Being and Becoming a Teacher of English:
A Study of Teacher Educators and their Students in
Postcolonial Zanzibar.

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Declaration

This thesis contains no material, which has been accepted for the award of any other degree or diploma in any university or other institution. To the best of my knowledge, this thesis contains no material previously published or written by another person except where due reference is made in the text of the thesis.

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Date:

Ethics

This research project was granted approval by the Monash University Human Research Ethics Committee (MUHREC) on February 25, 2010 (Project Number CF09/3555-2009001908) and research permit (Permit No. ZRP/98) was granted by the Revolutionary Government of Zanzibar (RGOZ) on May 10, 2010.
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Note

To maintain the privacy of informants, all personal names have been changed except the names of the most public figure(s) and/or some institutions. All translation of original Kiswahili data is my own. All and any errors are entirely the author's responsibility.
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Burton’s (1872) quote reminds me that any worthwhile project is never a solitary effort.

‘Of the gladdest moments in human life, methinks, is the departure upon a distant journey into unknown lands. Shaking off with one mighty effort the fetters of Habit, the leaden weight of Routine, the cloak of many Cares, and the slavery of Home, man feels once more happy…A journey, in fact, appeals to the Imagination, to Memory, to Hope,- the three sister Graces of our moral being’ (pp.16-17)

My name may be on the title page of this work, but it could not have come to fruition were it not for the involvement and support of people to whom I owe a tremendous debt of gratitude.

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Dedication

‘Not I, nor anyone else can travel that road for you. You must travel it by yourself. It is not far. It is within reach. Perhaps you have been on it since you were born, and did not know. Perhaps it is everywhere - on water and land’ (Whitman, 2007).

This thesis is dedicated to my sons, Salum and Ahmed; I share with you my thesis, which is a testament to the value of education, and the quest for knowledge (for this world and the hereafter).

