conceptualisation of the philosophy behind the changes, major areas and reasons for the revision, the place of subjects, nature of objectives among other curriculum processes and products (Bennet op. cit: 18-20). Teachers' recommendations from these meeting formed a basis and direction in which the changes took place.

The mid-1990s curriculum innovations witnessed the use of a Laboratory School by Tanner and Tanner (1995) to enhance teacher participation in curriculum decision making. The hub harnessed teachers' views about curriculum process through collaborative and teacher reflection approaches. The teachers reflected on their 'realclassroom instructional-based' experiences and students' interaction during curriculum implementation process to inform the reform designs. The concrete educational experiences became the primary sources of all inquiry and reflection in the laboratory which helped to revitalise the curriculum development process (Bennet op. cit:6).

In the UK, Rahman (1987) takes the School Council, which was behind the curriculum reforms between the 1960s and 1970s as accountable to thwacks behind the teacher participation in curriculum development process. The paradigm behind the movements perceived curriculum innovations of the time as self-evident, self-directing and was intended to benefit schools. Perpetuated by the nature of the curriculum reform models used in the 1970s, the paradigm by the reform champions did not see the importance and a place of the teacher in the curriculum development process. This brings in another dimension of factors behind teacher participation as inflicted by either the reform models or lack of understanding on the importance by the various curriculum reform agents, committees and panels behind the curriculum development process (Rahman op. cit: 99).

Experience of curriculum reforms and teacher participation in Asian-Pacific countries are also shallowly covered in the period before mid-1980s. Using the 1979 Malaysia example of primary school curriculum change toward child cantered, Rahman (1987) reiterates about the lack of contextualised (local) curriculum change model as a major factor. The use of foreign consultants to drive the reforms perpetuated the teacher

3

exclusion factors in the curriculum development process. There was also a serious lack of understanding on the place, levels and powers that could be ascribed to teacher if they were to participate. Implicitly, the fear of the unknown by the decision makers and the local education ministry's committees involved in the process perpetrated exclusion of teachers (ibid: 89-97).

Reflecting to the practice in the majority of Africa regional countries, it should be appreciated that curriculum development process was undertaken by the foreign commissions between the pre-independent periods to independence in the 1960s. Embracing nationalist movements by independent sovereignties in the 1980s could not influence much of the traditional exclusion of teachers due to the serious lack of capacity in education and curriculum departments until the late 1990s. Little is written about the teacher participation in the curriculum development process in Africa and Tanzania in specific albeit the rich literature on the change process (TIE 2013). The extensive coverage on doldrums on skill shortages on curriculum development process, inherent by almost all African countries suggests that, there was no teachers participation on the reforms that took place in the region between 1960s and 2000 (Mushi 2011)¹. Some literature on teacher participation in the region emerged later covering South Africa (Carl 2005, Makua 2016); Botswana (Moshati 2013), Rwanda (Mbarushimana and Allida (2017), Ghana and Nigeria (Abudu and Mensah 2016 and Oloruntegbe et al. 2010), Zimbabwe (Chinyahi 2013), and Kenya (Obai 1998).

¹Mushi, P. S. D. (2011) capacity plunder in educational reform process in the Regional Africa: the need for intercession in curriculum. In the International Journal on Education. In the Revue International d'Education de Sevres; Issue No. 56, April 2011. France: CIEP.

The general argument for teacher participation in curriculum development process shared across the authors subscribes to the central role of a teacher in education in general and classroom discourse in particular. The complexity and diversity of teachers' professional and social roles in education applauded by the different authors suggest strongly that, curriculum development process without a teachers is like a car engine without fuel to run it. Looking beyond achieving classroom objectives, teacher participation in curriculum development process is seen as an integral procedure in achieving sustainable development goals (SDGs). It is for this reason that some authors advocate for teachers participation to the whole process of curriculum development processes, from inception: policy dialogue into piloting, implementation, monitoring and evaluation processes (Taylor, 2004; IBE-UNESCO2005, 2006², UNESCO 2010, Vooget et al., 2016).

There are varying schools of thought however, teacher participation should not be a cast and stone issues given diversities in the teacher qualifications, load, attitude and the myriad of social-professional obligations as a teacher, parent, mediator, assessor, leader and curriculum implementer. The manner and extent to which teachers' participate in curriculum development process has therefore remained a debatable issues dictated by constraints of time, resources, capacity and professional obligations of the teacher (World Bank, 2007; UNESCO, 2008, Sharpes, 1988; Young 1988, Shaffer, 1994; Taylor, 2006; Alsubaie, 2016; and Carl, 2009).

² (UNESCO 2006) Teacher Training Initiative for sub-Saharan Africa (TTISSA) *Methodological Guide for the Analysis of Teacher Issues.*

1.2.1 Teacher Participation: Importance and Demands from Globalisation of Curriculum

The renewed interest on teacher involvement is a shared paradigm by majority of educators in the contemporary world of curriculum reforms over the last twenty years (Bennet, 2006; IBE-UNESCO, 2008). Pressured by both internal as well as external influences of globalisation (El-Khawas, 2002; OECD, 2013) push nations to implement SDGs, EFA goals and respond to the qualities of the 2030 education agenda. The question is how could the implementation effective if the teacher is not central to participation in the curriculum development process, for it is inevitable to shake the curriculum to provide room for the SDGs.

It is evident also that, schools, curriculum specialists and educators are not catching up with futuristic challenges in education. Teachers and students are caught in disruptive teaching and learning in the world of booming mobile learning technologies, with the former being more frustrated by the conventional teacher preparation programmes. Personalised learning through development process be challenged toward embracing more participatory approaches (IBE-UNESCO, 2008 technology is becoming a threat to teachers as the young learners catch up fast with smart phones leaving teachers fumble with hard-copy materials and chalk and talk instructional boards. The shifts in learning styles are not simply shaking the teachers, but the parents and society at large. It is imperative that the traditional teacher exclusion model of curriculum). Emphasized at two UN conferences held in 2015³ is

 $^{^{3}}$ Reference is made to the first conference, "the World Education Forum 2015" held in Incheon Republic of Korea from 19 – 22 May 2015. This conference was organized by UNESCO together with UNICEF, the World Bank, UNFPA, UNDP, UN Women and UNHCR. The second conference was

the cognizance of the crucial role teachers' play as curriculum implementers and policy makers especially at classroom level. Their effective participation, however, required that, the teachers' capacity be built up-front if they were to effectively shape the reform and development processes in curriculum. Orientation to the curriculum development process is seen as a motivation and support to those who were not articulate with the curriculum field.

This study has taken stock of intense debate on the importance attached to teacher participation driven by different believes. Participation promotes educational improvement (Shaffer, 1994; Taylor, 2006) because it supports better learning with refection on teacher knowledge about the practise and experience on ways they to introduce the curriculum in the classroom (Alsubaie et al., 2016:106), Curriculum development practice cannot reach its effectiveness when teachers are abandoned due to the signified importance by scholars, on the impact the teachers can make whey they participation in curriculum development. Educators see the teacher as a mediator, agent for change, and decision maker in selecting what to use and what to teach among many other important roles as explore in the next section.

1.2.2 The Nexus of the Teacher as a Curricular Training Eexpert

The classroom teacher has been branded different roles and personalities by the different educators. Among the personalities is the teacher as *learning mediator*(Carl 2005); an agent of change (Bennet2002); a *critical connectors and extended professional* Oloruntegbe et al. (2010); and *a controller to the selection, organization,*

held in New York in September 2015 where member states adopted the Sustainable Development Agenda, commonly called "the Global Goals".

and transmitter of knowledge through interactive pedagogical relationship with their students (Mbarushimana and Allida 2007: 1-10). Teachers are also *curriculum experts who give power to others* (Alsubaie 2016) at the same time *support better learning* because they are most knowledgeable about the practise of instruction (Sharpes 1988:9) as they are the ones who *transform students' learning and development* (Bennet 2002). We will hear more about the praise the teachers have taken from the different sources in the future discussion in this study from the supporters of teacher participation in curriculum development process.

1.2.3 Argument for Teacher Participation on Curriculum Development Process

A précis of dominant views supporting teacher participation in curriculum were synthesised Mbarushimana and Allida (2017:3); Alsubaie (2016:106); Young (1988); Sharpes (1988:9); Bennet, (2002); WCED, 2015); and the Guide to Curriculum Development (2006). To avoid overlaps between the previous sections and the content in this area, bullet points are used to summarise the different metaphors and/or paradigms used to describe the teacher personality and roles played.

- *(i) Experimenting with their students to develop the curriculum and*
- *(ii) Providers of knowledge, experiences and competences.*
- (iii) Have Practical knowledge based on daily work with students.
- *(iv)* Can assess whether the ideas being developed will fit to the diversities in students' abilities.
- (v) Teachers are football players that need to understand norms and regulations of the game.
- (vi) Encourage vigorous performance just as the players in the game of football.
- (vii) The custodians of the national curriculum.
- (viii) Overall educational development agents.
- *(ix)* Have competencies central to the success of curriculum implementation.

Schools as organisations have functional departments in which teachers play functional roles. Among these are managing, administration (Mbiti 2009), leadership (Marzano et. al 2005), planning (Lunenburg and Ornstein2000), Walker and Soltis 2009), researchers (Laurence 1985), standard setting (Parkay, Anctil, and Hass (2006, 2010), Solomon (2009) and cash flow managers (Mburu 2009). Teachers are also strategic planners setting visions and missions of schools (Miles and Frank2008). In the cause of executing these roles, teachers engage in directing, communicating, decision making and staff appraisal, (Wiles2005). They maintain communication channels and maintain boss-subordinate relationship. These practices explain why schools borrowed some of the organisational management theories and models to enhance school performance and through effective management and leadership. These functional roles are also recognised by educators such as Carl (2005), Young (1998), Handler (2010) Imingan (2011), Ping, 2013)⁴, Solomon (2009) and Parkay, Anctil, and Hass (2006, 2010). It is not the intention of this study however, to derail from the focus on teacher participation in curriculum and discuss the organisational management and administrative roles. In this regards, highlights on some of the functional roles are briefed as an eye opener and support to the ensuing arguments.

1.2.4 Teachers as Managers in Curriculum Execution

Carl (2005:223) regards teachers as the role players in curriculum development management firm. He qualifies them as the leaders, administrators and managers that ensure the prospective anticipated learning outcomes are fully realized. Teachers

9

⁴ Acheson, A. (2007) Techniques in the Clinical Supervision of Teachers. New York: Willey.

Sergiovanni, T. J. (1979) Supervision: Human Perspectives. San Francisco: McGraw Hill Book Company.

interpret, plan, organize and spear head the voyage of learning with students for maximum achievement of the indented curriculum. On the sameline (Bennet 2002:32) perceive teachers as the overall in charge and supervisors to ensure the targeted learning purposes are fully achieved: 'teachers exercise control over their purposes (Mbarushimana & Allida (2017) and are the unique group having mandate to make decision on the whole curriculum development process.

They do this by suggesting what the leaner should be taught (learning contents), what the lessons have to be conducted and, which methods, strategies and techniques have to be employed for the learning rationale (implementation), where also suggest the mode of measurement (Assessment and evaluation) on which the programme could be assessed.

For the teachers to be able to do this, they must should be autonomous in deciding to make alteration to mandated curricula, as well as forms of assessment, teachers are aware of their students needs and therefore should exercise power to adopt the curriculum to them" (Sharpes (1988:11).

In other words, teachers are the universally in charge to organize training programmes by referring their general practises in teaching that involve their cognitive abilities, affections, personalities and behaviours by experience mostly students learn easily through imitation and practise. It could conclude that, teachers are very important icon to symbolize what are supposed to be done by the school and student in a school setting as an organisation. The teacher partakes these roles informed by functional mandates, her competences, personality teacher behaviour.

1.2.5 Teachers as Decision Markers

Programs master to all activities pertaining to curriculum implementation process. Bennet (2002:33) positioning teachers as the top decision makers in curriculum delivery process. As quoted that:

" Knowledgeable and free agents act for the purpose that they choose on the basis of judgements about the worth of proposed ends".

Through the application various action proposed by teachers as the means to achieve the purpose make them as the mastery of the process. Mbarushimana & Allida (2017: 1-10), comment that on decision making lever in curriculum implementation, teachers are in position to opt whether have to engage the newly developed or ongoing or stress in a what to be taught in a particular class, nevertheless they can decide time to allocate in a particular training thus will develop the " basic critical-thinking skills." Sharpes (1988) provide ideas that educational syllabuses documents, guidelines and prescriptions given to teachers can't establish or change the teachers plan of action, the documents are only regarded as the proposals for the means to prior inform the teachers on how swim in the teaching and learning process but neither will not alter the plan of the pedagogical process.

1.2.6 Teachers as Curriculum Technocrats

Oloruntegbe et al. (2010:707), sighting teachers as the professionals, researchers, trainers and curriculum workers, despite other roles assigned, their also specialized in the development of teaching and learning materials for students learning, comment also that; to suffice the accuracy to implementation of the perfect curriculum falls on the hands of teachers, the writers mark also that; teachers are the ones to equate of what has been taught in their classes and the actual situation to the respective

environment. Young (1998), looking forward professional teachers after been involved in the curriculum development process and concluding that teachers have grew professionally, due to the knowledge obtained of producing curriculum materials, interpret learning theories and others build competences in their daily duties of implementation. Mbarushimana and Allida (2017:3) reinforce that," Teachers are the experts on how curriculum works in the classroom and should play a vital role as evaluators of the curriculum" The art of intellectual engagement and personal initiative in teaching and learning process that involve also critical thinking, moral responsibility, actions to perform activities through interaction, knowledge, freedom, purpose, judgement, deliberation and decision.

1.2.7 Teachers as Professional Autonomous Body

The way people thought and spoke about profession correspond to the changes in the nature of cultural ideas, in the dominant forms of knowledge associated with those cultural ideas, and in the status of the preeminent vocation that upheld the ideal, possessed the knowledge, and exercised authority in various domains of society. (Bennet, 2002) Professionalism discussions built by experience in curriculum implementation practises, experience in school organization, new curriculum standardization, assessment and evaluation, research based practices and all matters related to curriculum implementation and training drive teachers to have curriculum autonomy. (Bennet, 2002) come again with the statement that although:

"Training is shorter, their status less legitimated, their right to privileged communication less established, there is less of specialized body of knowledge, and they less autonomy from the supervision or societal control than "the" profession." Curriculum Development process and implementation rests mostly on teachers abilities in the preparation of lesson plans, lesson notes, teaching and learning materials, and assessment of students, preparation of assessment reports and feedback to students, parents other educational stakeholders hence, they should become part of any curriculum development team (Carl, 2006/9). This will enhance their efforts to create lesson plans and syllabi within the framework of the given curriculum to help in meeting student needs (Carl, 2009).

1.2.8 Advocates for and Challenges for Teacher Participation

"Curriculum is in the mind of the curriculum transmitter, and can only be learned (in an interactive sense) from the words and actions of such mind" (Sharpes, 1988:11). Implicitly, teachers decide on curriculum contents from their professional point of view through their physical and mental endeavours transform students' knowledge and skills into useful ends. So, non-involvement of teachers in the curriculum development process is the wounding of effective curriculum development process. It is a denial to the use of their knowledge, experiences and competencies, teachers are central to any curriculum development effort Alsubaie, (2016). Empowerment of teachers is also linked to the level of teacher contribution in the curriculum development process, which manifests into effective achievement of educational reform (Fullan 1991). Wright (1985) in the expectancy theory elucidates that:

"People are motivated when they see a good outcome of their work".

For example, a teacher who participates in the development or review of curriculum may come across some of his/her contributions as outcome during the teaching, assessment or design of classroom teaching learning materials, and so it is important to observe efficient involvement of teacher in curriculum development. Carl (2009) goes further by saying; teachers have to be empowered in the process of curriculum development. Their motivation mark teachers' position in feeling curriculum ownership, as it steers their eagerness to get involved and makes them more knowledgeable in curriculum aspects. Engaging teacher in improving curriculum increases effectiveness by teachers by feeling recognized and honoured to contribute. They are also likely to get satisfaction that they have been participating in decision making that affects their own work as supported by Handler (2010).

The quality of classroom instruction can be directly impacted by the teacher participation in curriculum development through transforming their interaction and relationship with students as observed by Ping (2013). The interactions enhance effective learning that is likely to be impacted by the well teacher-participated curriculum. Additional to this are recent studies (Imingan (2011); Handler, 2010 Imingan (2011, Ping, 2013) in the United States which stressed the need to involve teachers in development of curriculum. For instance, Imingan (2011) elucidates that, the success of effective curriculum development process, implementation and structural changes requires the involvement of teachers and communities.

1.2.9 Challenges on Teachers Participation

Some scholars (Oruntegbe et al.2010, Carl, 2005:223) identify that attitude of curriculum experts or committee is greatly influenced by those who empowered them to undertake curriculum development process. In majority of cases the powers come from the bureaucratic approach or top down structure (mostly governed by ruling system or entities). These have the powered to decide which, what, when whom and

where the process has to be taking place. The top-down bureaucratic approach seems to be one among of the major problems behind the teacher participation in the curriculum development process. The lack of clear policy on teachers' participation in the process couplets the problem making it rather difficult for teachers be communicated about the objectives and process involved in curriculum reforms or development. The contemporary models guiding curriculum development as seen before are also part of the problem. Most of them were developed, tested and applied in western countries, whose contexts bear some significant different to country settings school environment in Africa. The sue of foreign consultants most of who were not much exposed with the working context mainly in Sub- Saharan African countries, is another contentious issue. A case of Uganda experience justifies some of the issues raised in this discussion.

The current Curriculum in Uganda was inherited from the colonial era and has not undergone any fundamental changes."(IBE/UCU/OREALC) Cohortb2010/11.) The role of teacher was only to develop the reading package and regarded as the subordinate element and inferior group where by the ministry of education and government were regarded as superior (Carl, 2005:223).

Lack of information of where and when the curriculum development process can take part, left teachers in the darkness of desolation. By the time the governing authorities decided on curriculum direction to take, teachers had already felt left out and were subservient to orders for implementation (Carl,2005:223 ,Oruntegbe et al.2010, Alsubaie 2016:106).Rahman (1987) reveals about similar mishaps experienced during the 1970s' reform of primary school curriculum in Malaysia as emanating from the weaknesses of the Research, Development and Diffusion (RDD) model to curriculum development process. Those leading the reforms believed that, the movement was for the good of the schools and teachers as subordinates should have complied to implementation orders. Furthermore, curriculum development was not part of the teachers' job description upon recruitment and on their (teachers) side; they did not feel compelled to participate in the process.

Problem solving model to curriculum development is led by the assumption that, teachers had the entire competence requisite for effective participation in curriculum development process. This is however, a misconception, for, there were no formal professional curriculum design and development programmes in any of the Africa regions' teacher education learning institutions and universities between the 1960s and 2000 (Mushi 2011). The problem solving model is also limited to highly decentralised school based model to curriculum development. Unfortunately, Africa education system to the majority is highly centralised. In the few cases where decentralisation was tried, there has been no curriculum capacity to fully implement the problem solving model (Rahman 1987:111). Change is usually initiated by the practitioners on the assumption that the teacher is a reflective professional able to identify curriculum issues and resolve during the development process.

In a different model to curriculum development process called social interaction, Rahman (op. cit: 338) found out the merits of the model which gives cognisance to social interaction hence promoting teacher participation. The model was somehow popular in the UK during the child cantered curriculum reforms in 1978. The convulsion in the application was however, on helping the teachers to write the school curriculum. There was a gross negligence in assessing the teachers' time constraints and skill readiness, which falsified the positive intentions of the model. The teachers were worked after official school hours when they were tired, during weekends and school holidays. Those involved did not only get repelled by fatigue and stress, but could not balance the school time, social constraints and responsibilities on top of their teaching jobs (Rahman op. cit: 110).

By way of concluding, the curriculum development models adopted to guide curriculum development process had various weaknesses. One was their centralize hierarchical structure that almost perceived teachers as curriculum recipients, a model reflected by organisational management theories in industrialized countries. Furthermore, the models were neither not clearly understood by those who were using them or were not adopted to fit into the countries outside West were they were tried. On the other part, the teacher did not understand the models, neither did their rights to participate were clearly defined, problems perpetuated by the lack of expertise and commitment. There is therefore an outcry by various studies on the weaknesses of the models, the system and the decision makers when it came to teacher participation in curriculum development (Rahman, 1997:430, Ramparsad 2000, Alsubaie 2016, Carl, 2005 and Handler 2010). Lack of expertise in curriculum development process, the teacher poor qualifications and their teaching load worked against a motivation for the teachers to consider participating in the curriculum development process even when such chances arose as was the case in the UK and Malaysia.

Ramparsad (2000) gives an example in South Africa, which rhymes to observation by Alsubaie (2016) that teachers were not qualified and lacked necessary skills to participate in curriculum development. This problem was escalated by the unclear process that teachers required to follow during curriculum development given the complex and nature and the long period of time consumed in the curriculum development and reform processes.

However, participation in curriculum development process by teachers among other stakeholders is essential to enhance the meeting of needs of the society during the different phases of the development process. There is need to redress the lack of professional development of teachers on curriculum development if we are to strengthen their participation (Alsubaie, 2016, Handler 2010). Redressing the gap requires that, education programs basing on curriculum development process be initiated for prospective teachers to overcome such a challenge.

Individual teachers behaviours and attitudes, labelling or reluctance that they didn't consider in Curriculum development as their main duty (Carl, 2005:223, Oruntegbe et al. 2010, Elusabaie 2016:106) Orungtegbe surveys in Nigeria despite the effort paid by the country teacher's union ,teachers has been refusing to attended the capacity building training programmes and even refuse to join with the Union. Furthermore, with regards to the Management and Administration theories were used to constitute schools that adopted organization behaviour (top-down structure) thus all decisions, changes or whatever has to be executed from the top, even though when the time gone were some evolution of theories an modules but teachers were not well prepared to take role in curriculum development. As just (Oruntegbe et al.2010) revelling Nigerian context by saying'' Teachers are often drafted to classroom implementation of Curriculum reforms but are seldom involved in the reforms but seldom are involved in methods, approaches and Techniques.

However resources constraints (Financial and Time), remain to be one of the most challenging factor on the fact that. In large number the curriculum development process or reform are funded by government sponsors for instance World Bank, specialized supporting agents who specify number or group of participant to be engaged. For instance experience in Turkey vividly depict that, the capacity building training programmes funded in collaboration of United states of America and the Turkish government was specially organized for the new recruited teachers, Grossman et al. (2007).

Ideological or Political structures that are tuned to several political mandate was also identified to amid the teachers participation in curriculum development process the appointments of Cabinet Committee (Malaysia), Presidential Committee (Uganda), Presidential Committee 1991/1992 Tume ya Makweta (Tanzania) give testimony on how the political organs in power can manipulate important changes in structural system. With this political configuration most of the ideas were rushed and did not even consider the previous experiences success and failure and why perceptions of teachers who are received as the centre of learning were not considered (Carl.2005, Grossman et al., 2007).

Convey, (2016) and Bennet (2002) identifying the Gapes in curriculum development theories and practices which failed to elicits standards to be used to develop the curricula. On other side Abudu and Mensar, (2016) and Chinyani, (2013) brought discussion on the Level of Participation of teachers in curriculum development process where illuminate that, the process is not well defined also is limited by teachers expertise to engage the process, with no specific roles assigned for teachers to play when get involved in the process, all these has been witnessed in several countries in Sub-Saharan Africa for case in point are Nigeria, Ghana, South Africa and Zimbabwe so that other reforms were not Succeeded. Use of external consultants allied with domestic who did not advocate teachers' participation in curriculum Development.

Grossman et al. (2007) in their practical writing "*Curriculum development in Turkish*" says most of the curriculum paper were cut and paste from Western countries, this evidence lack of clear guiding frame work to bring understanding to the curriculum developers, the adopted Western Curricula didn't conform to the African context.

1.2.10 Responses on Teacher Participation Gaps

The reviewed studies discussed the implicit and explicit impacts of teachers absence in the curriculum development process reiterating appropriate measures to be carried out (Alsubaie, 2016; Handler, 2010, Fullain, 2001; Carl, 2002/2006). According to Carl (2006) conceptualisation phenomenon on teachers participation can be described in two main tendencies. Firstly, teachers have been perceived as just the "recipients" of the curriculum that can be developed in other places' *Curriculum is developed by one set of people, implemented by another and received by yet another*".

Shapes (1988:5) Thus, their role in the developed curriculum become limited especially in the "top down" approach to curriculum development, Secondly, there is no opportunity given to teachers for providing input during initial curriculum development processes. This omission is by defaults in the traditional approach to curriculum developments, a constraint caused also by financial constraints in the process.

Reflecting to the above background literature, the views of teachers on preparation of curriculum development process in terms of planning, designing, training, and evaluation were not examined. There is also a gap on the analysis of the level of participation of teachers that could establish significant relationship between their participation and implementation practices (Lumpe et al., 2012). Also level of participation could determine clearly at what phase of development process do teachers need be involved and to what extent. For instance, In Tanzania since the establishment of newly competency based curricula (CBET, 2009) in primary schools, there are no prior studies that were conducted to denote the mode and level of teachers participation despite that the curricula is in practice. Therefore, this study assesses the views of primary schools teachers about their participation on the curriculum development process of the newly existing primary schools curriculum.

Generally this chapter has some relevant coverage. However, this is narrow in terms of issues of interest to abandon teachers from participation for instance. Teacher lacked some competences in implementing curriculum; but there is no justification that such gaps resulted from the lack of participation in curriculum reforms. It could be for other reasons. On the other hand, there is a serious weakness that uncovered on the types of participation in curriculum development process. There is little connection to the background content and major argument on the participation.

1.3 Statement of the Problem

Recently, primary schools teachers experiences difficulty in implementing the existing curriculum (HakiElimu, 2016). This assertion is emphatic by lack of practical knowledge among teachers on the new subject areas and recent changes made in

curriculum (ADEM Report, 2018). There is a call for greater teacher participation in curriculum development (Kopweh, 2006), a renewed interest found in the recent writings of educational specialists and institutions (HakiElimu, 2016; Alsubaie 2016; Handler, 2010).

However, an examination of the rhetoric and practices of teacher participation shows that, teachers merely participate in the process of curriculum development without proper preparation, which leads into a significantly ineffective participation (Aydin, 2000). In Tanzania, ADEM Report (2018) revealed that, only 721 teachers out of 190,722 primary school teachers country wise participated at recent capacity building training on Complimentary Basic Education of Tanzania (COBET).

Low level of participation of teachers on curriculum development process has been a subject of wide ranging debate among curriculum development specialists with split views (Carl, 2006; Alsubaie, 2016). However, exactly what are the perspectives of the teachers on their less involvement in the new curriculum has not been established by in-depth studies particularly in Tanzania.

There are so far little/no studies that have been carried out to assess the views of teachers about their participation in curriculum development process. Current studies on teacher participation in curriculum development seldom probe the perspectives of the teacher on the level of satisfaction the manner they are involved on curriculum development (Gençer, 2004; Lumadi, 2014). Therefore, this study aims to examine primary school teachers' views on teacher participation in curriculum development process.

1.4 Objectives of the Study

1.4.1 General Objective

The main objective of this study is to explore primary schools teachers' views on teachers 'participation in curriculum development process.

1.4.2 Specific Objectives

- To examine primary school teachers' views about teacher participation in curriculum development process.
- (ii) Access primary school teachers 'views about the nature of teacher participation in curriculum development process.
- (iii) Identify from the teachers' views the approach used in teacher participation in curriculum development process.
- (iv) Access the teachers' views the nature of link between teacher participation and Teacher effectiveness in curriculum implementation process.

1.4.3 Research Questions

- (i) What are the views of primary school teachers on participation in curriculum development?
- (ii) What is the level of teachers' participation in curriculum development?
- (iii) What is the mode of teachers' participation in curriculum development process?
- (iv) What are the possible effects between level of the teachers' participation and development effective curriculum?

1.5 Significance of the Study

The significance of this study helped to establish theoretical models that define significant relationship between levels of teachers' participation and development of effective curriculum. Using teachers' own views the study has highlighted key strategies that can be applied to involve them better in future curriculum endeavours. Teachers' understanding of their position in curriculum development in terms of planning, evaluation, decision making, and design had been very useful information for curriculum developers to take appropriate interventions.

The findings obtained helped to inform interested researchers to use the current study to pursue further peer researches focusing on explicit and implicit outcomes of involving teachers in curriculum development, also will help to establish theoretical model that defines significant relationship between levels of teachers' participation and development of effective curriculum.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This chapter presents a review of the literature on teachers' participation in curriculum development process. The reviewed documents helped the researcher synthesise common issues from around the world, which informed the conceptual and methodological consideration. The chapter portrays the manner in which teachers were involved in curriculum development process and the role they played. The impacts that arose from the participation are unveiled in three different sections. Conceptual issues are discussed in the first one and proceeds to discuss methodological issues in section two before winding up with section three that delineates the gaps appearing in the reviewed literature upon which the study proposed herein attempted to address.

2.2 Theoretical Literature

2.2.1 Definition of Curriculum

The term "curriculum" has been defined variously by scholars, academic institutions like UNESCO-IBE, and governments (Pinar, Reynolds, Slattery & Taubman, 2006). The term "curriculum" is considered to be broad reflecting the way societies consider the type of learning and teaching relevant to its respective communities. Nevertheless, according to UNESCO-IBE (2013), the term "curriculum" refers to systematic and intentional way of "what, why, how and how well students should learn". Curriculum encompasses all types of planned and organized learning and teaching be it formal

(official and written) or informal (non-official, hidden and unwritten). Broadly defined, curriculum refers to the aggregate set of courses and training programmes designed and implemented to address specific training needs in an area of specialization taught in a school, college, university, or any educational institution.

Kopweh (2014, pp 47) argues that "the meaning of curriculum has continued to widen to the extent that a variety of other meanings of the concept were brought in by both the general public and professionals. Some consider curriculum to be the teaching and instructions offered to students in attempts to improve the selection and organization of school knowledge and associated student learning. Others associate curriculum with documented syllabuses and teaching modules that are sent to schools by the ministry of education or authorized institutions for the purpose of teaching (Kelly, 2009:7; Murphy & Moon, 1999:2). Nelson, Jacobs and Cuban (2009) discuss different concepts of curriculum and how they influence educators who must plan, implement, and evaluate individual courses and educational programs. The authors categorise curriculum as "intended" which is contrasted with the "actualized" curriculum. The concurrence between what is intended and what is actually taught and learned is crucial for evaluating curriculum, particularly curricular reforms.

2.2.2 Definition of Curriculum Development

There are several theories that attempt to explain the relationship between the curriculum and the wider social environment (Diana Cheng-Man Lau, 2001). Conceptual issues hinge on the definition of the terms "curriculum" and "curriculum development" and their implications to the learning and teaching processes vis-à-vis the expected outcomes Apple (1982). There are contentions that there is no single and

universal definition of "curriculum" and that the definition of curriculum development is frost mostly with ideologically and politically biased influences.

Diana and Cheng-Man Lau (2001) argue that:

"The terms, curriculum and curriculum development, are problematic themselves as they imply two well-defined stages – the stage of development and the stage where the curriculum is completed. In fact, there is no line separating the two"

Alvior (2015) contends that curriculum development has a broad scope because it concerns not only about the school, learners and the teachers but also the society in general. The process of curriculum development is designed through multi-actor process via a planned, purposeful, progressive, and systematic process (Kelly, 2004). The curriculum is usually designed and implemented by different stakeholders in order to create positive improvements in the educational and employment systems (Posner, 2004).

2.2.3 UNESCO-IBE Definition of Curriculum Development

In a book titled 'IBE Glossary of Curriculum Terminology', UNESCO-IBE has provided a definition that is broad as it incorporates the basic components of curriculum development (UNESCO-IBE, 2013). Thus, according to UNESCO-IBE the terms "curriculum development" refers to the "process of designing the national, local or school curriculum" in a planned and systematic manner. The process of curriculum development includes the incorporation of the input stakeholders. The main aim of curriculum development is usually focused on long-term impact. Contemporary process of curriculum development is regularly update through evaluation and revision which is carried out to ensure that the curriculum responds to the current educational (UNESCO IBE, 2011).

2.2.4 Globalization and Curriculum Re-Definition and Reforms

The advent of globalization and the dominance of neo-liberal politics have had strong influence on curriculum development in many countries. There has been a wave of curriculum reforms, adjustments, and re-structuring have been high on education reforms particularly in poor developing countries through the influence and sometimes pressure from donor countries.

The patterns and trends have been similar in almost all the countries in the world. While in the United States there is no process of developing a national curriculum, yet ideological standards influence the planning and implementation of curriculum at the level of states, school districts and national associations. In Western Europe and in developing countries the government and professional curriculum experts have tried in vain several times to craft out national curriculums that are ideologically and politically free, inclusive, and democratic.

According to Hok (2010) and Dale (2010) globalization has brought in the knowledge-based economy that has considerably transformed not only the education systems but also the underlying values and the design of curricula. Hence, in order to catch up with the pace of globalization developing countries like Tanzania have embarked on comprehensive reviews of the curricula and introduced new strategies to transform teaching and learning approach from the teacher-cantered orientation to a more student-cantered orientation.

2.3 Learning Theories

This section presents analyses the evolution of concerns on teacher participation in curriculum and the theories that inform curriculum development process with some ideological influences. Some empirical studies are then reviewed which pave way to conceptual framework for the study.

2.3.1 Theoretical Background in Curriculum Development

The history of teacher participation in curriculum development can be traced in early 19th. Century linked to pioneers in curriculum (Taba, 1962: Dewey, 1903: Bennet, 2002:2). In his writing" *Democracy in Education*" in 1903, Dewey advocated that:

"... the question of curriculum development process should be submitted to discussion and the decisions of those actually engaged in the work of teaching" (Bennet op.cit: 3).

Participating in the curriculum development process, an individual gets appreciation of the part which s/he may play (Chamblisis 2003:5, The advocates for the grassroots approach to curriculum development process (Taba 1902- 1967) put teachers as central to the curriculum development role. Since then literature on education renecessitated the importance of teacher participation in curriculum development process.

In 1990s, the paradigm on teacher participation⁵ in the curriculum enterprise proposed two approaches. The first was involving them in the "external" curriculum development process and second, in the continuing process of adaptation and development of externally developed materials (Ben-Peretz 1980:54). Implicitly,

⁵ Ben-Peretz, M (1980) Teachers' Role in Curriculum Development: An Alternative Approach. In Canadian Journal of Education / Revue canadienne de l'éducation, Vol. 5, No. 2 (1980), pp. 52-62

teachers function as "user-develop were involved in a theme of curriculum authorships in its changes an become more responsible in the changes. (Bennet op.cit:4) proposed participation through various theories patterning on teaching and learning. As immediate agents of change and by their instructional activities teachers can implement appropriate solutions to curricular especially those pertaining to the learning process. The abiding concern of teachers manifests in different ways although many of teachers do not know definitively how it is acquired (Macleod & Golby 2003). However, their participation is to better inform the curriculum implementation process (Mugisha et al., 2014) as they play a central role in describing the way individuals preserve any given information, the underlying learning principles and expected outcomes (El-Moamly, 2010; Bleaky et al., 2011). According to Mugisha et al (2014), different learning theories articulate the process of curriculum development and implementation and portray different orientation and outcomes of curriculum implementation. Therefore, learning theories construct a framework that guides the decisions made during curriculum design and implementation.

Bleakly et al (2011) stresses that:

"We need theory of learning that captures this dynamism (learning through time as well as in space), interaction, and relation of elements (complexity), collectively, uncertainty, and systematic connection between personal agency, social context, artefacts mediating, rules of practice, and the development of roles and identities".

Learning theories have been framed to reflect principles that monitor effective teaching practices and expedite deep against surface learning (El-Moamly, 2010). Therefore, to attain the disposition that a learner needs to acquire, curriculum designers have to ascertain relevant and appropriate learning theories during design and implementation process.

2.3.2 Theories Related to the Study

Learning theories were previewed, but not extensively. The purpose is to guide the interaction with the subjects in the data collection process while reflecting on the process of implementation of the revised curriculum (Kumar, 1996) to inform the study. Selectively, theories learned in most foundation courses in higher education institutions (behaviourist; socio-cultural; and constructivism) were reviewed to help in proposing possible ways of teacher participation by this study.

2.3.3 Behaviorism Theory

This theory discusses learning process as the result of stimulus response patterns and its response observations (Gross, 2005; Curzon, 2004). Learning results to change of behaviour and the behaviour sustained through reinforcement (Hilgard et al, 1997). Behaviourism also postulates the role training in skills development since it involves set of programmed learning where grasping of connected tasks in consecutive mode leads to achievement of skills (Mugisha et al., 2014). Thus, behaviourism can be perceived as a theoretical perspective to measure experiential changes after one has been subjected to a learning process as theorists and educationists came to a standpoint that⁶:

One will not be able to completely comprehend the learning process and value the outcome of the learning process without bringing into context the notion of the behavioural change as well as the cognitive change (Vighnarajah; Luan, and Bakar, 2008:34).

Therefore, the learner acquires knowledge from the material in small doses and the learning experience brings numerous feedbacks (Pritchard, 2009). Teachers need to be

⁶ Vighnarajah I; Luan, W. S. and Bakar, K. A. (2008) The Shift in the Role of Teachers in the Learning Process European Journal of Social Sciences – Volume 7, Number 2 (2008) 33.

acquainted to the curriculum development process especially in the way skills attainment can be developed and assessed through the use of different tools such as observation of patterns of tasks performances.

2.3.4 Socio-Cultural Learning Theories

This theory was developed by Kumar (1996) describing learning in the context of socio-cultural processes⁷. Learners acquire skills and mature intellectually through social interaction with other people during the process of conducting daily activities, it provides them ample time to rehearsal their knowledge, skills and understanding in real life circumstances (Dillenbourg, 1996).

The socio cultural theory maintains that all learning is "assisted performance'. It follows that to learn new ways of teaching with technology, teachers need to constantly be in situations where they can access the guidance of more able peers who can mentor and coach them in their "zones of proximal development (Joan et al 2005:40).

This concept is aligned with perspectives of Bleakley et al. (2011) that teacher learning is intimately connected with social context and culture "and "to divorce learning from these context is to both reduce and misunderstand the complexity of the learning experience. Moreover, participation in curriculum development process is part of teachers' professional development. Teachers get orientated to changes in curriculum for example the use of competence based pedagogy, engaging students into reasoning and problem-solving skills and collaboratively they provide experiences to enhance in adopting the changes in a classroom setting (Mugisha et al., 2014, Spector, 1993). This is a place where the envisaged curriculum changes and

⁷Joan L. et al (2005) Sociocultural Theory to Guide Teacher Use and Integration of Instructional Technology in Two Professional Development Schools. Journal of Computing in Teacher Education, Volume 22 / Number 1 Fall 2005: 34-43.

new instructional techniques get guided by learning theories (Gundeman 2006), in this case putting teachers as active field surveyors at the same time in the place of learners.

2.3.5 Constructive Alignment Theories⁸

Teachers generally enact their teaching decisions in line with some kind of explicit or implicit theory of teaching (Biggs 1996). They are the ones who in practice align their lesson designs and the instructional system and learning outcomes as suggested by most curriculum standards (Syllabus in Tanzania). This practice could be enhanced if they get a chance to participate in the curriculum development process to alley their fears and practically get oriented before the grapple with readymade curriculum at classroom level. When able to do this, it is expected that the results instruction will massively be improved and students will most likely perform better in achievement tests (Cohen's 1987) compared to non-aligned curricular. It is important therefore that, the curriculum development process ascribe teachers to the connection of teaching and learning activities and the assessment of learning objectives (Errington, 2010; Biggs, 2002). Implementing the constructive alignment method in a course curriculum design would best support the achievement of learning outcomes⁹, albeit the requirement that teachers' should have a hands-on task. They must link a course philosophy, institutional belief, and their own beliefs (Yorke et al., 2006) during the curriculum design process so as to enhance its successful implementation.