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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>AAAL</td>
<td>American Association for Applied Linguistics</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ACTFL</td>
<td>American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AITSL</td>
<td>Australian Institute for Teaching and School Leadership</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A LEVEL</td>
<td>Advanced level</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AL</td>
<td>Applied Linguistics</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BAAL</td>
<td>British Association for Applied Linguistics</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B.A.Ed.</td>
<td>Bachelor of Arts with Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BANA</td>
<td>Britain, Australia, North America</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BC</td>
<td>British Council</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BICS</td>
<td>Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CALP</td>
<td>Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CCK</td>
<td>Chuo Cha Kiislam</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CDP</td>
<td>Continuing Professional Development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DoE</td>
<td>Department of Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DfID</td>
<td>Department of International Development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EAL</td>
<td>English as an Additional Language</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EAP</td>
<td>English for Academic Purposes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EFA</td>
<td>Education for All</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EFL</td>
<td>English as Foreign Language</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EIL</td>
<td>English as an International Language</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ELF</td>
<td>English as a Lingua Franca</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
ELT  English Language Teaching
ELTE  English Language Teacher Education
ELTs  English Language Teachers
EQUIPT ELT  Education Development and Quality Improvement Project for English Language Teacher Training
ESL  English as a Second Language
ESOL  English for Speakers of Other Languages
ESP  English for Specific Purposes
ESR  Education for Self Reliance
EP  Education Policy
FGDs  Focus Group Discussion(s)
FL  Foreign Language
FTLA  Foreign Language Teaching Assistant Programme
GPA  Grading Point System
GT  Grounded Theory
ICT  Information and Communications Technology
INSET  In-service Training
ITE  Initial Teacher Education
ITP  Initial Teacher Preparation
ITT  Initial Teacher Training
KAL  Knowledge about English
LAE  Language and Education
L  Lecturer(s)
<table>
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<tr>
<th>Abbreviation</th>
<th>Full Form</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>L1</td>
<td>First Language</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L2</td>
<td>Second Language</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LE</td>
<td>Language Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LEP</td>
<td>Limited English Proficiency</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LEPs</td>
<td>Language Education Programmes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LiEP</td>
<td>Language-in-education Policy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LoI</td>
<td>Language of instruction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LOITASA</td>
<td>Language of Instruction in Tanzania and South Africa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LoLT</td>
<td>Language of learning and teaching</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LPP</td>
<td>Language Planning and Language Policies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LTED</td>
<td>Language-teacher education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LWC</td>
<td>Language of Wider Communication</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MoECS</td>
<td>Ministry of Education, Culture and Sports</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MoEVT</td>
<td>Ministry of Education and Vocational Training</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MoE</td>
<td>Medium of Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MoI</td>
<td>Medium of Instruction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MT</td>
<td>Mother Tongue</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MTE</td>
<td>Mother Tongue Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MUHREC</td>
<td>Monash University Human Research Ethics Committee</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NBS</td>
<td>National Bureau of Statistics</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NESTs</td>
<td>Native English-Speaking Teachers</td>
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<tr>
<td>NGO</td>
<td>Non-Governmental Organization</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acronym</td>
<td>Description</td>
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<td>---------</td>
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<tr>
<td>NNESTs</td>
<td>Non-Native English-Speaking Teachers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NNSE</td>
<td>Non-Native Speakers of English</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NSE</td>
<td>Native Speaker of English</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NTRC</td>
<td>National Teacher Resource Centre</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NTTC</td>
<td>Nkrumah Teacher Training College</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ODA</td>
<td>Official Development Assistance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>O LEVEL</td>
<td>Ordinary Level</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OSC</td>
<td>Orientation Secondary Class</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PCEs</td>
<td>Postcolonial Englishes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PD</td>
<td>Professional development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PL</td>
<td>Professional learning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PTE</td>
<td>Prospective Teacher of English</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PHC</td>
<td>Population and Housing Census</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RP</td>
<td>Received Pronunciation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RGOZ</td>
<td>Revolutionary Government of Zanzibar</td>
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<tr>
<td>SLTE</td>
<td>Second Language Teacher Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SW</td>
<td>Swahili</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SUZA</td>
<td>State University of Zanzibar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TCs</td>
<td>Teacher Centres</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TE</td>
<td>Teacher Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TEs</td>
<td>Teacher Educators</td>
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<tr>
<td>TEFL</td>
<td>Teaching English as a Foreign Language</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abbreviation</td>
<td>Full Form</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>TESL</td>
<td>Teaching English as a Second Language</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TESEP</td>
<td>Tertiary, Secondary and Primary School Systems</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TESOL</td>
<td>Teaching English to speakers of other languages</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TEYL</td>
<td>Teaching English to Young Learners</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TTCs</td>
<td>Teacher Training Centre(s)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TTELT</td>
<td>Teacher Training for English Language Teaching</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TVZ</td>
<td>Television Zanzibar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UBTE</td>
<td>University-based Teacher Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UDSM</td>
<td>University of Dar es Salaam</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UMCA</td>
<td>Universities’ Mission to Central Africa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UNESCO</td>
<td>United Nation Educational Scientific and Cultural Organization</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UE</td>
<td>University Examination</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UPE</td>
<td>Universal Primary Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>URT</td>
<td>United Republic of Tanzania</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V</td>
<td>Vernacular(s)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VSO</td>
<td>Voluntary Service Overseas</td>
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<tr>
<td>ZEDP</td>
<td>Zanzibar Educational Development Plan/Programme</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ZEP</td>
<td>Zanzibar Education Policy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ZNA</td>
<td>Zanzibar National Archive</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Glossary of Terms