⁸ Biggs, J. (1996) Enhancing Teaching through Constructive Alignment. In Higher Education, Vol. 32, No. 3 (Oct., 1996), pp. 347-364: Springer: URL: https://www.jstor.org/stable/3448076. Accessed: 14-09-2018 07:47 UTC

⁹ Alfauzan, A.A. H. and Tarchouna, N. (20175) The Role of an Aligned Curriculum Design in the Achievement of Learning Outcomes. In Journal of Education and e-Learning Research Vol. 4, No. 3, 81-91, 2017

2.4 Ideological and Political Underpinnings

There are contentions that the definition of the term "curriculum" is compounded further by ideological and political underpinnings. In his seminal work Apple's (1982) suggests ideology as the thread that relates the levels of base and superstructure. Thus, according to Apple (1990) the definition of curriculum has been frost with ideological and political contentions whereby ideology works in and through the overt and hidden curricula of schooling and school reforms. Simmle and Edling (2016) link public schools with an ideological struggle for the knowledge and values needed for the creation of a good (moral) person as reflected to society expectations and for economic competitiveness¹⁰. Raising concern on teachers, the authors suspect the possibility of teachers being conditioned by certain frames that need to be included in curriculum teaching and learning in order to improve education. The ensuing question is 'how would the teachers grabble with the contemporary times of global discourses and their interplay with national, regional and local discourses if they are left in behind when developing and revising curriculum (to include cross cutting issues)? Simmle and Edling (op. cit: 3) provide examples of 1842 reforms of education in Sweden:

This reform is perceived as the beginning of democracy in education ... and a means for emancipation. However, the ideology behind a folk school was highly controversial at the time and neither the content of education nor the task of teachers was based on democratic ideals.

Contested by Simmie and Edling is a contradiction usually inherent in curriculum blue prints which advocate one thin but implement the contrary, a concern is shared with

¹⁰ Simmie, G. M. & Ediling, S. (2016) Ideological governing forms in education and teacher education: a comparative study between highly secular Sweden and highly non-secular Republic of Ireland. In Nordic Journal of Studies in Educational Policy, 2016:1, 32041, DOI: 10.3402/nstep.v2.32041. : https://doi.org/10.3402/nstep.v2.32041

Apple (1993). The author assets that, the process of curriculum development is a complex battle of assemblage of knowledge appearing in the texts and classrooms of a nation. The battle is between different stakeholders and the curriculum experts, teachers and curriculum pressure groups, local and international. Curriculum development process, therefore, represents the ideological hegemony of the ruling class and elites who basically define the contents of the curriculum and controls the process of curriculum development. The teacher in most cases is left with a role to obediently implement the final curriculum as ordered by the top authority.

The ideological and political influences are inevitable because curriculum development process is influenced by various parties that contribute to the political dialogue and planning process. The most influence include international agencies, funding partners, government, publishers, NGOs, CBOs, parents, teachers and learners who have different perspectives (Diana and Cheng-Man, 2001 pp31). This implies that curriculum development is aligned to the ideological, cultural, political, and socio-economic conflicts, tensions and compromises. Those who wield political and intellectual powers control the process of curriculum development by defining curriculum development in their perspectives and select that should and should not participate in curriculum development.

This contention is shared by Elliot (2006) who argues that the central problem of definition of curriculum development persists because the adopted definition is based on the elitist objective model of socially engineering. Diana and Cheng-Man (2001) asserts the influence of ideology and politics in curriculum development. Expounding her contention in article titled "Analyzing the Curriculum Development process: three

models, Diana and Cheng-Man (2001) uses three models: the modern model, the postmodern model and the actor-network model theory to argue that no matter what context we are in, curriculum is the manifestation of the ideological and political power distribution in society. Hence, it is critical to note that participation in curriculum development is not a fixed entity, but a strong network formed by heterogeneous components based on ideological underpinnings.

The contention on the influence of ideology has been expounded also by scholars from developing and underdeveloped countries such as Fanon, Nyerere and Freire in their seminal works. Explaining the impact of ideological underpinnings on curriculum development, Fanon in his book titled "*The Wretched of the Earth*" (1960) argues that curriculum development in many African countries were- and are still is – ideologically colonial in content. According to Fanon the curriculum development process in many African countries is elitist and exclusionary as it follows bureaucratic procedures that automatically exclude key stakeholders in the process of planning the curriculum.

Freire (1970), in his book titled "*Pedagogy of the Oppressed*" expresses the influence of ideology of those with powers on curriculum that disenfranchises the poor and oppressed in the context of post-colonial Latin America. According to Freire (1970) the process of curriculum development in Latin America was dominated by classes with power at the expense of the poor. The planning of the curriculum was an exclusive domain of the selected bureaucrats and institutions that were selected by the government. Other groups like teachers, workers, employers, farmers, and institutions that were active in education were not involved. It was in view of this situation he called for "pedagogy of the oppressed" that focuses on the articulation of the education needs of the poor or those who do not have power to influence the process of curriculum development.

Nyerere (1967) in his highly celebrated book "*Education for Self Reliance*" explains in similar veins to Fanon and Freire that the definition of curriculum is basically ideologically based, that no curriculum is ideologically free. Hence, Nyerere argues for post-colonial African countries to design curriculums that are based on "education for self-reliance". Nyerere calls for the process of curriculum development to be democratic and inclusive of key stakeholders. According to Nyerere (1976), teachers have an important role to play in curriculum development. On the other side, participation in the curriculum development process is also a step toward reducing tensions and resistance in adopting and implementing the revised curriculum.

The next sections present a review of a few empirical studies on teacher participation in curriculum covering samples from Europe, Asia andAfrica. It must be noted however, that literature on the subject matter was not easily accessible, for, not much has been written to cover exclusively about teacher participation in curriculum development process. However, the revisited literature was critically analyzed and the issues raised suffice as foundation to this study.

2.4.1 The Teacher-Government Tensions and Participation Process in Britain

The interest to explore Britain's teacher experiences in curriculum reforms stems from the fact that, the period between the pre-independence to1977 (before the collapse of EAC), Tanzania secondary education curriculum was modeled from the Britain Cambridge Curriculum. Before independence elementary education was based on the colonial system of education. In 1967, Kenya, with Uganda and Tanzania, formed the East African Community with a single system of education, the 7-4-2-3, which consisted of 7 years of primary education, 4 years of secondary education, 2 years of high school and 3–5 years of university education¹¹. Oketch and Rolleston (2007) paint the picture of changes in the education system and influencing policies on curriculum in the three countries¹², but it is not our interest to pursue this root.

In this regard, curriculum movements in Tanzania were copy cuts from British curricula, which greatly influenced the curriculum development and reform processes in the three countries. The study by Elliott is expected therefore to paint a picture about the subject in Tanzania before the 1980s.

Elliott (1994) conducted a comprehensive library research to explore the role played by teachers in curriculum development and change process in Britain. The paradigm behind this study as explained by the researcher includes Elliott's believe about the important role played by teacher participation in curricula reform process which eyed it as:

- *(i)* A resource to help teachers reconstruct their view of knowledge aligned to pedagogical students' learning.
- *(ii)* Support for reflective practice rather than a 'straightjacket' into which the practice was required to fit.
- (iii) Chance for teacher's role to conform to their practice to a set of external curricular requirements or plans.

¹¹ http://www.kenemb.ru/en/education/education-system.html- With the collapse of the East African community in 1977, Kenya continued with the same system of education until 1985 when the 8-4-4 system was introduced, Policies on Free Primary and Secondary

¹² Oketch, M. O. and Rollestone, C.M. (2007) Education in East Africa: A Review of the Literature. CREATE PATHWAYS TO ACCESS. Research Monograph No 10. http://www.create-rpc.org/pdf_documents/PTA10.pdf

(iv) A continuing reconstruction of the forms in which teachers represent knowledge in classrooms in collaboration with students Op. cit: 52).

The study by Elliott (1994) began by asserting that:

"... transforming the pedagogical aspects in curricular reforms remained an obstacle because of the use of the objective model to the reforms. The government neglected proposed interventions by some educators (Lawrence Stenhouse), which views curriculum change as a social experiment in which teachers play a central role (Elliot 1994:43).

The study categorized the reforms into two periods, which Elliott referred to as waves. The first one was teacher-initiated and lacking in centralized direction and control (1960s – early 1970s). The second (post 1988 reforms) was State-initiated and is operationally directed by the State. Teachers were not perceived by the government as central to the reforms and their participation depended on the wish of those on the curriculum seat drive.

Government officials charged with implementing the National Curriculum did not accommodate the voices of teachers and academic educationists until the 1990s teachers furry (Elliott op. cit: 44).

The tendency continued until many teachers and schools revolted against some of the reforms (i.e. the tests for 14-year-olds in 1993), when the responsible minister viewed the exclusion of teachers as a sign of weakness. Specific to the contentious findings about teacher participation in the curriculum development process are a synthesis of statements that reinforce in one way or another practice. One is the frequently justified failure of teachers and their associations to improve educational standards in schools. This naivety tended to propel the State to charge the curriculum development process, a practice linked to stem from educational theorists in universities, who disseminate them through teacher training programmes.

Such beliefs explain the increasing tendency of government ministers to avoid much discussion and negotiation with teachers and academic educationists generally about arrangements for implementing National Curriculum requirements in schools.

The government's tendency to interpret the role of the professionals as a conspiracy against society was also cited by Elliott. In this regard, the Secretary of State for Education appeared to expect teachers to "do anything they are told without question, even if it goes against their professional judgment' (op. cit: 45). This rather inward looking to the professional teachers prompted Elliott to call for the need for the government to reassess the causes of the failures in the curriculum change in the 1960s (i.e. centralized intervention by government).

Implicitly, Britain used a model of centre –peripheral innovation to drive curriculum reforms. The changes were accelerated at the centre, then disseminated to the outpost, and at times, teachers were caught unaware of what was expected of them in implementation. The government prescribed content in the form of targets and programmes of study linked to them. The teachers were free to select teaching methods, but again the government came out by increasingly intervening on questions about selection of appropriate teaching methods for implementing National Curriculum requirements (op. cit: 52).

Elliott concluded that, neither the teacher driven curriculum nor state driven one did work successfully during implementation at classroom level. It was therefore healthy to initiate change in the way Britain approached curriculum development and reform process. He considered a 'negotiated' national curriculum using a continuously constructed and reconstructed in an interlocking network between teachers, the government and curriculum experts as the way forward. The process should involve stakeholders from the local school level, regional and national forums with reasonably adequate level of representatives of functional groups in our society teachers, parents, employees and the government.

2.4.2 Teacher Participation in the Sub-Saharan Africa Countries

Teacher participation in curriculum development varied across countries and between centralized and decentralized school-based curricula. There are however, shared findings among the majority of countries where participation is partial, insignificant, and/or there is none-at all as revealed by country experiences in Botswana (Moshati 2013), Kenya, (Obai 1998) Nigeria (Oloruntegbe 2010), Ghana (Abudu and Mensah 2016) and Zimbabwe (Chinyani 2013) South Africa (Carl, 2005, Makua 2010).

Rwanda revealed of a positive move where teachers were fully involved in curriculum development process, but in one project on TVET (Mbarushimana and Allida 2017). The main reasons behind teacher exclusion include the general teacher professional inadequacy, lack of curriculum skills; perception of teachers as subordinates and the use of top-down approach to curriculum development process by most centralized education systems.

Teachers' multiple roles and their personal attitude about what their job description is (curriculum is not part of their job) by some teachers were also cited. A discussion of country specific experiences is covered to inform the study in Tanzania and the conceptual framework.

2.4.3 South Africa and the Doubt to Listen to Teacher Voices

Carl (2005:223), conceptualize the existing situation of community perception in South African context on teachers participation in Curriculum development process in his prominent article "The Voice of the teacher' and another title termed as "Voice crying in the Wilderness" who is still not quite sure if the cries will be heard or not. Carl (2005) preliminarily explore the seven teachers professional code of conduct brought by South-African Government that stipulates the core functions of teachers as publically perceived. Teachers are the learning mediators: such that are accountable to provide links through the transformation of learning experiences and government philosophy imparted to students consequently the whole community. Interpreter and Designers of the learning programme; through the teaching pedagogy, strategies, and the use of teaching and learning materials engaged in learning process, teachers have access to plan the entire session that ought to ensure the maximum achievement of the programme. Leader, administrator and Manager: The master of classroom learning takes role to guide students in all processes, to monitor, assess and evaluate students. Scholar, researcher and lifelong leaner: Obliged to steer the whole learning processes, through the knowledge, skills, and experiences, teacher gratified to fulfill the complete learning purposes. Community citizenship and Pastoral Role: One who carries the community aspiration to realize learning output, a member and societal representative carries community feelings. Assessor: Taking a role to evaluate the learning effectiveness, through daily assessment, monitoring and evaluation, provide feedback to learners, public and employer on training effectiveness. Learning area and Subject Specialist: Subject Specialization and teaching the experiences make a teacher to be a lifelong student and expert.

Despite the significant mandate brought to them, teachers seemed to be ignored/abandoned/ isolated group that in normal circumstances have to be the curriculum owners in the manner of being eloquent to all steps of Planning, Designating, Development and implementation, Carl (2005:op.cit: 223) in his study reported that, to all 110 teachers teaching a particular subject, 85% were not been involved in curriculum development process. Reporting also that, 63% of teachers are non-informed about the new instruction brought forward in implementation phase. Nevertheless most of them seem to be reluctant to implement the instructed curriculum (Carl, 2005:op.cit: 707).

In South Africa Carl (2005) investigated the views of the teachers in curriculum development participation. His study aimed to investigate if teachers were allowed to participate in the process, and if they do participate what was the nature of their involvement. Three questionnaires were emailed to 400 different schools (200 secondary schools and 200 primary schools). Results indicated teachers were excluded for most part in development of curriculum: they were only involved in the implementation of new curriculum.

Another study was conducted 40 teachers were randomly selected from four secondary schools. Results showed that teachers faced various challenges implementation of curriculum such as overloaded syllabi, lack of relevant teaching and teaching material, and limited access to ICT facilities. Findings also indicated challenges facing teachers in implementation were not addressed to administration as teachers were not involved in development of curriculum.

43

It follows from the literature review that, for a successfully curriculum development, teachers as final implementers should be involved. Moreover, the implemented curriculum should reflect the following effective elements; philosophy, goals, objectives, learning proficiencies, instructional resources, and course assessments (Alsubaie, 2016).

On the view of all of the above, Carl (2005) raised several questions to be posed about their participation in the curriculum development process, asking if they are allowed to participate in the process. If they do, what is the nature of their involvement? The truth is even teacher's code of conduct excluded teachers from participation in the curriculum development process, despite mentioned to be the subject learning areas specialist. Little or no attention has paid to engage in curriculum development processes. The contention indicated that; curriculum can be developed elsewhere, teachers are confined to be the recipients and after being given a little training and guide them for application with regards to the order from the top authority. Although it has been reported that in recently there are some significance changes to create more opportunities to involve teachers directly in all steps in revising the National Curriculum statement, which changes came from the revised curriculum of 2005. (Carl, 2005:225).

2.4.4 Ghana and the Curriculum Planner – Teacher Gap

Abudu and Mensah (2016) used a questionnaire to investigate barriers in participation from 130 teachers in Ghana. The authors analyzed various reforms and studies done in Ghana and elsewhere (Nigeria and South Africa. The argument behind the study was that teachers were trained and attained different qualifications from different institutions and contexts (certificate, diploma, postgraduate diploma, degree and postgraduate diploma). Implicit from this diversity is that, teacher enter teaching with little and significantly varying knowledge and skills about curriculum development process. Involving them in curriculum reforms processes would help the teachers to attend to the gap and diversity.

However, the findings reveal that, the mention about teacher participation in curriculum development process was peripheral in both sources. The study by Abudu and Mensah found out that, teachers were ether neglected completely in the process, and where they had a chance, it was a truncated participation. One of the explanations to this gap was that, Ghana curriculum is centrally organized its was the government planners who managed the whole development. Teachers had to respond to a mandatory authority and order to the carrying out of ready prepared curriculum.

Abudu and Mensah (2016:21) raises their voices further citing about the neglected the importance of participation by teachers while that of skills development practitioners was given an upper hand. Regardless of their significance, less communication between the curriculum planners and the school teachers themselves subsist to remain the major barrier. Other barriers mentioned by the study included the lack of clarity on the role to be played by the teachers; unclear process to follow; under qualification by most teachers (South Africa); and the lack of knowledge about curriculum theory and pedagogy. Teacher's workload, lack of expertise, inadequate funding and lack of information about the curriculum design, review or change add to the number of challenges that teachers faced.

2.4.5 The Case of Burn-out Teachers in Zimbabwe

Teachers ... would rather be involved in income generation projects to supplement their meagre income. The net effect is that a teacher becomes "burnt out" ... living very little time get involved in curriculum development work (Chinyani 2013:63).

Chinyani (2013) study on curriculum was in a way a response to critics of the school curriculum who raised concerns about the effectiveness of a curriculum planned by a Ministry of Education designated Curriculum Development Unit (CDU). Referring to curriculum innovation projects after independence in Africa and particularly in Zimbabwe, the study revealed that at least 70% of educational innovations die before they achieve their stated purpose. One major reason for the failure of educational innovations "is the marginalization or limited involvement of teachers in curriculum development, particularly at the planning stage. Teachers would imbibe the spirit ownership of the curriculum and would be more likely willing to see its successful implementation (Chinyani op. cit: 61).

Prompted by this bizarre, Chinyani interviewed teachers, school heads and parents when exploring the feasibility and desirability of school-based curriculum development in Zimbabwe. An avenue for teacher participation in this endeavor was also explored, prompted by a belief that, curriculumum planning is a problematic enterprise to carry out. Teachers were however left out in the process.

Decisions are made at some distant centre elsewhere and they are cascaded down to the user system at the periphery (Chinyani op. cit. 61).

The curriculum developed using this rather centre-periphery approach was viewed by Chinyani as experiencing a large gap between the planned curriculum and the transacted curriculum¹³, which caused uncertainty and mistrust among stakeholders. Exclusion of teachers in curriculum development process was justified using claims such as:

(i)Un-conducive/nature of work militates against teachers' meaningful participation

- *(ii) Teachers have to grapple with heavy teaching loads*
- *(iii) Fears by school heads about availability of resource for curricula developed*
- (iv) Lack of access to external funding by most schools
- (v) Some teachers in the schools do not have professional qualifications
- (vi) 'Mixed –bag of teacher qualifications' working against their ability
- *(vii) Teachers do not view curriculum development as their prime responsibility.*
- (viii) Most teachers have no knowledge of curriculum development,
- *(ix) Teachers have heavy teaching loads*

2.4.6 The Botswana Teachers and Skewed Decision Making

Moshet (2015)¹⁴ used a quantitative research design and surveyed two hundred twenty-one. Teachers using a questionnaire. The respondents were asked to indicate level of agreement on their participation in decision-making, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment using a 5-point Likert Scale. Moshet's study was prompted by an assumption that teacher participation in decision-making within the organizational structures was identified as an important consideration in efforts to restructure and reform public schools.

The teacher's sense of ability to act on decisions, or efficacy, leads teachers to work to become active participants and to shape organizations (Moshet op. cit: 30).

¹³Chinyani, H. (2013) International Journal of Academic Research in Progressive Education and Development January 2013, Vol. 2, No. 1 ISSN: 2226-6348.

¹⁴ Mosheti, P. A. (2013) Teacher Participation in School Decision-Making and Job Satisfaction as Correlates of Organizational Commitment in Senior Schools In Botswana (Mimeo). A Ph.D. Dissertation, Andrews University School of Education

Although the teachers reported high participation in decision-making as revealed by the study, this was inclined to classroom based activities such as when guiding students in academic work and future career choice. They less participated on decision making on development/operation of the school budget, matters of school governance and school personnel issues, functions which relate significantly to curriculum development process at school level.

2.4.7 The Marginalized-Isolated Science Teachers in Nigeria

In 2010, Oloruntegbe and five other researchers used a self-constructed questionnaire and surveyed a randomly drawn sample 630 secondary school science teachers from six South-Western states of Nigeria. The questionnaire investigated teachers' involvement in curriculum development and implementation among other variables. The study was prompted by revelations from research findings about the neglect or non-involvement of teachers in curricula innovations (Oloruntegbe et al. 709)¹⁵.

The findings revealed only very few (38%) of the surveyed science teachers claimed that they were ever involved in curriculum innovation process through seminars meant to introduce the curriculum to them. The study found out further the damaging impact of the teacher neglect saying that only 78.7 of the teachers did not adhere to the implementation of revised national curriculum. Instead, they tended to follow the traditional curriculum, which was based on textbook approach of an 'order of contents'.

¹⁵ Oloruntegbe, K.O., Duyilemi, A.N., Agbayewa, J.O., Oluwatelure, T. A., Dele Adare and Omoniyi, M.B. (2010). Teachers' involvement, commitment and innovativeness in curriculum development and implementation. Science and Technical Education, Counselling Education Department, Adekunle Ajasin University, Akungba – Akoko, Ondo State, Nigeria

It is not out of place to say that teachers tucked the national curriculum inside their tables while they implemented the examination syllabuses (Oloruntegbe et al. 2010:709-711).

The researchers concluded that, most teachers are often drafted to classroom implementation of curriculum reforms and found themselves frustrated as they struggle to implement such reforms. This problem was exacerbated by the act of mmarginalizing teachers and failure to train them in modern methods, approaches and techniques required to handle curriculum change effectively. An example was cited on the use of computer and internet resources in classroom science teaching which grounds difficultness in science subject implementation.

The consequence to this was the teachers' reluctance to implement the national curriculum for the largest to believe that *"it can't spearhead the national development*". The conclusion Oloruntegbe et al. (2010) was that, curriculum development and implementation process can only be successful if teachers and community are well involved in the development process and structural change.

2.4.8 The Center-Periphery Gap and Decimal Teacher Participation in Kenya

Teacher participation in curriculum development process in Kenya received varying degrees of attention. There are times they got a considerate attention and to the other end; they were treated as merely recipients of directives on implementing new or revised curricular. This practice was observed by a study by Obai (1998) who used a survey research design and investigated the extent to which a random sample of 213 teachers from 30 Kisii District public secondary schools participated in curriculum development process. The teachers and 30 head of the public schools gave their views

about participation through interview and by filling in a questionnaire. The study was led by juxtaposition that:

The world education crisis can be overcome if teachers are involved in the systematic diagnosis of curricular problem and subsequently plan from this background the interventions they perceived as relevant curricular changes Obai 1998: 12 -13).

The findings from the Kenya study did not vary much from the rest of the Sub-Saharan Africa countries, for, 78% of the teachers and all 30 head of schools were dissatisfied with the way curriculum was developed. The main reasons behind was that, the curriculum development process involved a few teachers from selected urban government schools and ministry of education and the KIE¹⁶. Responses on this issue involved the majority of 81.2% of the teachers. Only 18.8% of the teachers indicated the involvement by other educationists such as university lecturers, teachers, teacher trainers and education administrators.

Obai went further to investigate at individual levels, if any of the 130 teachers have had a chance to participate in any curriculum development process in Kenya. A total of 197 (92.5%) of the 130 teachers said they never had a chance to participate. The remaining 16 (7.5%) revealed to have participated but only in material development (books) and in project building (2.3%) and project set up (1.4%).

The Kisii study concluded that, the number of teachers who participated in curriculum development process in Kenya was very small. The curriculum was prepared at the top-centre by a few individuals (KIE), who did not seek the teachers' opinion. Rather

¹⁶K.I.E. is Kenya Institute of Education is a government institute mandated to develop school curricular and write curriculum materials for schools in Kenya.

they sent them readymade syllabus and other materials. This situation resembles the practice in Tanzania, as there was close collaboration and sharing f experience between KIE and the Tanzania Institute of Education, which tended to influence the approaches to curriculum development process.

2.4.9 The Unpredictable Form of Teacher Input in Tanzania Curriculum Reforms

The Tanzania Institute of Education (TIE)¹⁷ is mandated with curriculum development process including review and development of curriculum materials such as textbooks, syllabus, and teacher guides and in service teacher training modules (http://www.tie.go.tz/index.php/about-us).The Institute narrates a story of major curriculum reforms since independent in 1961 to 2013. Such reforms were influenced by economic, political, and social changes for instance. The first one of an aftermath of the inception of Tanzania's Education Philosophy, Education for Self Reliance (E.S.R.) which was pronounced in the 1967 Arusha Declaration. Tanzania move to liberalise the economy in the mid-1980s was followed by privatisation policy in 1992. In between the period, the late Mwl. Julius Nyerere reflected on education and found there was no significance difference between the pre-independence and that in the post 1961 independence¹⁸.

It is argued here that changes in development ideologies influenced policy makers to exclude initial evaluation strategy and not incorporate existing evaluations into new policy. Each time the dominant ideology changed, it

¹⁷ Tanzania Institute of Education was legally disengaged from University of Dar es Salaam through Act. No. 13 of 1975. The major function of the Institute was to design, develop, test, review and/or revise curricula at all levels of education but not higher education: pre-primary, primary, secondary, special education and teacher training levels(http://www.tie.go.tz/index.php/about-us).

¹⁸ Schmitz, K. (2010) Forgotten Evaluations: Educational Policy in Tanzania from 1961-1999. Simon Fraser University 2008 Project Submitted in Partial Fulfilment of the Requirements for the Degree of Master of Arts. file:///C:/Users/user/Downloads/etd6150_KSchmitz.pdf

caused policy makers to rethink the role of education in the development of *Tanzania*. (Schmitz 2010:2)

The first reform was made in 1967 influenced by Arusha declaration aiming at establishing education for self-reliance. This ideology' was propounded as African Socialism until 1985, with President Julius Nyerere as its main proponent. It is this ideology which influence curriculum reforms in the primary and secondary education to introduce self-reliance aspects and learning by doing. Schmitz (2010:3) observes that, most of the education and curriculum decision were most often made by members of the government through their ministerial powers and mandate. The lack of curriculum experts by then and the professional inadequacy of teachers made it almost impossible for the teacher participation in the curriculum development process (Mushi 2011).

Policy makers were influenced by the body of ideas from the World Bank from 1962-1967, and the International Monetary Fund (IMF) and other outside donors from 1982-1999. With the shifts in the dominant development ideology, the role of education changed, hence influencing change of curriculum. Second reform conceded in 1979 influenced by Musoma declaration for the means to implement education for self-reliance policy as proposed in Arusha declaration (1967).

Furthermore, presidential appointed committee recognized as "Tume ya Makweta 1982" proposed the third reform taken partin 1997 subjected by political changes predominantly the introduction of multi-party system and economy crisis. This reform brought the forth significant changes in educational system as it improved training sessions in primary and secondary schools, as well as teacher colleges. For instance in

lower primary schools (standard I and II), training sessions were improved such that; reading (22%), writing (24%), arithmetic (30%), physical education (6%), drawing (6%), civic (6%), health (6%), and religion (3%). For upper primary schools training sessions were based on subjects such that; Kiswahili (25%), English (15%), and Mathematics (65%). Besides, the third reform introduced information and computer studies in secondary schools. Thereafter, implementation of education for self-reliance (1969) influenced the forth reform aiming at changing education training system from knowledge based to competency based training system. However, of all four reforms of curriculum, there is no notable evidence that teachers were involved in curriculum development process.

2.4.10 A Broad Teachers Participation Across Countries from Bennet

Bennet, (2002) traced teacher's participation in curriculum development process and reforms during the 1940s to 1980s. He formed two malt-actor patterns of participation: *the pre-mode* of (building level) and *post mode* (curriculum development projects). An example of the first scenario the establishment of the Laboratory School (*Dewey School in the University of Chicago*) in the years between 1896-1903. In his narration of Tanner and Tanner (1995) assertions, Bennet noted that, the Laboratory School appeared to have pioneered in corroborative making and teachers influence. He went further articulating that teachers took part in almost all the process of curriculum development: from inception (policy making and planning to the actual implementation (instruction of children). The monitoring and evaluation (formative and summative) is implied to be part of teacher participation given the nature of classroom instruction and assessment of children, albeit not clearly put by Bennet.

The next remarkable advancement "*the Post Mode*" teacher participation in curriculum development project was evident in the '*Virginia State Curriculum Programme*'. Bennet reported that, 16,000 teachers and administrators were invited. Those who reported in the first cohort were more than 10,000. The second round of teacher participants in the curriculum programme tallied to 18,000. This was indeed the highest number of teacher participants registered in one curriculum event. The role played by the teacher participants included:

(i)Study of the need for curriculum revision

- (ii) Determining that the content of course
- (iii) The exploration of new materials and procedures
- (iv) Trying out materials and instruction produced by others
- (v) *Designing the methods of instruction*
- (vi) Producing materials for their own use
- (vii) Suggestions on curriculum administration matters.

The Denver curriculum revision project initiated in the early 1900s period marked the notable evolution in teachers' involvement in curriculum development perspectives, which influenced other countries' practice to teachers and curriculum. Turkish government for example involved teachers in the education and curriculum reforms as reported by Grossman et al.(2007). One of the reforms was the development of Pre-Service Teacher Education in 1999 under the NEDP/HEC project funded by the World-Bank. The Turkish Ministry of National Education put great emphasis in improving the teaching methods and the teachers were regarded as the centre of the reform. Improvements of teaching methods in all levels were highly prioritized.

The Dewey laboratory school, the Virginia State Curriculum Programme and the Turkish teacher participation in the pre-service teacher education marked great effort toward teacher participation in curriculum development process in the 1990s. The practice hinge contemporary trend in the realisation of the importance of teacher participation as one of the curriculum reform success factors. The success stories in this area confirm the realization of the great transformation in teacher participation in curriculum development process around the world.

2.4.11 Curriculum Innovation in Malaysia and the Consultant – Actors Gap

Rahman (1980), A Ph. D. candidate¹⁹ by then was enthused to investigate the process behind the innovation in primary school curriculum following recommendations of the Malaysia Government Cabinet Committee. Irked by the inherent weaknesses in the traditional curriculum, (*heavy content, over-loaded, alien to students' needs and inclined to theory/academic*) the Committee recommended to replace the traditional curriculum with 'a child-cantered' curriculum in 1979. The Malaysia's research community and educationists behind the innovation significantly resembled the 1960s approach in the 'child-cantered primary school innovations in England and USA in the 1960s dominated by research, development and diffusion (RDD)²⁰model to the review.

2.4.12 Curriculum Innovation in Malaysia and the Consultant – Actors Gap

Rahman (1980), A Ph. D. candidate²¹ by then was enthused to investigate the process behind the innovation in primary school curriculum following recommendations of

¹⁹Rahman, A. A. (1987) Curriculum Innovation in Malaysia: The Case Of KBSR (the New Primary School Curriculum inMalaysia). A Thesis Submitted for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy (PhD), Curriculum Studies Department; University of London: Institute of Education. November 1987

²⁰*Rahman* (op. cit: 95) A common factor in all the Three countries(England, USA and Malaysia) is that their curriculum intervention employed the center-periphery or research, development and diffusion (RDD) model of planned change.

²¹Rahman, A. A. (1987) Curriculum Innovation in Malaysia: The Case Of KBSR (the New Primary School Curriculum inMalaysia). A Thesis Submitted for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy (PhD), Curriculum Studies Department; University of London: Institute of Education. November 1987

the Malaysia Government Cabinet Committee. Irked by the inherent weaknesses in the traditional curriculum, (*heavy content, over-loaded, alien to students' needs and inclined to theory/academic*) the Committee recommended to replace the traditional curriculum with 'a child-cantered' curriculum in 1979. The Malaysia's research community and educationists behind the innovation significantly resembled the 1960s approach in the 'child-cantered primary school innovations in England and USA in the 1960s dominated by research, development and diffusion (RDD)²²model to the review.

Experts view the process of change from the perspective of an external originator of innovation. The curriculum reviews initiatives are therefore taken by experts (researchers, developers and disseminators) while the receiver or target audience remains essentially passive" (Op. cit: 95).

Rahman, aware of the education and development differences between the Western (England and USA) questioned the use of external consultants as key experts to drive the innovation despite. The concern was on their wiry understanding of the country's social-cultural and demographic contexts informed by the mishaps inherent in the country's curriculum reform between1960s to 1980s. There was a significant gap between the curriculum reforms and expected students' outcomes which was complicated by either teachers resistance or lack of professional skills to implement the reviewed curricular. Rahman was therefore prompted by this background and got out to conduct a comprehensive investigation of the process behind the child-centred primary school curriculum innovation.

²²Rahman (op. cit: 95) A common factor in all the Three countries(England, USA and Malaysia) is that their curriculum intervention employed the center-periphery or research, development and diffusion (RDD) model of planned change.

Using a case study (because it was an examination of an instance in action), the study used interviews and observation to investigate views of 39 participants involved in the curriculum change process from the centre to periphery i.e. national, state, district and school levels (Rahman op.cit: 252 - 265). Generally, the study found out that:

There was a lack of emphasis in making teachers and indeed other education personnel involved in the change process, for, they were not trained neither enabled (Rahman op. cit: 341-342).

The few who got some orientation learned little about the philosophy and pedagogical assumptions behind the curriculum reforms, which resulted into teacher resistance and resentment during implementation. Rahman reported a long list of the innovation including enforced attendance on orientation courses during school vacation, which irked teachers. Others findings which were high on the list of the Malaysia's study and of interest to this study are:

- *(i) The training of teachers was left at district level, yet the district administrators had no capacity including finances.*
- *(ii) High level of professional inadequacy of the inspectors, teacher educators, administrators and teachers.*
- (iii)The teachers, left out in the reform process, were not even convinced that children could learn better through inquiry method (Op. cit: 328).
- (iv) The teacher-centred curriculum was an alien concept to Malaysia and required changes in the philosophical and pedagogical assumptions underlying it expense of deeper understanding of the newly child-centred philosophy and rationale.
- (v) Teachers were so much used to being spoon fed all along.
- (vi) The short orientation courses that emphasized how to teach at the

The conclusion made by Rahman is that, the planners of curriculum reforms in Malaysia particularly the child-centred curriculum development process did not usually take into account sufficiently the professional inadequacy with regard to implementation. Proactively, the planners would have involved the teachers from the inception of the innovations into implementation.

2.4.13 Rwanda TVET Project Exemplar for Teacher Participation

There has been rather no straight-forward best practice on teacher participation emerging from the discussed country cases. Rwanda, although confined to a project, provides an appealing case where teachers were well prepared in advance and sufficient time observed during the curriculum reform. This practice is revealed by Mbarushimana and Allida (2017) who used a questionnaire survey of 41 TVET teachers to explore their participation experiences in the curriculum change²³. The theoretical position of the researchers was that, success of any curriculum change hinged on its modality and response of stakeholders to the change. They underscored the importance of teacher participation because they are the ones who bring about educational policies, rules and regulations into practical application at classroom level. Driven by this school of thought, the study investigated the teacher preparedness and participation in the curriculum reform from 41 representative teachers who participated in filling in the questionnaire.

The findings revealed that, teachers strongly agreed that, they were prepared to receive the curriculum change. The schools prepared the teachers for curriculum change through seminars and workshops as training approaches. The teachers' views and contribution to the change were valued and so, the teachers felt recognised as revealed by Mbarushimana and Allida (2017:7) that:

When there is involvement, it is something lined immediately to teacher commitment, teamwork and success.

²³Mbarushimana, N. &Allida, D. (2017) Curriculum Change and Teacher Participation in Technical and Vocational Education Training Programs (TVET): Experiences of Groupe Scolaire Aiper Nyandungu, Rwanda. Baraton Interdisciplinary Research Journal (2017), 7(Special Issue), pp. 1-10. Nelson Mbarushimana* & Daniel Allida University of Eastern Africa, Baraton, P. O. Box 2500-30100, Eldoret, Kenya *Corresponding author: Email address - mbanelson@yahoo.fr

The study, therefore provide a case where the teachers' voices were heard, and the changes were introduced after a sufficient time. The teachers were comfortable with the pace of the curriculum reform process, for they were prepared before the reforms began. The ultimate result was that, the teachers were ready and received the newly introduced changes with enthusiasm to implement the revised TVET curriculum.

2.4.14 Emerging Patterns of Teacher Participation in Curriculum Development Process

- *(i) Pre-involvement mode of participation (Capacity Building level)*
- *(ii) Post-- involvement mode of Participation*

Patterns of teachers' participation in curriculum development process hinge on the manner of participation (Carl, 2012). Debate on which pattern should be applied has dominated research on curriculum development. There is a growing perception worldwide that curriculum development process so far has not led to effective education and training of teachers (Rogers and Taylor, 1998). The patterns most used in the process are unicentric in perspective. The many tools and approaches that have been used to analyse teachers' participation in curriculum development include:

(i)Teachers weekly meetings in a convenient venue in school or district

- *(ii) Unique laboratory for trying out teachers' ideas and development of materials*
- (iii) Planning of change and leading it to the curriculum implementation level
- (iv) The study of curriculum problems at school, in a seminar or workshop
- (v) Course content development as a Panel of individual subject teacher
- (vi) Development of method of instruction guided by Panellist during holiday break
- (vii) Discussion of curriculum issues and suggestion of content after school hours

(viii) In-service training cum curriculum orientation programme in a curriculum institute

(ix) Asserting teaching and learning methods through classroom observation

It should, be noted, however, that a few teachers were also involved in the process of curriculum policy formulation, but decision makers and top officials constituted the majority of participants. In such occasions, teachers were either directly involved in those decisions or have their views represented by committees or representatives (Englund, 2006).

Various scholars signify the approaches applied to involve teachers in curriculum reforms, as the good examples. Tilstone and Rose, (2003) insist that, the practical, must be moved forward in ways that enable schools and education systems to plan, implement, monitor and evaluate their approaches to inclusion.

2.4.15 Preparation for Teacher Involvement in Curriculum Development

Several studies have shown level of preparation for teacher involvement in curriculum development process is significant low in terms workshop and training globally and locally especially in sub-Saharan countries. In Nigeria, a study was conducted by Oloruntegbe (2011) to examine science teachers' involvement, commitment and innovativeness in curriculum development, implementation and change. 630 secondary schools teachers were involved and questionnaires were administered as data collection tool. Findings of the analysis using descriptive statistics showed teachers were yet to embrace modern techniques, methods, and approaches such as ICT's facilities, which would prepare them for better participation in curriculum development.

Similar study was done in Netherlands by Huizinga et al. (2014) involving six teachers and six facilitators. On their explorative study they found three gaps in teachers design expertise including curriculum design expertise, pedagogical knowledge content, and curricular consistency expertise. Their results indicated there was a need to support teachers in design process to enhance their design expertise as the preparation in curriculum development.

Another longitudinal study was conducted by Ramparsad (2001) in South Africa to determine effective strategy for teacher involvement in curriculum development. Mixed research methodology was adopted involving qualitative and quantitative techniques. Findings of his research indicated that the department of education of South Africa has to dedicate time during each term of the school calendar to conduct enormous in-service programmes if teachers are to make a genuine impact in the curriculum development process.

In Tanzania, the research was conducted on investigating issues surrounding the implementation of competence based curriculum by Komba and Mwandaji (2015). Researchers involved 186 teachers randomly selected from 13 secondary schools in Mbeya region. Thematic content analysis of their findings showed 86% of the teachers did not have proper understanding of curriculum development due to poor preparation and non-participation in curriculum development. Another relevant study was conducted in Morogoro Region by Grace (2015) to examine challenges facing teachers in implementing competence based curriculum in secondary schools. 102 teachers, six heads of school, and six academic masters were purposively selected from six secondary schools. One of the effective challenges observed was poor and

quality resources provision in teaching and learning which on the other hand, prepares teachers in participation of curriculum development. The findings of her study also suggested that, teachers should be given opportunities in participation of development and/or review of the curriculum.