For the purpose of this research, I provide comprehensive definitional discussion of key terms that have been used in this study. The description provided in this glossary are also intended as a quick reference for the reader, and have been arranged in order of priority, and not alphabetically.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Acronym</th>
<th>Term</th>
<th>Description(s)</th>
<th>Source(s)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Kisw.</td>
<td>Kiswahili</td>
<td>The native language of Zanzibar and the mother tongue of Swahili people. It is also spoken in Eastern Africa, and some parts of central Africa. It belongs to the Bantu family of languages, which share an extensive pool of common lexicon and elaborate noun class system. Swahili heavily borrowed Arabic words.</td>
<td>Kurtz (1978), Topan (2008, p.253)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Swahili</td>
<td>It refers to Swahili people (ethnic group of East African people), Swahili culture (the culture of people along East Africa) or Swahili coast (the region of east Africa).</td>
<td>Chiraghdin &amp; Mnyampala (1977), Mazrui &amp; Mazrui (1995)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Zanzibari</td>
<td>Zanzibari is a native, or inhabitant of Zanzibar, and of, or relating to Zanzibar or its inhabitants.</td>
<td>Kurtz (1978)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>L1 First Language</td>
<td>The language a child learns from infancy. Many children learn more than one language from birth and may be said to have more than one ‘first’ language. In the literature, mother tongue is also referred to as first language (L1), or as primary language, native language, mother tongue, home language or language of the home.</td>
<td>Richards, Platt, &amp; Platt (1992)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>L2 Second Language</td>
<td>Any language other than the first language learned. For this reason, the difference between second (L2) or foreign language (FL) is not clear.</td>
<td>Richards et al.(1992, p.124)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Literature differentiates between teaching English as a first language, or L1 (the majority in this country) and teaching English to those who have a different first language. It is only the latter type of teaching that is of concern in this study, and specifically, the teaching of English to adult learners, who after completion of their initial teacher training are expected to pass on skills.</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>L2 User</strong></td>
<td>People who know and use a second language at any level, similar to functional definitions of bilingualism. It is also the point where a speaker can first produce complete meaningful utterances in the other language.</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>SLTE</strong> Second Language Teacher Education</td>
<td>The preparation of training and the education of a second language. An umbrella term for language teacher education (LTED), TESOL or ELT. SLTE intends to provide opportunities for the novices to acquire the skills and competencies of effective teachers and to discover the working rules that effective teachers use. Issues in SLTE are how beginning language teachers acquire knowledge and skills and begin to build a working model of effective teaching.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>TESOL</strong> Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages</td>
<td>It encompasses TEFL (Teaching English as a Foreign Language) and TESL (Teaching English as a Second Language)</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Wright (2010)</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>TESL</strong> Teaching English as Second Language</td>
<td>Name by which TESOL was known prior to the 1990s. TESL tends to emphasize the needs of learners who will use English in their daily lives, in addition to their mother tongue.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Wright (2010)</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abbreviation</td>
<td>Description</td>
<td>Details</td>
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<tr>
<td>TEFL</td>
<td>Teaching English as a Foreign Language</td>
<td>English Language Provision for learners whose L1 is not English. TEFL emphasizes aspects of teaching English in countries where English is not widely used in daily life.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ELT</td>
<td>English Language Teaching</td>
<td>An umbrella term for all forms of provision where English is taught to those who have a different L1. Other related discourses: English for Speakers of Other Languages (ESOL), English as a Foreign Language (EFL), English as a Second Language (ESL), Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL). Teaching English as a Second Language (TESL), Second Language Pedagogy (SLL) also known as L2 Pedagogy. Other discourses which are not directly related to this work, but are still part of ELT, are English for Young Learners (EYL), English for Specific purposes (ESP) and English for Academic Purposes (EAP), and English as an additional language (EAL), Business English (BE).</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TESL</td>
<td>Teaching English as Second Language</td>
<td>Name by which TESOL was known prior to the 1990s. TESL tends to emphasize the needs of learners who will use English in their daily lives, in addition to their mother tongue.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TEFL</td>
<td>Teaching English as a Foreign Language</td>
<td>English Language Provision for learners whose L1 is not English. TEFL emphasizes aspects of teaching English in countries where English is not widely used in daily life.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BANA</td>
<td>Britain, Australia, and North America</td>
<td>Countries where English is used as L1 and taught extensively as the L2 or FL. These are English-speaking countries, which are perceived to dominate the international ESL/EFL community in terms of teacher, materials, pedagogy, research and methodological innovation.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Wright (2010) for TEFL, ELT, TESL, and BANA.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Acronym</th>
<th>Definition</th>
<th>Reference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>TESEP</td>
<td>Tertiary, Secondary and Primary school systems</td>
<td>Holliday (1994)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Countries where English is not spoken as L1 but where it has an important place in the education systems.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>First world</td>
<td>Countries where English is used as a first language commonly known as centre (see BANA).</td>
<td>Gitlin, Buendia, Crosland &amp; Doumbia (2003)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Margin (third world)</td>
<td>Countries where ex-colonial language(s) are used as a second or foreign language in education and taught as a subject or language of teaching and learning.</td>
<td>Gitlin, Buendia, Crosland &amp; Doumbia (2003)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ELTE</td>
<td>English Language Teacher Education</td>