2.5 Conceptual Framework

According to Likert, the efficiency of a school as an organisation is influenced by the system of four management systems which can be borrowed to guide teacher participation in curriculum development process as seen in the diagram below. The four management systems are Exploitive Authoritative System, Benevolent Authoritative System, Consultative System and Participative or Group System.

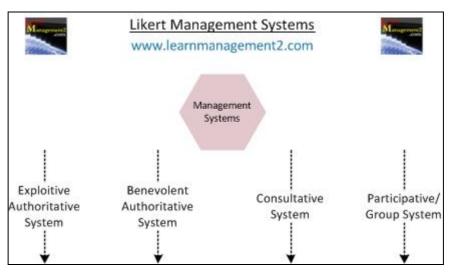


Figure 2.1: Conceptual Framework

Source: http://www.learnmanagement2.com/likert.htm

2.5.1 Exploitive Authoritative System

In this type of management system teachers are supposed to abide by the state/government system of curriculum development process. The take the curriculum development experts as of higher status and so the curriculum decisions made by them

are final. The curriculum development organs/institutes perceive teachers as subordinates and see no need for them to participate in the curriculum development process. The school is perceived as an organisation, which is concerned simply about implementing the ready-made revised curriculum. In case the teachers resist in implementing the revised curriculum (as was the case for the revised competence based curriculum 2000- 2009), the government usually will use fear and threats to make sure the teachers implement the curriculum. This type of system is likely to divide teachers creating groups of those who conform to government orders and those who resist or go slow hence leading into the lack of teamwork in schools.

2.5.2 Benevolent Authoritative System

The benevolent resembles in a way the exploitive authoritative system. Curriculum decisions are made by the mandated agents. In Most African countries and Tanzania these are government ministries of education or institute of education or curriculum development. A few teachers may be invited to partially participate in curriculum orientation seminars and receive allowances. The latter serves as a motivation but experience shows that the training is top down based on what the curriculum development experts want the teachers to be oriented to. In most cases, the orientation seminars are restricted to availability of funds lasting between five to ten days and make little impact on the teachers' capacity to implement the revised curriculum.

2.5.3 Consultative System

In this type of management system, some teachers may be involved in the curriculum development process. Curriculum experts usually visit schools among other institutions and hold discussion with teachers about the type of changes they would

wish to see in a given curriculum. An example of this was the reform of the secondary school curriculum in Tanzania (2005) in which the Tanzania Institute of Education used the top management of the Secondary School Teacher Association to be part of the curriculum reform research team. The school inspection zones were used for the research and the data from the teachers' views was constructively usedby the TIE in the revision of the secondary school curriculum. However, the teacher involvement was limited to a few teachers who could be reached given the limitations of funds and time. The ultimate major decision about what should constitute the revised curriculum was still made by the curriculum experts based on each subject matter panel.

2.5.4 Participative/Group System

In this management system, the agent mandated with the curriculum development process have complete confidence in their teachers, who collaboratively participate in the whole curriculum development process from inception (planning - philosophy behind the change), development of curriculum materials, development of assessment systems, piloting and the final official revised curriculum for implementation. The system involves lots of consultative meetings and communication with teachers (and students) who are usually fully involved the curriculum development process as they feel empowered with autonomy to comfortably contribute to the whole process through their subject panels and committees.

The teachers usually feel responsible for achieving the goals and objectives of the revised curriculum, an approach which usually lead into successful implementation of revised curriculum. The participative system is however expensive and not many countries are recognized of using this approach but only some states in developed countries and under specific curriculum development programmes. One example was the Virginia Curriculum Revision Programme in 1931 and the State of Georgia's 1998 curriculum revision (Bennet 2002).

In the 1931 reforms groups of teachers met in three months in various school districts in 1932 and deliberated on the various elements on of the curriculum development process including what prompted the changes. Their recommended curriculum was submitted to system superintendents who studied it before recommending further to state committees and curriculum experts for advanced improvement. The state team appointed revised the state curriculum in 1998 included classroom teachers constituting 50% of the members.

2.6 Identified Research Gaps from the Literature Review

The reviewed literature has shown the existence of major gaps in assessing participation in curriculum development process. The unicentric analytical works on curriculum development seem to take for granted teachers' participation with less attention on the multi-dimensionality of the problem at hand. This gap involves a lack of a comprehensive analytical framework that delineates the power set up among stakeholders and how the different interest groups engage and outwit each other in a multi-actor engagement process.

The first gap is on the lack of systems approach to explaining teachers' participation as a being a form of engagement or involvement. It should be noted that teachers operate in a system with clear rules of role-play located in units or levels of action. Participation in curriculum development is bounded by certain procedures because there are rules that explain the influence of system behaviour on the actions of the units. Hence, teachers' participation in curriculum development is based on the rules that cover the transfer of actions of system units into system behaviour.

The second gap is lack of a theoretical framework that explains the macro-to-micro and micro-to-macro transitions in curriculum development. The tools and methods of traditional curriculum analysis are developed from a unicentric perspective and not as a multi-actor. In the unicentric perspective, teachers' participation has been located at the level of involvement whereby authoritative decisions are made by one decision maker or by a group of experts. The process of decision making develops not in accordance with the rational comprehensive methods (Lindblom, 1959: 81).

The third gap in the reviewed literature is that the current studies on teacher participation in curriculum development seldom include any historical perspective of teacher involvement in the process of curriculum development. Thus, teachers' formal involvement in curriculum development has been less clear especially from the Africa region countries. The implication is that there is little to learn from past practices to involve teachers in curriculum development.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter presents methods and procedures that will be used to collect the perspectives of teachers on participating in curriculum development. The chapter starts by presenting the research design that will be used, the setting or area of study, population of the study, data collection methods, sample and sampling techniques, data analyses procedures, validity, and ethical considerations.

3.2 Research Design

Research design is a conceptual framework that explains how the research will be organized and executed (De Vaus, 2001). Research design has a significant impact on the reliability of the results obtained. The choice of a research designs depends on a nature of the problem to be investigated (Vogt et al, 2012). Leedy et al. (2013) define research design as a plan of what and how the problem statement will be investigated. Hakim (1987) defines research design as a research framework that facilitates the smooth execution of the various research operations, thereby making research as efficient as possible to collect maximum information with minimal expenditure of effort, time and money.

There are several types of research designs such as descriptive research design, explanatory research design, case study design, experimental design, cross-sectional design, survey design, and longitudinal research design (Adam et al, 2008). All those research designs focus on a set of methods and procedures that were used in collecting

and analysing data in the stated research problem. The researcher went through all those research designs in detail by examining their advantages and disadvantages. The purpose of in-depth examination of the different research design was to select a research design that ensured that the data collected enable the researcher to answer the main research question. Also the research design was able to test hypothesis, theory, and evaluate a programme or accurately describe some phenomenon unambiguously as possible (Stephen, 2013).

3.2.1 Selected Research Design for this Study

The selected research design for this study is exploratory research. Researcher has selected exploratory research design because the study of teachers' perspectives in Tanzania is still at an explorative stage. There are still very few studies that have explored in details the perspectives of Tanzanian primary school teachers on their participation in curriculum development (Kopweh, 2016). Exploratory research uses inductive strategy as a research method that brings the researcher face-to-face with the target group through focus group discussions or interviews. Thus, through explorative research design researcher will establish connoisseurship and rapport with the teachers in order to engage them in an ongoing exploration of themselves, others, and their arena of practice. This involved understanding of how best to study this research problem through holistic approaches grounded on teachers' practical situation (Eisner, 1998).

Furthermore, exploratory research utilizes secondary and primary data sources by addressing research questions of all types such as what, why, and how. This provided a researcher with a well-grounded picture of the situation that is being studied enabled teachers generate new ideas, define new terms, and clarify existing concepts through the generation of new ideas and assumptions for future studies.

3.3 The Research Setting

This study was carried out in Ilemela District Council in Mwanza region. Ilemela District Council is among the seven districts of Mwanza region. The district has a total of 155 primary schools out of which 139 primary schools are government owned and 16 are private owned. There are 94,530 pupils of whom 90,355 are studying at government primary schools and 4,175 are studying at private primary schools. There are 1,552 primary teachers of whom 1,310 are teaching government primary schools and 242 are teaching private primary schools (Mwanza City Council, 2011).

3.4 Research Population

A research population is generally a large collection of individuals or objects known to have similar characteristics (Kamuzora and Adam, 2008). This is the population forms the main focus of the research that is to be carried out (Kombo and Tromp, 2006). The population covered by this study include 1,552 primary teachers of whom 1,310 are teaching government primary schools and 242 are teaching private primary schools (Mwanza City Council, 2011).

3.5 Sample and Sampling Technique

3.5.1 Sample Size

The number of entities (subjects, etc.) in a subset of a population selected for analysis. Kothari (2004) defines samples size as the number of items selected from the population to constitute a sample. The size of the sample size for this study was 318 teachers who were randomly drawn from the population of 1,552 primary teachers of whom 1,310 are teaching government primary schools and 242 are teaching private primary schools.

3.5.2 Sampling Technique

The study used random sampling technique whereby the target population was divided into different groups and those with similar characteristics were grouped in the same stratum then sample for the study was selected at random from each stratum. Random sampling refers to technique of which the population has an equal chance of being selected. The interest could be on the entire population however; few of them can be picked with the intention to represent the whole population (Babbie and Mouton, 2006).

The use of stratified random sampling technique ensured representation of all secondary schools in Ilemela district; it also ensured that the acceptable sampling size of 318 was a proper representative of all secondary schools teachers in the district. The use of random sampling techniques was supported by other researchers, for example Komba (2015) used the same technique for a study on implementation of competence-based curriculum in secondary schools in Mbeya, Tanzania.

3.6 Data Collection Methods

Data collection is a process of gathering specific information aimed at providing or rejecting some facts (Kothari, 2004). The study employed a variety of methods for data collection, the researcher will decide to employ more than one method to collect data because triangulating of methods increase validity and reliability of the data collected (Adam and Kamuzora, 2008). The use of multiple methods has intentionally applied simply because no single method is sufficient in itself in collecting valid and reliable data on a particular problem.

3.6.1 Secondary and Primary Data Collection

Data were collected through secondary and primary methods. The two methods used both qualitative and quantitative methods of data collection. Specifically, primary data is a type of data that are gathered for a specific research in response to a particular problem through Interviews, Questionnaires or observations. Whereas, secondary data are those which, have already been collected and passed through statistical process (Walcott, 2005).

3.6.1.1 Secondary Data Collection

Secondary data were collected from official publications, reports, profiles that provide background information about the total number of primary school teachers in the district. The information collected was mainly quantitative based on teachers' employment duration, educational level, specialization, gender, and participation in curriculum development. These data were collected by working closely with the District Education Officer (DEO) and head teachers in respective schools.

3.6.1.2 Primary Data Collection

3.6.2.1 Structured Interviews

The structured interview is an instrument or protocol designed from the researchers' well-developed and understanding of the research topic (Gall et al 1996). Structured interviews were used to collect data from the teachers who were selected to participate

in this study. The main focuses of the structured instrument were based on the gender of the teachers, grade, educational level, specialization, employment duration, and their perspectives on participation in curriculum development.

3.6.2.2 Advantages of a Structured Interview

The advantages of the structured interviews include the following:

- (i) Structured interviews saves time for the teachers given the fact that teachers are usually busy all the time
- (ii) The questions are created prior to the interview and often have a limited set of response categories
- (iii) Questioning is standardized and the ordering and phrasing of the questions are kept consistent from interview to interview
- (iv) The administration of the interviews do not require the development of prior rapport with the teachers
- (v) The interviewer asks each respondent the same series of questions and there is generally little room for variation in responses because responses can produce consistent data that can be compared across a number of respondents
- (vi) The researcher plays a neutral role and acts casual and friendly, but does not insert his or her opinion in the interview.

3.6.2.3 Disadvantages of Structured Interviews

Researcher is aware of the disadvantages that are involved when carrying out structured interviews. Among the disadvantages that may come across include:

(i) The questions may be either less clear, ambiguous, or very difficult for the interviewee to understand and answer them clearly.

- (ii) The setting where the interview takes place can be uncomfortable or insecure and this can influence the respondents concentration and responses to the questions due lack of a good interview ambience.
- (iii) Lack of a good interview ambience can influence the interviewee to be limited as to what answers the respondent can give because the respondent may misrepresent the truth to make himself/herself seem more socially acceptable
- (iv) The bias of the researcher may influence what answers are given by the interviewee; this may make the results less reliable.
- (v) The process could be more complex, more time consuming, disorganized, and the sample much larger target a smaller sample.

3.6.2.4 Mitigation of the Disadvantages

The literatures in the topical area of research were highly developed in order to provide the researcher with adequate understanding so as to construct meaningful and relevant close-ended questions. Also the interview questions were pre-tested by organizing a sample of teachers from school that was selected for the trial. The interview instrument included a guide that provided the teachers with relevant, meaningful and appropriate response categories to provide from for each question.

3.6.3 Focus Group Discussion

Focus groups provide insights into how people think and provide a deeper understanding of the phenomena being studied (Gall et al., 1996; Freitas et al., 1998). Krueger (1988) defines focus group discussion as a method of data collection in which carefully planned discussion designed to obtain perceptions on a defined area of interest is carried out in a permissive, non-threatening environment. Thus, in this study focus group discussion was used to provide a platform for the teachers to share their opinions, beliefs, perceptions and experience in participating in curriculum development.

3.6.3.1 Format

The groups composed of 7 to 10 teachers who were familiar with one another and were selected because they share similar characteristics relevant to the study's questions. The group should be in a circle where all participants can see and hear one another. Each group had a facilitator who engaged in the discussions, but did not contribute in the discussion.

3.6.3.1 Facilitation

The researcher tried as much as possible to make the discussion relaxed, comfortable, and enjoyable for participants so that they share their ideas and perceptions. The discussion was conducted in an informal and natural way where respondents were free to give views. The discussions created a supportive environment, asking questions that encouraged discussions and the expression of differing opinions and points of view.

3.6.3.2 Materials and Instruments

The materials that were used to facilitate the focus groups discussions include:

- (i) Brief papers explaining the research topic and main questions
- (ii) Flip Charts or Easel Paper
- (iii) Notepads, pencils/pen, and markers
- (iv) Focus Group Script and Ground Rules
- (v) Sign-in Sheet, Consent Forms and Name Tags

- (vi) Tape Recorder and Clock
- (vii) Refreshments

3.6.3.4 Advantages

Focus groups are group interviews that give the researcher the ability to capture deeper information more economically than individual interviews. Group interaction and non-verbal communication are primary benefits of focus groups (Greenbaum 1993). Group interaction between members of the target population during focus groups may encourage participants to make connections to various concepts through the discussions that may not occur during individual interviews (Krueger 1994). Other advantages include the following:

- (i) Focus groups can get at perceptions, attitudes, and experiences more than a quantitative survey.
- (ii) The teachers can "feed off each other" as they respond to each other's comments.
- (iii) The teachers can support or disagree with one another and this created more synergy and thus more broad-based data.

3.6.3.5 Disadvantages

- (i) Some of the teachers may pull out in the last minutes and this could make the group smaller which can affect the outcome.
- (ii) The group can be divided with some teachers just sitting there without actively participating in the discussions.

- (iii) Unexpected conflicts, power struggles, and other group dynamics may inhibit discussion.
- (iv) Some persons may dominate to the exclusion of others
- (v) Shy persons may be intimidated by more assertive persons and hence, refrain from participating in the discussion.

3.6.3.6 Mitigation of the Disadvantages

The researcher was aware of such disadvantages. Therefore, the disadvantages outlined above were address during the pre-testing session that was organized in advance to access the efficacy of the methods and procedures. This pre-test enabled researcher to come up with the ideas on how to organize very well the focus group discussions.

3.7 Data Processing and Analysis

According to Haslwanter (2016), data processing involves editing, coding, classifications and tabulations of the collected data so that they are amendable for analysis. The researcher processed the field data by summarizing the bulk information into a simple and manageable format. Data were classified according to their nature and their relationships on the basis of the objectives and the questions they addressed.

Quantitative data were analysed through the use of Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) 23rd version and Microsoft Excel. Descriptive statistics were adopted to investigate and examine respondents' demographic characteristics and sample size distribution using measures of central tendency and dispersion. Analysed data were then presented through tables, graphs and charts.

3.7.1 Variables and Measurement Procedures

3.7.1.1 Independent Variables

Researcher deduces independent variables from the items that determines teachers participation which comprises; content; evaluation; and views. The variables were measured in ordinal scale since they are categorical in nature, in other words they consist two or more data categories or groups.

3.7.1.2 Dependent Variable

Development of effective curriculum acts as dependent variable in this study, meaning it is an outcome that is expected after the analysis of several predictors. The variable consists of five items including; content; philosophy; assessment; instructional resources; and objectives. All items were measured in ordinal scale.

3.7.1.3 Intervening Variables

These are variables that explain relationship or provide the causal link between independent variables and dependent variable (Campbell, 2014). Researcher deploys three intervening variables, which are parliament acts, educational guides, and educational policies. All variables were measured in ordinal scale.

3.8 Reliability and Validity Analysis

3.8.1 Reliability Analysis

Reliability refers to the ability of an instrument to produce consistent results (Creswell, 2003). The method is reliable if it produces the same results whenever it is repeated (Best and Khan, 2006). Also, reliability looks at the levels at which there are correlations between information given by the same people but with differences in

time. Reliability is rooted under three major issues: test and re-test, equivalent forms and the internal consistency of the data (Martela *et al*, 1999). In this study, reliability was ensured through pilot study by test-re-test method in which 50 questionnaires were administered to teachers. The same procedure was repeated to the same teachers after two weeks. Lewis and Thornhill (2009) suggest that it is appropriate as a matter of reliability to check that the tool is pre-tested before the final administration. Consequently, results were calculated using SPSS to determine Cronbach's Alpha Coefficient as depicted on Table 3.1.

Table 3.1: Reliability Analysis

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items	_
.956	15	-

Source: Field Data 2017

Coefficient of Cronbach's Alpha indicate data collection instruments were high reliable (α =.956) implying the instruments had 95.6% of reliability. According to Sekeran (2003), Cronbach's Alpha coefficient value greater than 0.7 indicates significantly high reliability of the data instrument.

3.9.1 Validity Analysis

Validity can be referred as the technique for testing how truthfully the research instrument can measure intended data and how truthfully research results are (joppe, 2000). In other words can be defined as the extent to which research tool is reliable. However, an instrument can be reliable without being valid (Kimberlin and Winetrstein, 2008).

Three types of validity test were carried out to determine the truthfulness of data collection instrument. These include convergent validity, discriminant validity, and construct reliability.

3.9.2 Construct Reliability, Convergent Validity and Discriminant Validity

Convergent validity describes the extent to which construct measures reflects their own indicators in the model (Tarhini et al., 2016). This validity helps to remove all unreliable indicators since it creates unidimensionality among multiple-item construct (Hair et al., 2010). Whereas, discriminant validity ensures measures which involves different concepts that should not be related with other constructs are different statistically (Tarhini et al., 2016). Convergent validity, discriminant validity, and reliability were checked using average variance extracted (AVE), composite reliability (CR), and maximum shared squared variance (MSV) as suggested by Hair et al. (2010).

Construct	CR	AVE	MSV	ASV	Α
Evaluation	0.887	0.518	0.482	0.432	0.895
Content	0.849	0.531	0.472	0.354	0.911
Policies	0.911	0.611	0.361	0.341	0.941
Guides	0.867	0.544	0.453	0.313	0.931
Preparation	0.891	0.535	0.455	0.432	0.878

Table 3.2: Construct Reliability, Convergent Validity and Discriminant Validity

Source: Field Data 2017

Reliability among all constructs was revealed sufficient as CR was above 0.849. Moreover, result suggests good convergent validity within the proposed model as AVE was above 0.5 and CR was greater than AVE. discriminant validity on the other hand was revealed sufficient for all constructs since AVE was greater than MSV and ASV (Table 3.2). According to Tarhini et al. (2016), good reliability among constructs can be obtained when CR is above 0.7. In addition, convergent validity can be determined when AVE is above 0.7 and CR is higher than AVE whereas convergent validity is established when AVE is higher than MSV and ASV.

3.10 Ethical Consideration

Ethical issues are important in data collection. It is the rule of conduct, principle or mechanism which guide the researchers prior, during and the after their research activities either to do or not to do plagiarism and confidentiality (Lo, 2009). However, the respondent who were selected purposeful to participate in research. In conducting this study, the researcher strictly observed ethical rules and guidelines including; anonymity, confidentiality, privacy, plagiarism, and beneficence in order to ensure integrity of the subject under study. Appropriate ethical procedures for research data collection permission were handled by obtaining introduction letter from the Open University of Tanzania

CHAPTER FOUR

PRESENTATION OF FINDINGS

4.1 Overview

4.2 Questionnaire Return Rate

Questionnaires were administered to 318 primary schools teachers based on the sample size of the study. Majority of the respondents were revealed to reside from various regions of the country despite their occupation location. Therefore, return rate of the data collection instruments particularly questionnaire were classified according to respondents 'current working station as indicated on Table 4.1.

Region	Frequency	Percent
Mwanza	59	19.6
Geita	31	10.3
Shinyanga	20	6.6
Musoma	22	7.3
Singida	4	1.3
Kagera	30	10.0
Dar es Salaam	4	1.3
Pwani	2	.7
Mbeya	1	.3
Arusha	2	.7
Tabora	22	7.3
Tarime	15	5.0
Katavi	1	.3
Simiyu	31	10.3
Rukwa	3	1.0
Kilimanjaro	1	.3
Manyara	8	2.7
Tanga	2	.7
Dodoma	3	1.0
Kigoma	38	12.6
Total	299	99.3
Missing System	2	.7
Total	301	100.0

Table 4.1: Return Rate Analysis	Table 4.	1: Return	1.1:	Rate	Ana	lvsis
---------------------------------	----------	-----------	------	------	-----	-------

Results indicate majority of the participants who successfully returned questionnaires were from Mwanza region (19.6%), followed by Kigoma (12.6%), Geita (10.3%), Simiyu (10.3%), and Kagera (10.0%). Other working stations were below 10% of return rate includeTabora (7.3%), Musoma (7.3%), Shinyanga (6.6%), Tarime (5.0%), Manyara (2.7%), Dar es Salaam (1.3%), Singida (1.3%), Rukwa (1.0%), Dodoma (1.0%), Arusha (0.7%), Pwani (0.7%), Tanga (0.7%), Katavi (0.3%), Kilimanjaro (0.3%), and Mbeya (0.3%).

However, two data were reported missing indicate respondents did not provide the required data. Subsequently, of 314 questionnaire only 301 were returned yielding 99.3% of the return rate. According to Sekaran (2003), response rate above 40% can be significant for generalization of conclusion. Similarly, Cooper and Schindler (2003) claims response rate above 30% is suitable for further analysis, therefore, there was reasonable indication the data return rate was suitable for further analysis.

4.3 Socio-Demographic Characteristics

Several characteristics were considered in analysis of the demographic features of the study participants including age, gender, marital status, educational level, employment status, and teaching experience. Demographic characteristics were determined to allow researcher understand general characteristics of the participants in respect to particular objectives which on the other hand helps to generalise conclusion on the study area.

Majority of participants were males (65.1%) compared to females (34.9%). Results implies male teachers dominates primary schools sector than female teachers as males occupies approximately twice number of female teachers (Table 4.2).

Category	Frequency	Percent
Female	105	34.9
Male	196	65.1
Total	301	100.0

Source: Field Data 2017

Present result concur with Lee et al. (2018) who also found female teachers were lower in number (26%) compared to male teachers (74%) in primary schools among ten sub-Saharan countries. However this scenario is different in developed countries. According to EU (2016), female teachers accounts for 85% in European primary schools.

Category	Frequency	Percent
18-27	46	15.3
28-37	177	58.8
38-47	67	22.3
48-57	11	3.7
Total	301	100.0

Table 4.3: Age Status

Source: Field Data 2018

Table 4.3 shows that, most of the primary schools teachers are youth aged between 28 and 37 (58.8%), followed by elder youth aged between 38 and 47 (22.3%). Besides, teachers aged between 18 and 27 accounts for 15.5% while only 3.7% represented older teachers between 48 and 57.

Table 4.4:	Education	Level
-------------------	-----------	-------

Category	Frequency	Percent
Certificate Grade A	134	44.5
Diploma	166	55.1
Bachelor Degree	1	.3
Total	301	100.0

Source: Field Data 2018

Diploma level of education was likely to be attained by majority of participants as 55.1% observed. On the other hand, certificate grade A teachers were 44.5% and only 3% had bachelor degree education level (See Table 4.4).

Category	Frequency	Percent
1 year - 5 years	69	22.9
6 years - 10 years	134	44.5
11 years - 15 years	64	21.3
16 years - 20 years	34	11.3
Total	301	100.0

Table 4.5:	Teaching	Experience
-------------------	----------	------------

Source: Field Data 2018

Table 4.5 indicate teachers with experience from 6 to 10 years (44.5%) occupies high in primary schools followed by 1 to 5 years of experience (22.9%), 11 to 15 years (21.3%), and 16 to 20 years (11.3%). Consequently, findings calls an evidence for possible high retention of teachers in Tanzanian primary schools.

4.4 Views of Teachers in Preparation of Curriculum Development

Views of teachers in preparation of curriculum were classified based on phases of curriculum development including curriculum content, evaluation, educational guides, and educational policies. Descriptive analysis was employed to identify views using mean and standard deviation.

4.4.1 Views on Curriculum Content

Table 4.6:	Views on	Curriculum	Content
1 abic 4.0.		Curriculum	Content

	Ν	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Course content can be implemented within	301	1	5	3.02	1.279
scheduled time					
Course content is relevant to subject	301	1	5	3.30	1.142
objectives					
Teachers are involved in course content	300	1	5	2.58	1.368
development					
Teachers are allowed to revise and improve	301	1	5	2.54	1.360
content					
Valid N (listwise)	300				

Majority of teachers were found to perceive course content was not relevant to subject objectives (M=3.3, SD=1.14) (Table 4.6). They also claimed course content was not implemented within scheduled time (M =3.02, SD=1.28). More specifically, teachers were not allowed to revise and improve content (M=2.58, SD = 1.37) as well as not involved in course content development (M =2.58, SD=1.36).

4.4.2 Views on Curriculum Evaluation

	Ν	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Recent curriculum evaluation involve teachers	300	1	5	2.40	1.261
views	500	1	5	2.40	1.201
Teachers are involved in formative evaluation	299	1	5	2.71	1.375
Teachers are involved in summative evaluation	299	1	5	2.72	1.345
Teachers are involved in diagnostic evaluation	298	1	5	2.73	1.356
Valid N (listwise)	298				

 Table 4.7: Teachers' Views on Curriculum Evaluation

Based on Table 4.7, teachers perceived their involvement in formative evaluation was not considered (M=2.71, SD=1.38). In the similar manner, they were not involved also in summative evaluation (M=2.72, SD = 1.34).Diagnostic evaluation of curriculum on the other hand did not involve teachers (M=2.7, SD = 1.35). Result implies participation of teachers on curriculum evaluation was insignificant as recent curriculum evaluation did not involve their views (M=2.4, SD = 1.26).

4.4.3 Views of Teachers on Educational Guides

Table 4.8: Teachers' Views	on Educational	Guides
----------------------------	----------------	--------

	Ν	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Educational guides are effective on curriculum development	299	1	5	2.94	1.318
Teachers are involved in contribution of educational guides	299	1	5	2.61	1.282
Educational guides supports the participation of teachers in situational analysis	299	1	5	2.94	1.265
Valid N (listwise)	299				

Source: Field Data 2017

Result indicates teachers perceived educational guides are ineffective on curriculum development (M=2.94, SD =1.32) and do not support their participation in situational analysis (M=2.94, SD=1.27). In addition, teachers claim not to be involved in contribution of educational guides (M=2.61, SD = 1.28) (refer Table 4.8).

4.4.4 Views of Teachers on Educational Policies

Table 4.9: Teachers' Views on Educational Policies

	Ν	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Educational policies supports					
participation of teachers in curriculum	299	1	5	2.89	1.413
development					
Education policies should be revised and	200	1	5	3.72	1.307
improved	299				
Teachers are involved in education	297	1	5	2.52	1.366
policies revision					
Valid N (listwise)	296				

Source: Field Data 2017

Majority of teachers suggested educational policies to be revised and improved (M=3.72, SD=1.31). They also claim educational policies do not support their participation on curriculum development (M=2.89, SD=1.41). On the other hand, few teachers claimed that, educational policies revision should also involve teachers (M=2.52, SD=1.37).

4.5.1 Level of Teachers' Participation in Curriculum Development (In-active Involvement of Teachers)

."I think there is no actively involvement, I suppose not only involving teachers, but also students have to be involved."- Quality assurer, "The minister of Education has a mandate to endorse curriculum changes/review and development after being advised by TIE." Stakeholder 1

Various stakeholders including teachers were interviewed on their perception towards level of teachers' participation in curriculum development. Most of the views were in harmony and adheres to the same scenario. For instance primary school quality assurer claim there have not been active participation of key stakeholders nor teachers in curriculum development particularly on review or change of the curriculum. Some stakeholders perceive non-involvement of teachers was likely to be principally influenced by the decision making bodies as teachers were not among stakeholders who have mandate on curriculum review or change.

Despite teachers had no mandate on curriculum review or change, most of them were aware of the indicators for curriculum review.

"Curriculum can be reviewed or changed due to various reason including Social needs, Cultural needs, Economic needs, Cross cutting issues and political changes. "Stakeholder 2. "I know the Curriculum developer used to conduct need assessment after getting some information from various organs including curriculum implementers, teachers and students, Parliamentary meeting, media Houses, Local government authorities and others that there is a need to review the curriculum''-Stakeholder 3.

With regards to the above quoted statements, few teachers were conscious in some of the important stages of the curriculum development process. Some of them identified curriculum development process in which teachers were sentient of include need assessment and data collection process.

Pre -Mode Teacher's Involvement (Building Stage of Curriculum Development)

Nevertheless, the curriculum development expert claim to involve teachers in the process, and their involvement often relies on type of curricular activity. Teachers were involved mainly at early stages and delivery stages of the development process particularly at implementation stage. In addition their participation were very minimal

as 3 only teachers out of 28 interviewed teachers from different school claimed to participate in the development process;

."Involvement depends on the nature of the activity, their exposure to the intended work determines whom to select."-Stakeholder 4.

Arguments on Poor Participation Level in Curriculum Development

- (i) Lack of clear policy to emphasize teachers participation in Curriculum development process;
- *(ii) Claims on low education level for Teachers' to participate in development process*

Teachers had different perspective on why there were involved only at early stages and implementation phase of the curriculum development and why very few numbers of teachers were involved. Most of the teachers stresses that, there is no policy that guides curriculum developer to involve teachers in development process particularly on review or change phases

"Because curriculum developers are not obliged by any policy, law regulation or condition to mandate key stakeholders involvement particularly teachers in the development process." - Stakeholder 5

In adding up, some of the teachers suggest their poor participation might be influenced by sarcasm perspective of the curriculum developers regarding their education level.

"Because primary schools teachers are regarded to be in the lower Education levels so they are ignored to have Contributions in curriculum development process."- Stakeholder 6.

4.5.1.1 Curriculum Developers Argument on Poor Participation Level of Teachers in Curriculum Development

(i) In absence of guiding criteria to the stakeholders selection in curriculum development process;

- (ii) Lack of disclosure to teachers.
- *(iii) Curriculum Expert approval of teachers significance get involved in the process;*
- *(iv) Low ratio of teachers involvement in the capacity building training;*

With regard to the interview conducted with curriculum developers, different perspectives were revealed on the level of participation among teachers. They mentioned, lack of criteria to guide stakeholders nomination in curriculum development process particularly teachers thus their exposure signifies their level of participation as one of the developer commented;

"Their exposure to the intended work determines whom to select."-Stakeholder 7

Although, no document accessed to justify number of teachers involved in the process, often their significance is observed during implementation phase after the document has been released as has been quoted one among curriculum expert.

"Sometimes became difficult to quantify the ratio of the participation but their Significance can be observed after the document been released. "-Stakeholder 8.

However, curriculum developers claimed to provide seminar and orientation aiming to equip teachers with capacity building on curriculum implementation. For instance, 80 primary schools were involved in curriculum training whereas one teacher was selected among 30 teachers in each selected school.

"In 2014/2015 and 2015/2016 curriculum preparation and orientation was conducted for upper classes which is currently in standard 4, the training comprised 80 government Primary school in Nyamagana with a total number of teachers ranging between 1500 and 2000.Besides, one teacher among 30 was picked to attend the capacity building."- Stakeholder 9.

Despite efforts taken to conduct the capacity building, the training was criticised for having short duration (only seven days) and minimal number of teachers with a ratio of 1:30. Further, level of awareness of the new instructed curriculum was revealed very low below 10% due to low ratio of participation.

"In Nyamagana District the teachers who have awareness of the new instructed curricular in the area of interpretation, delivery and assessment is below 10% because of ratio of 1:30 used to select teachers."- Stakeholder 10.

From the perspective of the curriculum development, the current administrative structure of the development process can be considered as one of the major indicator that articulates misconception of association among important departments dealing with curriculum development. Figure 4.1 depicts hierarchical structure of the curriculum development process showing all key participants in the process.

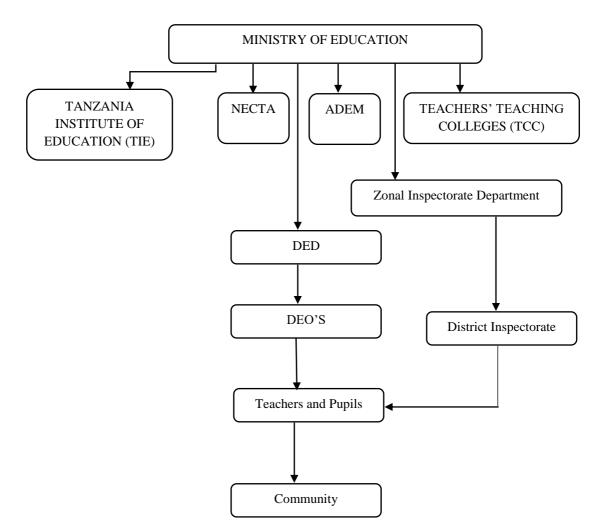


Figure 4.1: Curriculum Development Administrative Structure

Based on Figure 4.1, ministry of education is depicted to involve four top organs in curriculum development process, including Tanzania Institute of Education (TIE), National Examination Council of Tanzania (NECTA), Agency for the Development of Educational Management (ADEM), and Tanzania Teaching Colleges (TCC). All of these top four mandatory organs have specific objectives towards development of curriculum whereas TIE is mainly in charge on the review and change process.

NECTA is responsible for situational analysis of the curriculum and assessment of the developed curriculum through examinations. ADEM on the other hand conducts capacity building training to teachers regarding the developed curriculum whereas TCC provides training to teachers on how to implement the developed curriculum. With regards to specific objective of each top organ, it implies that there is no directly association between TIE and the other three departments (NECTA, ADEM, and TCC).

After the approval of the developed curriculum, Ministry of Education releases the new developed curriculum to District Executive Directors (DEDs), thereafter DED's distributes the curriculum to District Education Officers (DEOs). The DEOs also distributes the developed curriculum in respective primary schools for teachers' implementation. Inspectorate department on the other hand is responsible for inspecting how the developed curriculum is implemented in schools. Zonal inspectorate officers supervise district inspectorate officers in the inspection process, they are well known as quality assurance officers. Moreover, community are depicted as final beneficiaries of the developed curriculum.

91

Considering the hierarchical structure of developing curriculum (Figure 4.1), it is evidently teachers are deemed very low in the development process. They are regarded as just implementers as TIE, which are depicted as main developers do not have any associative link with teachers. It is therefore implies that, low participation of teachers is likely to be influenced from the hierarchical structure of the curriculum development.

4.5.1.2 Participation Ratio of Teachers on Curriculum Implementation Training

According to ADEM Report (2018), In April 2018, ADEM conducted capacity building on the new developed curriculum in Morogoro region. The training participants included the teachers (professionals and para professional) teaching pupils under the Complementary Basic Education of Tanzania (COBET) programme and the officials responsible for Adult Education in the Region (RAEO). Participants were selected from 10 regions. A total of 721 participants attended the training in two phases. Whereas, the first phase involved 367 participants from Dar es Salaam, Dodoma, Kilimanjaro, Lindi, Manyara and Mtwara regions and the second phase involved 354 participants from Arusha, Morogoro, Pwani and Tanga regions. The total number of the participants is depicted on the Table 4.10.

With regards to URT Report (2018), Tanzania comprises a total number of 16,095 primary schools with 190,722 teachers whereas males are 91,751 and females are 99,151. Comparing these statistics with Table 4.10, it implies the ratio between the participants and teachers who did not participate is questionable since only 19 schools were involved with a total number of 721 including 359 females and 352 males.

NA.	REGION	R	AEOs	TEA	TEACHERS	
		MALE	FEMALE	MALE	FEMALE	
1	Arusha	1	0	23	48	72
2	Dar es Salaam	0	1	9	41	51
3	Dodoma	1	0	47	20	68
4	Kilimanjaro	1	0	17	40	58
5	Lindi	1	0	34	16	51
6	Manyara	1	0	30	22	53
7	Morogoro	1	0	37	45	83
8	Mtwara	1	0	61	29	91
9	Pwani	0	1	44	46	91
10	Tanga	1	0	50	52	103
	TOTAL		2	352	359	721

Table 4.10: Training Participants from each Region

Source: ADEM (Morogoro, 2018)

Further, only 10 regions out of 31 regions were involved on the training indicating very low level of participation.

4.6 Mode of Teachers' Participation in Curriculum Development Process

- Lack of set modality on how teachers can get involved in the process
- Claim to be the curriculum recipient (regarded as Curriculum implementers)

Majority of teachers evince no awareness of the specific mode, which has been employed to determine participation of teachers in curriculum development. Their perception was likely to be influenced by poor level of participation.

"We do know the process of Teachers participation in curriculum development organized, because we are not involved in that process." –Stakeholder 11.

Some of the teachers identified implementation phase was the only mode of their as far as top-down approach is concerned in the development process

"We are not involved in any process of the development; we are just implementers of the curriculum as top down participatory approach is employed." – Stakeholder 12.

4.6.1 Teachers' Perspectives on the Mode of Participation in Curriculum

Development

- *(i) Inferiority and disatfaction to teachers for not get involved in the development process*
- (ii) Curriculum implementation failure due to the lack of awareness;
- *(iii)* Autocratic mode in curriculum development process that tend to benefit from the ruling system marginalize teacher as the important stakeholders.

Most of the teachers were likely not satisfied with the manner of participation employed by developers. They perceived the process was very challenging and do not involve their views as their significance in the participation was solely deemed on implementation phase

"We are not satisfied since our participation is insignificant, and we cannot even evaluate the process since we are not involved in the development phase." Stakeholder 13.

Some teachers perceived current mode of participation on the other hand encourages implementation failure as it does not fit their requirements.

"It is more challenging because it encourages implementation failure since our views are not incorporated in"- Stakeholder 14."

Moreover, the top-bottom approach was also associated with dissatisfaction of teachers on the mode of participation. Majority suggest possibility of bureaucracy existence in the curriculum development process.

"Because it starts from the Top-down to Bottom-up participatory, teachers are not involved in change or review phase, it seems curriculum developers have their secret agenda which on the other hand benefits themselves."-Stakeholder 15.

4.7 Teachers Views on Impacts induced by the Current Mode of the Teachers' Participation in Curriculum Development

"Evidently, there is a very little indication of positive impact that is likely being influenced curriculum development process."-Stakeholder 17. It led to most of the teacher's lack of competences for some of the topics improved thus poor performance and poor implementation of intended curriculum."- Stakeholder 18. Difficultness in realization of the Curriculum training output; Poor curriculum implementation; Mismatch between intended curriculum, delivered curriculum and perceived Curriculum; Teachers feel curriculum ownership when get familiar to; Easier the implementation process when teachers get involved" Stakeholder 18.

On the other hand, the mode of participation can be associated with poor implementation of the curriculum. Some teachers claim the curriculum influence lack of competence among teachers due to some complicated improvement made in topics. However, some teachers supported the developed competence based curriculum through its mode of participation was not clear. They pointed out that, it promotes independence among student and ease the process of implementation.

"Easier the implementation process and helps students to become independent."- Stakeholder 19

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

5.1 Summary of the Findings

This study intended to assess views of teachers on participation in curriculum development. The study involved four objectives namely; to examine the views of preparation of teachers' involvement in curriculum development; determine the level of teachers' participation in curriculum development; identify the mode of teachers' participation in curriculum development process; and analyse the relationship between level of teachers' participation and the development of effective curriculum. Descriptive and qualitative analysis were employed as analysis techniques.

Before analysis of each specific objective, several preliminary analysis was conducted including response rate, reliability and validity of the data collection instruments. Response rate was found high sufficient as results yielded 99.3% of the return rate (Table 4.1). On the other hand, reliability of the research tools was found high significant as Cronbach's Alpha indicated 95.6% of the reliability (Table 4.2).

Further, validity test revealed both discriminant and convergent validity were sufficient using CR, AVE, and MSV (Table 4.3). In addition, demographic characteristics of the respondents was examined using frequency. Males were found higher in number than females (Table 4.4). In case of age, majority were youth aged between 27 and 37 (Table 4.5). Moreover, majority were diploma holder (Table 4.6) with teaching experience between 6 and 10 years (Table 4.7).

First objective was analysed using descriptive statistics employing mean and standard deviation. Result revealed views of teachers on curriculum content suggest that, course content was not relevant to subject objectives, course content was not implemented within scheduled time, teachers were not allowed to revise and improve content, and not involved in course content development (Table 4.8).

Furthermore, views on curriculum evaluation shows that, involvement in formative and summative evaluation were not considered. Diagnostic evaluation of curriculum on the other hand did not involve teachers and their views (Table 4.9). With regard to educational guides, teachers perceived educational guides are ineffective on curriculum development, and do not support their participation in situational analysis. In addition, teachers claim not to be involved in contribution of educational guides (Table 4.10).

Second objective was analysed using qualitative analysis employing with an assistance of interview guides. It was found Teachers were involved mainly at early stages and delivery stages of the development process particularly at implementation stage. Besides, the level of participation was absolutely very low.

Qualitative analysis was also employed to analyse the third objective. Result indicates Top-bottom participatory approach was adopted as mode of teachers' participation whereas teachers were treated as solely implementers of the developed curriculum. Most of the teachers were likely not satisfied with the manner of participation employed by developers. Subsequently, forth objective was analysed using qualitative analysis. There was very little indication of positive impact that is likely being influenced or associated with current mode of teachers' participation. Majority of the teachers identified no positive impact has been brought forth by the developed curriculum as they were not involved in the process. Further, there is also possible intricate relationship between the developed curriculum and implementation process since teachers are not involved and most of them do not participate the capacity building on the developed curricular.

5.2 Discussion of the Findings

5.2.1 Views of Preparation of Teachers' Involvement in Curriculum Development

With regard to the findings, there are issues, which should be taken into account related with poor involvement of teachers in curriculum development particularly in preparation phase of the curriculum. Most of the views criticised curriculum content, evaluation, and educational guides. Teachers suggested their absence in review and change of the curriculum attributed to poor developed curriculum, which does not meet the existing requirements. Findings were in consistency with Saracaloglue et al. (2010) who found teachers' views on preparation and development of curriculum were not taken into account.

Further they perceived that, their role in curriculum development was unimportant. Their study recommended organization of formal platform, which can provide room for teachers to share their experiences on curriculum preparation, evaluation, and development process. Ramparsad (2001) identified four stages in which teachers should be involved in curriculum development process include identification of objectives and aims of the curriculum, selection of topics that should be learnt cumulatively, content sequencing and organization, and evaluation of the selected curriculum content. His study found effective curriculum development should involve teachers in such particular stages. Similarly, Carl (2005) found teachers were excluded from participation of curriculum development outside the classrooms. Their role was regarded only in implementation phase of the curriculum, little attention was given to them on other important phases of the development such as change or review phase.

The extent to which teachers views are not taken into account has attributed to great disappointment among them. For instance, some teachers perceive no relationship between developed curriculum and the intended classrooms teaching, due to that rise complication and failure to accomplish the intended goals and objectives.

"I see no significant association between the new developed curriculum content and what is required to be taught in the classroom"- Stakeholder 20.Because we are not involved, most of us fail to reach our goals and objectives oriented as per curriculum."-Stakeholder 21.

Alsubaie (2016) suggest that, teachers should be involved in preparation stage of the curriculum with provision of adequate skills and knowledge for effective participation in the process. Further he suggested provision of training and workshops as professional development to teachers in their contribution on curriculum development. Nevertheless, Carl (2009) noted that, involvement of teachers in curriculum development results to effective curriculum, however, their participation should be accompanied by empowerment in terms of training and workshops. Alsubaie (2016) cemented that, there is no way curriculum can be perfect or free from criticism,

however, its effectiveness relies on acceptance of teacher as far as their implementation role is concerned.

Moreover, government is accounted for this scenario in some ways as teachers' regards government does not play any crucial role in rectifying such assertion. There is no any emphasis or measures have been taken so far to ensure teachers are involved in curriculum development process. The government didn't put more emphasis in the involvement of teachers group who are identified as the significant group in implementation phase.

5.2.2 Level of Teachers' Participation in Curriculum Development

Level of participation among teachers in curriculum development was found very low. Even the low number of teachers who were involved participated only in capacity building orientation and at early stages, none of them participated in review or change stage. Based on curriculum developers' argument, there is no policy or rule that governs their choices on stakeholders' involvement. Therefore, regardless teachers are deemed as key stakeholders, their participation in development process is not mandatory.

Further, most of primary school teachers have no prior training on curriculum development thus regarded as disqualified stakeholders in the process. Keogh et al. (2010) found positive effect after involving various stakeholders in curriculum development including teachers. Their result suggest teachers and other stakeholders were tiled with a feeling of the curriculum ownership. Further, the developed

curriculum was found effective to meet necessary requirements of students in learning.

Abudu (2015) identified several barriers which are likely limiting teachers from being involved and account for their poor level of participation. These included, lack of expertise, inadequate funding, lack of information availability, and huge workload. His result suggest improving participation of teachers by decentralizing curriculum design as well as organizing in-service training and making teachers as key stakeholder in construction of curriculum. Abudu (2015)' findings aligns with present result as curriculum development process is centralized. There is no direct association between curriculum developers and teachers.

"Curriculum development Department (TIE) is a centralized organ with no direct link to teachers and is the one to decide when and which areas or time does the change to take place."- Stakeholder 23.

Moreover, Muneja (2014) claim curriculum in Tanzania include a lot of patches which on the other hand has contributed to massive student failure and source of teachers strike in various primary schools. His findings suggested curriculum review or change should not be the sole responsibility of Tanzania Institute of Education (TIE) but should involve other stakeholders particularly teachers.

However, low participation of teachers is also influenced by poor professional development of teachers through collaborative designs towards curriculum change. For instance Voogt et al. (2016) elucidate that, collaborative design has positive effect to both curriculum change implementation and professional development. Teachers are likely to participate effectively in curriculum design process when acquires

curriculum content knowledge and design skills and knowledge. Thus, professional development of teachers can be regarded as supportive tool towards curriculum change. Mukethe (2015) recommends ministry of education to review their policies and allocate adequate funds for involvement of teachers and other stakeholders in curriculum review.

Low participation of teachers can also be subjected to disappointment among teachers as result found majority of teachers perceive teachers to be ignored in some important stages of the curriculum development process.

"Any curriculum development process should start on grass root level by involving teachers effectively in every stage. Why teachers as the key stakeholders in Curriculum processes are ignored?"-Stakeholder 24

Subsequently, most of the teachers suggest the review of policies that will accommodate effective participation of teachers in curriculum development.

"Establishment of Policy or regulations that enquire teachers' participation in curriculum development." – Stakeholder 25.

5.2.3 Mode of Teachers' Participation in Curriculum Development Process

Views of teachers on the mode of participation revealed that, capacity building programs were the solely strategy employed to equip teachers with necessary understanding of curriculum content and implementation. Few teachers admit to participate on the program with an appointment letter from a district officer. The criteria used to select teachers based on subjects such as mathematics, English and Kiswahili in respect to writing and reading.

"The training conducted was for teachers who teach standard 3 and 4 for in three subjects of Kiswahili, English & Mathematics, also making preference in 3 R's that are Writing, Reading and Arithmetic's so I was the one."-Respondent 26. However, very few teachers were involved such that, only two out of 30 teachers' participated in each involved school. This scenario seem to affect the effectiveness of the training as it was time limited and did not capture vast areas of the curriculum in detail.

"Somehow but it was partial due to the time Limit, also some areas left still not well understood."- Respondent 26.

However, teachers were given an opportunity to orient their fellow teachers who did not participate in the training. Majority claim that, two days were provided for the orientation.

"Yes, we were given two days training session to orient others." - Respondent 27.

On the other hand, curriculum developers claim to employ capacity building as mode of participation to teachers in curriculum development after conducting research. Research provides developers with need assessment analysis and act as an evidence for permission from ministry of education to conduct training.

"We first conduct research to identify areas for weakness, and then we do write to the Ministry of Education for permission to conduct training before communicating with the Regional Administrative directors, who correspond the educational officers to obtain participants."-Respondent 28.

According to MEMKWA Report (2016), about 1800 MEMKWA teachers were involved on the training in 2018 whereas 22,993,000 teachers participated from 19 regions of Tanzania in 2016 including Morogoro, Mwanza, Mbeya, Pwani, Lindi and Mtwara. Despite the efforts taken to conduct capacity building, most of the teachers are not aware of the curriculum aspects. For instance, the developers revealed two out of 50 teachers had partial awareness of the curriculum document.

"The situation is very worse, some of them didn't even see the curriculum document! you can imagine. Only 2:50 teachers have partial awareness on curricula issues."-Respondent 29.

The extent of awareness on curriculum among teachers was likely to be affected by several challenges observed during the capacity building training. Challenges identified includes Low teacher's awareness on curriculum related issues (Respondent 26), lack of intensive or prior capacity building training done before the introduction of the new curriculum (Respondent 27), and scarce resources (Funds) invested by the Ministry in capacity building training which don't allocate adequate time for training, this encourage partial understanding (Respondent 28).

As the way forward to improve the recent mode of participation of teachers on curriculum development, majority recommended the introduction of training on curriculum to equip teachers with required competencies before participation in the process. To introduce special training in Teachers colleges curriculum development should be taught as an independent subject so as to prepare more experts from lower level in such areas for instance having a special module of Certificate or Diploma in Curriculum development, implementation and Assessment."

More so, some stakeholders suggest that, government should review their policies particularly on the decision making process. Teachers' views should also be integrated in during need assessment analysis of the curriculum review or development. Government Educational Authorities should join hands on the newly developed curriculum review/change to assess the need to review or change, these will help us to identify which areas should be earmarked before the review.

5.2.4 Impact of Teachers Participation on Curriculum Development

The mode of participation of teachers has attributed to the resulting outcomes of the new introduced curriculum in terms of implementation and performance. For case in point, some teachers face difficultness in curriculum implementation due to the mismatch between curriculum content and actual field of implementation. Besides, teachers seem to have low attitude towards implementation of the curriculum as they feel non-owners of the curriculum. Saracloglu et al (2010) stresses that, teachers feel themselves as an essential element in curriculum development but in practice it does not exist that "Nobody could know what is happening in the classroom better than him/ her.

Based on the findings, teachers perceive the attempts of the ministry f education curriculum evaluation and development is not sincere since no revision was made based on their critics and their views. Thus, such situation has contributed to loss of beliefs among teachers towards any attempts of curriculum review or development. Marsh and Wills (2007) suggest intensive communication as one of the basic element of curriculum development process. There is no mutual and healthy communication between teachers and curriculum developers therefore affects the effectiveness of the curriculum.

Aydin (2000) on the other hand stresses that, teachers satisfaction in the profession of teaching has strong link to participation in decision making process. When teachers' views are considered for the solution to the problems, they might find a real satisfaction. As referred to the findings, when teachers' views on curriculum development are taken into account may enhance the effectiveness of the curriculum.

5.3 Conclusion of the Study

Participation of teachers on curriculum development brings forth various implications based on their views in terms of content, evaluation, and implementation of the curriculum. There is no relevance between subject objectives and curriculum content due to mode of teachers' participation employed in the process. Moreover, effective evaluation techniques are not considered such as formative and summative evaluation. Educational guides on the other hand does not support involvement of teachers in the development process thus curriculum developers are not obliged by any rule or conditions on whom to choose in development process.

More specifically, current mode of participation does not ensure effective participation of teachers as they are only involved in capacity building training program. However, the program do not guarantee effective implementation of the curriculum since it is limited in terms of time, resources, and number of participants. For instance, only two teachers out 30 were appointed to participate from respective selected schools.

Additionally, the level and mode of participation of teachers revealed in the present findings is evidently positively related to ineffectiveness of curriculum implementation. Most of the teachers performs poorly in the implementation process due to poor understanding of the content and lack of effective training. Teachers have also low attitude on curriculum implementation and loss of belief towards government as their views accounts nothing on curriculum review or change. It is therefore slowdowns their morale on implementation and the feel of ownership.

5.4 **Recommendations**

Findings of the study reveals low participation of teachers in curriculum development has been associated with various factors such as educational guides, policies, hierarchical structure of the development process, and mode of participation. Therefore, it calls for attention to curriculum developers and government to impose immediate measures for the betterment of curriculum and the concerned stakeholders. Here are the recommendations of the present study.

- (i) Government and curriculum developers should re-think on teacher's involvement in curriculum development processes and reforms. The government through the Ministry of Education, Science and technology, has to make reforms in the policies that govern teachers to have full involvement in all curriculum development process. The policy has to indicate that in all professional areas pertaining to curriculum design and reforms for active participation of teachers, meanwhile the teachers should highly be considered in policy formulation and other matters regarding their profession.
- (ii) Introduction of Curriculum Development Course in Teachers Training Colleges (TCC) so as to prepare large number of experts in the field of study from the scratch. Currently, there is no specified course on curriculum development from lower level (Certificate) to Bachelor degree despite there are few lessons of curriculum development in some modules in which on the other hand does not gratify professional requirements for the development process.
- (iii) Establishment of quality assurance department in the higher level (national level), and should be installed as independent and autonomous entity with an organizational structure from the national level to district level. Based on this recommendation, Figure 5.1 depicts the proposed hierarchical structure of the curriculum development process.

- (iv) Establishment of National Curriculum Development Council (NCDC) that will oversee all matters related to Curriculum development, review and change in all training institutions offering educational programmes as recommended on Figure 5.1.
- (v) Involvement of important stakeholders in curriculum reforms such as teachers, students, Quality Assurance department, and community in all important phases of the development process.
- (vi) Government has to largely invest in Education particularly in teachers' education to establish the formal scheme to enhance the proper training programmes for teachers to develop knowledge and skills in curriculum development process, ensure also the programm equip large number of teachers in professional development programs such as, capacity building training and other forms alike.
- (vii) Further studies should be carried out to investigate participation of teachers on curriculum development particularly at secondary schools and advanced educational level, as well as higher education level.

REFERENCES

- Abudu, A. M. (2015). Basic School Teachers 'perceptions about Curriculum Design in Ghana. *International Journal of Educational Studies*, 2(2), 59-69.
- Ainsworth, L. A. (2010). Rigorous Curriculum Design: How to Create Curricula Units of Study that Align Standards, Instruction and Assessment. Colorado: Lead + Learn Press (LLP).
- Alsubaie, M. A. (2016), Curriculum Development: Teacher Involvement in Curriculum Development, Journal *of Education and Practice*. Vol.7, No.9, 2016.
- Antonakis, J. & Dietz, J. (2011). Looking for validity or testing it? The perils of stepwise regression, extreme-score analysis, heteroscedasticity, and measurement error. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 50, 409-415. doi:10.1016/j.paid.2010.09.014.
- Babbie, E., & Mouton, J. 2001. *The practice of Social Research*. Oxford University Press Southern Africa. Cape Town: South Africa.
- Beyer, L. E., & Apple, M. W. (Eds.) (1998). The Curriculum Problems, Politics, and Possibilities (Second Edition). Albany: State University of New York Press.
- Bierlein, L. (1993). Controversial issues in educational policy London: Sage publications.
- Briggs, C. L. (2007). Curriculum collaboration: A key to continuous program renewal.
- Burgess, H. (2004). Redesigning the curriculum for social work education: complexity, conformity, chaos, creativity, collaboration? *Social Work Education*, 23(2), 163-183.

- Campbell, M. (2014). Types of variables. *African Journal of Midwifery and Women's Health*, 8(4), 165-166.
- Carl, A. E. (2002). *Teacher Empowerment through Curriculum Development: Theory into Practice*. 2nd edn. Cape Town: Juta.
- Carl, A. (2005). The\" voice of the teacher\'in curriculum development: a voice crying in the wilderness. *South African Journal of Education*, 25(4), 223-228.
- Carl, A. (2009). Teacher empowerment through curriculum development theory into practice. Juta &Company Ltd. Education, Inc. Bureau of Curriculum and Instruction Connecticut State Department of Education. (2006, November 3). Guide to Curriculum Development:
- Carl, D. G. (1995). Supervision of instruction a development approach. Allyn &Bacon publication.
- Clancy, P. (1982) *Improving Schools and Why*. Minnesota: University of Minnesota Press.
- Cochran, W. G. Sampling Techniques. Wiley India; 3rd edition, 2007.
- Cooper, D. R., & Schindler, P. S. (2003). Research methods. Boston, MA: Irwin.
- Dillon, J.T. 2009. The questions of curriculum. *Journal of Curriculum Studies 41, no. 3:343–59.*
- Dopham, W.J. (1988).Educational Evaluation. Englewood Cliffs, New jersey: Prentice Hall.
- Drake, S. M.; Burns, R. C. (2009). Meeting Standards through Integrated Curriculum. Alexandria: ASCD.
- England, T. (2006). Deliberative communication: A pragmatist proposal. *Journal of Curriculum Studies 38(5)*, 503–20.

- Erden, E. M. İ. N. E. (2010). Problems that preschool teachers face in the curriculum implementation. Yayımlanmamış yüksek lisans tezi. Orta Doğu Teknik Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü. Ankara.
- Flinders, D. J., Thornton, S. J. (Eds.) (2013). The Curriculum Studies Reader (Fourth Edition). Milton Part: Taylor and Francis.
- Fullan, M. (2001). The new meaning of educational change. New York: Teachers' College Press.
- Gambino, J. (2001). Design Effect Caveats. Internal document. Statistics Canada.
- Gençer, E. T. (2004). The Overall Job Satisfaction and the Curriculum Satisfaction of the Teachers at the second Cycle of Public Elementary Schools. Yüksek Lisans Tezi, ODTÜ, Ankara.
- Glatthom, A. A.; Boschee, F.; Whitehead, B. M. (2009). *Curriculum Leadership: Strategies for Development and Implementation*. London: SAGE.

Glickman, C. (1998). Supervision of Instruction. Boston: Allyn and Bacon.

- Goff, K. E. (1998). Chaos, collaboration, and curriculum: A deliberative process. Journal of Curriculum and Supervision, 14(1), 29–42.
- Grace, M. (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).
- Greenbaum, T. L. (1993), *The handbook goes focus group research*. New York: Lexington Books.
- Hair, J. F. J., Black, W. C., Babin, B. J., Anderson, R. E. &Tatham, R. L. (2010). *Multivariate data analysis*. New Jersey, USA: Prentice-Hall.

- HakiElimu, (2011). Who decides what our children learn? A research report on the relationship between curriculum quality and education quality.
- Haslwanter, T. (2016). Multivariate Data Analysis. *In An Introduction to Statistics* with Python (pp. 221-225). Springer International Publishing.
- Hopkins, D. (1989). Evaluation for School Development. Milton Keynes: Oxford University Press.
- Huizinga, T., Handelzalts, A., Nieveen, N., & Voogt, J. M. (2014). Teacher involvement in curriculum design: Need for support to enhance teachers' design expertise. *Journal of curriculum studies*, 46(1), 33-57.
- Imingan, E. (2011). A reflection on the importance of teacher's involvement in curriculum planning Retrieved July 23, 2014, fromhttp://www.studymode.com/essays/a-Reflection-On-The-Importance-Of-762870.html..
- Ivowi U. M. O. (ed.) (1993). Curriculum Development in Nigeria. Ibadan: Bookman.
- Jaccard, J., Guilamo-Ramos, V., Johansson, M., & Bouris, A. (2006). Multiple regression analyses in clinical child and adolescent psychology. *Journal of Clinical Child and Adolescent Psychology*, 35(3), 456-479.
- Jacobs, H. H. (Ed.) (2009). Curriculum 21: Essential Education for a Changing world. USA: ASCD.
- Jacobs, H. H., & Johnson, A. (2009). The Curriculum Mapping Planner: Templates,Tools and Resources for Effective Professional Development. Alexandria:Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development (ASCD).
- John, R. (1994). *Managing education for effective schooling*. London: Trilium Publication

- Joppe, M. (2000). The Research Process. *Qualitative Market Research 2000; 3(3)*, 118-126.
- Kelly, A. V. (2009). *Curriculum Theory and Practice (Sixth Edition)*. Los Angeles: Sage Publications.
- Kelly, A. V. (2004). The curriculum: Theory and practice. 5th ed. London: Sage.
- Keogh, J. J., Fourie, W. J., Watson, S., & Gay, H. (2010). Involving the stakeholders in the curriculum process: A recipe for success? *Nurse education today*, 30(1), 37-43.
- Kimberlin, C. L. & A. G. Winetrstein (2008)."Validity and reliability of measurement instruments used in research." *American Journal of Health-System Pharmacy*_65 (23).
- Kimpston, R. D., & Anderson, D. H. (1986). The locus of curriculum decision making and teachers' perceptions of their own attitudes and behaviours toward curriculum planning. *Journal of Curriculum and Supervision*, 1(2), 100–110.
- Kirui, K. K. (2015). Assessment of Stakeholders' Influence on Curriculum Development Process in Secondary Schools in Kericho County. Retrieved on 11th May 2016 from: http://www.iosrjournals.org/iosr-jhss/papers/Vol20issue3/Version-3/M020337987.pdf.
- Komba, S. C., & Mwandaji, M. (2015). Reflections on the Implementation of Competence Based Curriculum in Tanzanian Secondary Schools. *Journal of Education and Learning*, 4(2), 73 – 81.
- Krippendorff, K. (1980), Content analysis: an introduction to its methodology. New York: The Sage CommText Series.

- Krueger, R. A. (1994). Focus groups: the practical guide goes applied research, (2ndEdition). Thousand Oaks: SAGE Publications.
- Laurence, S. (1985). An introduction to curriculum research and development. London: Heinemann publications.
- Lawton, D. (1980). *The Politics of the School Curriculum*. London: Routledge and Kegan Paul.
- Lee, J., Rhee, D. E., & Rudolf, R. (2018). Teacher Gender, Student Gender, and Primary School Achievement: Evidence from Ten Francophone African Countries. *The Journal of Development Studies*, 2(1), 1-19.
- Lindblom, C. E., (1959), 'The Science of Muddling through', *Public Administration Review*, 3(1), 74-88.
- Lumadi, M. W. (2014). Exploring factors faced by teachers in curriculum implementation. *Mediterranean Journal of Social Sciences*, *5*(6), 171 193.
- Lumpe, A., Czerniak, C., Haney, J., & Beltyukova, S. (2012). Beliefs about teaching science: The relationship between elementary teachers' participation in professional development and student achievement. *International Journal of Science Education*, 34(2), 153-166.
- Lunenburg, F. C., & Ornstain, A. C. (2000). *Educational Administration: Concepts* and Practices, Belmont: Wadsworth.
- Marie, A. B. B., & Bakah, M. A. B. (2011). "Teacher Professional Development through Collaborative Curriculum Design in Ghana's Polytechnics". University of Twente.
- Marsh, C. J. & Willis, G. (2007). *Curriculum: Alternative Approaches, Ongoing Issues*. Ohio: Pearson Education.

- Marzano, R. J. (2005). School Leadership That Works, Alexandria: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.
- Mbiti, D. M. (2009). *Foundations of School Administration*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Mburu, K. H., (2009). *Cash Flow Management: All You Need to Know*. Nairobi: Pauline Publishers.
- Meieh, D. (2002). In Schools We Trust. Boston: Beacon Press.
- Mhando, E. S. (2012). Reflective Teacher: Essays on Education, Morogoro: Elimu Reflective Networks.
- Miles, H. K., and Frank, S. (2008), The Strategic School: Making Most of People, Time and Money, London: Corwin Press
- URT, (1995). Education and Training Policy. Ministry of Education and Culture MoEC, Dar es Salaam, Tanzania.
- URT, (2004a). Education Sector Development Programme Secondary Education. Ministry of Education and Culture Development Programme 2004 – 2009, Dar es Salaam, Tanzania.
- Moore, C. M. (2012). The role of school environment in teacher dissatisfaction among US public school teachers. *Sage Open*, *2*(1), 2158244012438888.
- Morgan, D. L. (1988). Focus groups the qualitative research. Beverly Hills: SAGE Publications,
- Mukethe, K. S. (2015). Influence of stakeholder involvement in curriculum implementation on pupils' performance in Kenya certificate of primary education in Kathiani sub-county.

- Muneja, M. S. (2014). Evaluation of Tanzania Curriculum: An Analysis Using Ornstein's View on Educational Philosophy. *Studies of Changing Societies*, 2013(1), 15-36.
- Null, W. 2011. Curriculum: From theory to practice. Plymouth: Rowman & Littlefield.
- Olive, D. J. (2017). *Multiple Linear Regressions. In Linear Regression* London: Springer International Publishing.
- Oloruntegbe, K. O. (2011). Teachers' involvement, commitment and innovativeness in curriculum development and implementation. *Journal of Emerging Trends in Educational Research and Policy Studies*, 2(6), 443-449.
- Osborne, J., & Waters, E. (2002). Four assumptions of multiple regressions that researchers should always test. *Practical Assessment, Research & Evaluation*, 8(2). 21 32.
- Peter, S. K. (2014). "Curriculum Development In Tanzania: An Investigation of the Formulation, Management and Implementation of the 2005 Curriculum Reform In Selected Disadvantaged Districts". PhD thesis, Glasgow University Retrieved on 11th June 2017 from: http://theses.gla.ac.uk/5774/1/2014kop wehphd.pdf.
- Pinar, W. F., Reynolds, W. M., Slattery, P., & Peter, M. Tauban. (2006). Understanding Curriculum: An Introduction to the Study of Historical and Contemporary Curriculum Discourses, 5th edition. London: International Academic Publishers.
- Pinar, W. F. (2011). What is Curriculum Theory? (Studies in Curriculum Theory Series). 2 edition. New York: Routledge.

Ping, L. (2013). Perceptions of the Teacher-Student Relationship: A Study of Upper Elementary Teachers and their Students. *International Education*, 42(2), 21-40.

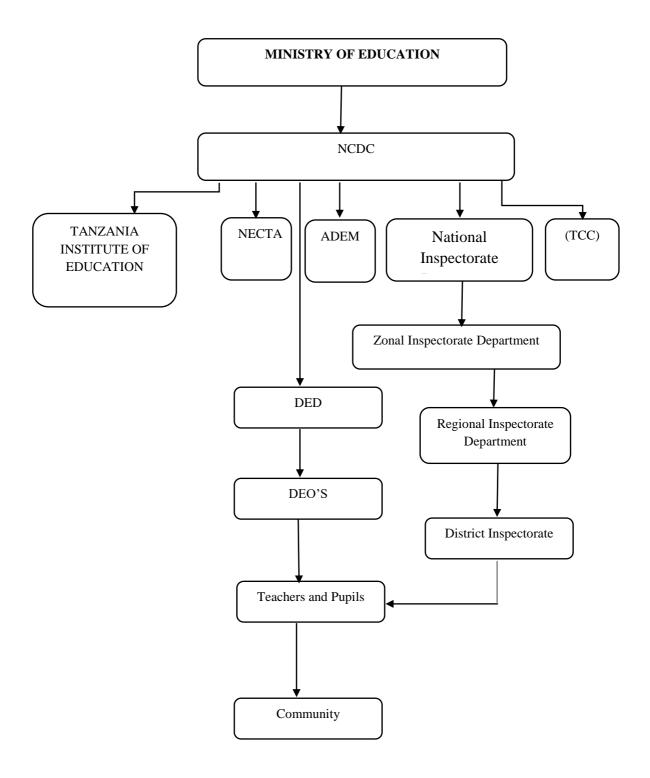
Posner, G.J. (2004). Analyzing the curriculum. 3rd ed. New York, NY: McGraw-Hill.

- Ramparsad, R. (2001). A strategy for teacher involvement in curriculum development. South African Journal of Education, 21(4), 287-291.
- Saracaloğlu, S., Yılmaz, S., Çengel, M., Çöğmen, S., Karademir, Ç. A., & Kanmaz, A. (2010). Elementary teachers' views about their roles in curriculum development and evaluation process: The case of Denizli. *Procedia-Social and Behavioural Sciences*, 2(2), 2427-2434.
- Sekeral, U. (2003). *Research methods for business: A skill-building approach* (4thed.). New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.
- Shapiro, D. F. (2003). Facilitating holistic curriculum development. Assessment & *Evaluation in Higher Education*, 28(4), 423-434.
- Slattery, P. (2006). *Curriculum development in the postmodern era*. New York: Routledge.
- Strauss, A., & Corbin, J. (1990). *Basics of qualitative research: Grounded theory procedures and techniques.* Newbury Park, CA: Sage Publications.
- Tarhini, A., Teo, T., & Tarhini, T. (2016). A cross-cultural validity of the E-learning Acceptance Measure (EIAM) in Lebanon and England: A confirmatory factor analysis. *Education and Information Technologies*, 21(5), 1269-1282.
- Thompson, S. K. (2012). Sampling. 3rd edition, London: Sage Publications.
- UNESCO, (2014). EFA Global Monitoring Report 2013/4 Teaching and Learning: Achieving Quality for All. http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0022/002256/ 225660e.pdf.

- United Nations, (2015). Transforming our world: the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development.https://sustainabledevelopment.un.org/post2015/transformingourw orld.
- Voogt, J. M., Pieters, J. M., & Handelzalts, A. (2016). Teacher collaboration in curriculum design teams: effects, mechanisms, and conditions. *Educational Research and Evaluation*, 22(4), 121-140.
- Yamane, T. 1967. *Statistics: An Introductory Analysis*, 2nd Ed., And New York: Harper and Row.

APPENDICES

Appendix I: Proposed Hierarchical Structure of Curriculum Development Process



Author (Year)	Title (Country)	Methodology	Findings
Oloruntegbe (2011)	Examine science teachers' involvement, commitment and innovativeness in curriculum development, implementation and change in Nigeria	Random Sampling Descriptive Statistics	Findings showed teachers were yet to embrace modern techniques, methods, and approaches such as ICT's facilities which would prepare them for better participation in curriculum development.
Huizinga, Handelzalts, Nieveen & Voogt (2014	Participation of Teachers on Curriculum Development in Netherlands	Descriptive Statistics Regression Analysis	Results indicated there was a need to support teachers in design process to enhance their design expertise as the preparation in curriculum development participation
Ramparsad (2001)	Determine effective strategy for teacher involvement in curriculum development in South Africa	Descriptive Statistics Inferential Statistics	Findings indicated that the department of education of South Africa has to dedicate time during each term of the school calendar to conduct enormous in-service programmes if teachers are to make a genuine impact in the curriculum development process
Komba & Mwandaji (2015)	Investigating issues surrounding the implementation of competence based curriculum in Tanzania	Thematic Content Analysis	findings showed 86% of the teachers did not have proper understanding of curriculum development due to poor preparation and non-participation in curriculum development
Grace (2015)	Examine challenges facing teachers in implementing competence based curriculum in secondary schools in Tanzania	Descriptive Statistics	Challenges observed was poor and quality resources provision in teaching and learning
Kassimu (2012)	Views of the teachers in curriculum development participation in Tanzania	Descriptive Statistics	Results showed that teachers faced various challenges implementation of curriculum such as overloaded syllabi, lack of relevant teaching and teaching material, and limited access to ICT facilities
Carl (2005)	Investigate the views of the teachers in curriculum development participation in South Africa.	Descriptive Statistics	Results indicated teachers were excluded for most part in development of curriculum: they were only involved in the implementation of new curriculum

Appendix II: Summary of the Information Collected in the Literature Survey

Appendix III: Questionnaires

Dear Respondent,

I, Wilford Chale, student at Open University of Tanzania currently engaged in a study *Participation in Curriculum Development process: Views of Teachers from selected primary schools in Mwanza City.* In this connection I request you to respond to all items on this questionnaire. The information given will be held confidential and used purely for academic purpose only. Thank you

I. Background information

Instruction: Please put a tick in one box only and fill in where necessary

1. (Gender:			
□ Ferr	nale	Male		
2. A	Age:			
Bel	ow 18	□ 18-27 □	28-37	□ 38-47
□ 48-5	57	Above 57		
3. N	Marital Status			
🗆 Sing	ļle	□ Married	Divorced	
□ Wid	OW			
4. E	Education Level	l		
	tificate Grade A	🗆 Diploma	🗆 Bachelor I	Degree
🗆 Mas	sters Degree			
5. E	Employment Sta	atus		
🗆 Full	Time	Part Time		

6. Teaching Experience

 \Box 1 year - 5 years \Box 6 years - 10 years \Box 11 years - 15 years

 \Box 16 years - 20 years

Section B: Teachers' Participation

I. Teachers' Views on Curriculum Content

To what extent do you agree (dis-agree) with the following? Tick in the appropriate box for the level of agreement about the following statements whereas 1=strongly Disagree, 2=slightly Disagree, 3= Neutral, 4= Slightly Agree, 5= Strongly Agree

s/n	Statement			Response					
		5	4	3	2	1			
	Course content can be implemented within scheduled time								
	Course content is relevant to subject objectives								
	Teachers are involved in course content development								
	Teachers are allowed to revise and improve content								

II. Teachers' Views on Curriculum Evaluation

To what extent do you agree (dis-agree) with the following statements? Tick in the appropriate box for the level of agreement about the following statements whereas 1=Strongly Disagree, 2=Slightly Disagree, 3= Neutral, 4= Slightly Agree, and 5= Strongly Agree

s/n	Statement		Response					
		5	4	3	2	1		
	Recent curriculum evaluation involve teachers views							
	Teachers are involved in formative evaluation							
	Teachers are involved in summative evaluation							
	Teachers are involved in diagnostic evaluation							

III. Assessment on Teachers Views on Educational Guides

To what extent do you agree (dis-agree) with the following

Tick in the appropriate box for the level of agreement about the following statements whereas 1=Strongly Disagree, 2=Slightly Disagree, 3= Neutral, 4= Slightly Agree, and 5= Strongly Agree

s/n	Statement	Response				
		5	4	3	2	1
	Educational guides are effective on curriculum development					
	Teachers are involved in contribution of educational guides					
	Educational guides supports the participation of teachers in situational analysis					

IV. Assessment on Teachers' Views on Educational Policies

To what extent do you agree (dis-agree) with the following Tick in the appropriate box for the level of agreement about the following statements whereas 1=Strongly Disagree, 2=Slightly Disagree, 3= Neutral, 4= Slightly Agree, and 5= Strongly Agree

s/n	Statement		Response					
		5	4	3	2	1		
	Educational policies supports participation of teachers in curriculum development							
	Education policies should be revised and improved							
	Teachers are involved in education policies revision							

Appendix IV: Focus Group Discussion (FDG) Questions

Dear Respondent,

I, Wilford Chale, student at Open University of Tanzania currently engaged in a study *Participation in Curriculum Development process: Views of Teachers from selected primary schools in Mwanza City*. In this connection I request you to respond to all items on this questionnaire. The information given will be held confidential and used purely for academic purpose only. Thank you

1. According to your understanding what is curriculum development?

.....

2. Do you know the person who determines areas of curriculum to be revised and/or improved?

□ Yes □ No

3. Was your school been involved in the development of the national primary school curricular?

□ Yes □ No

4. If NO, why was your school not involved in the development of the national primary school curricular?

.....

-
- 5. If YES, when was the last time your school involved in the development of national primary school curricular?

.....

6. What impacts have been brought forth by your school's involvement in the national curriculum development?

.....

Section II: Teachers' Participation in Curriculum Development

- 1. How is the process of teacher's participation in curriculum development organized?
- 2. What are the expectations of the teachers in participating on curriculum development?
- 3. What type of participation are teachers involved in curriculum development?

Top-down participatory approach Definition Bottom-up participatory approach

4. Have you ever participated in curriculum development?

□ Yes □ No

- 5. If YES, how many times have you participated in curriculum development?
- 6. What resources are available for teachers' participation in curriculum development?

Section III: Teachers' Satisfaction with the Manner of Participation

1. Are you satisfied with the manner of teachers' participation on the curriculum development processes?

□ Yes □ No

2. If YES, explain why do you think the manner of teachers' participation on the curriculum development processes is sufficient?

.....

3. If NO, explain why do you think the manner of teachers' participation in the curriculum development processes is problematic?

.....

- 4. What has been your greatest disappointment the curriculum development processes?
- 5. What do you think should be done to engage more effectively teachers' participation in the curriculum development?

.....

Appendix V: Interview Guide

Section A

Teachers' Interview

- 1. In what ways do teachers participate in curriculum development process?
- 2. At what extent do teachers participate in curriculum development?
- 3. What are the expectations of the teachers in participating on curriculum development?
- 4. How is the process of teacher's participation in curriculum development organized?
- 5. Describe impacts that have been brought forth by your school's involvement in the National curriculum development?
- 6. What kind of resources are available for teachers' participation in curriculum development process?
- 7. What is your view on the mode of teachers' participation on curriculum development? Are you satisfied?
- 8. What should be done to effectively engage teachers on curriculum development?
- 9. What do you know about curriculum capacity building program? What is your view?

10. At what extent teachers participate in curriculum capacity building trainings?

Section B

Curriculum developer Interview

- 1. Describe the process of curriculum development?
- 2. Explain the role of teachers on curriculum development process?
- 3. How is the capacity building program conducted?
- 4. What is your view on teachers' participation on curriculum development? To what extent do they participate in the process?
- 5. What are the bottlenecks for effective participation of teachers on curriculum development?

Section C

Quality Assurer/Inspectorate Officer

- 1. Describe your position in respect to curriculum development.
- 2. Does level of teachers' output in classrooms reflect their participation on curriculum development process? Why?
- 3. What is your view on teachers' participation on curriculum development?
- 4. To what extent present curriculum satisfy pupils' learning objectives and outcomes? Explain.
- 5. To what extent do teachers fulfil content of the current curriculum? Are their teachings reflect curriculum content?

Thank You!