<td>Cross &amp; Gearon (2004)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Teacher preparation in the field of TESOL/ESL/ EFL in BANA countries and in non-BANA countries.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EFL</td>
<td>English as a Foreign Language</td>
<td>Richards et al. (1992, pp.123-124)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The role of English in countries where it is taught as a subject in schools but not used as a medium of instruction in education nor as a language of communication (e.g. government, business, or industry) with the country</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ESL</td>
<td>English as Second Language</td>
<td>Richards et al. (1992, p.124)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The role of English in countries where it is widely used within the country (e.g. as a language of instruction at school, a language of business/ government, and everyday communication by some people) but it is not the L1 of the population. This definition is different from the definition used in BANA countries where ESL refers to the role of English for immigrant and other minority groups in English-speaking countries. These people use their mother tongue among friends, but use English at school or at work</td>
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<tr>
<td>ELF</td>
<td>English as Lingua Franca</td>
<td>Seidhofler (2005)</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Communication in English between speakers with different first languages</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>NNESTs</td>
<td>Non-Native English-Speaking Teachers</td>
<td>Teachers for whom English is a required tool of their profession. For such teachers, English is neither the first nor the only language. It is also neither their home language nor the language of day-to-day communication</td>
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<tr>
<td>NESTs</td>
<td>Native English-Speaking Teachers</td>
<td>Teachers of English for whom English is the first, and perhaps, the only language. The category can however be subdivided into territories where English language is without major competition from another language as in the United Kingdom, Australia and/or those from territories with one or more other major language as in South Africa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LoI</td>
<td>Language of instruction</td>
<td>A language, which is used in teaching and learning process in educational system. It is a tool by which knowledge and skills are imparted in Tanzania educational system.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MoI</td>
<td>Medium of instruction</td>
<td>The language used in education, also known as Medium of Education (MoE). Most countries use the standard variety or their national languages as mediums of instruction. The term MoI is widely used in literature. In some contexts, it is referred to as Language of Instruction (LoI) or Language of learning and teaching (LoLT) as in South Africa. For consistency, in this study, the term LoI has been used throughout the thesis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MTE</td>
<td>Mother Tongue Education</td>
<td>Four criteria are used to define mother tongue origin, identification, competence and function: Origin: the language one learned first (the language one has established the first long-lasting verbal contacts in) Identification (internal and external) that is the language one identifies with/as a native speaker of, or the language one is identified with/as a native speaker of, by others.</td>
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| **BE** | **Competence** | Competence: the language one knows best  
Function: the language one uses most |
<table>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Bilingual education</strong></td>
<td><strong>Function</strong></td>
<td>Learning a language and using that second language as a MoI in different subjects in the curriculum.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Diglossia</strong></td>
<td><strong>High and Low variety</strong></td>
<td>The two very divergent varieties of the same language for different societal functions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Fishman (1972)</strong></td>
<td><strong>High and Low variety</strong></td>
<td>In a diglossic situation, the two varieties are markedly different and their function tends to separated. The low (L) language variety is generally used in informal, oral contexts and the high (H) variety in formal, often written contexts. The well-known example diglossic situations exist in Arabic-speaking countries and German speaking part of Switzerland. Fishman (1972) extended the idea of diglossia to two languages existing side by side within geographical area. In both situations, different languages or varieties may be used for different purposes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Anglophone-Saxon</strong></td>
<td><strong>Anglophone-Saxon</strong></td>
<td>Former British colonies where English, (though not the mother tongue), has special status as an official language, the language of advanced academic study, and is, in some of these countries, the sole medium of instruction. It is also used as the language of government business, as well as national, regional and international communication. In most of these countries, Anglo-Saxon has influenced the language education programmes.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TEs</strong></td>
<td><strong>Teacher Educators</strong></td>
<td>Teacher educators in this work are teachers of teachers engaged in the induction and professional learning of future teachers through pre-service courses and/or the further development of serving teachers through in-service</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Swennen &amp; Van der Klink (2009)</strong></td>
<td><strong>Cochran-Smith (2003)</strong></td>
<td>Turney &amp; Wright (1990)**</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*xxxvi*
Courses. Those teachers in higher education and in schools who are formally involved in pre-service and/or in-service teacher education. This means that those who work (full-time or part-time) in teacher education institutes, whether these are colleges or faculties of education, or in schools and are involved in teaching and supervising student teachers are teacher educators. This also means that those who are involved in the professional development of teachers are regarded as teacher educators.

<p>| PTE | Prospective Teachers of English | ‘Apprenticeship’ or a teacher candidate who enrolled in an ELTE program, involved in becoming a teacher, or developing new skills as a practicing teacher, and has met the subject-matter requirement and the professional preparation requirements. Person involved in becoming a teacher or developing new skills as a practicing teacher (also teacher candidates or student teachers) | Lortie (1975) |
| Stakeholders | Any group or individual who can affect or is affected by the achievement of the firm’s objectives. In this study, ELT stakeholders involve ELT practitioners (teacher educators, prospective teachers, and graduates), university officials, ministry officials, and Zanzibar public. | Freeman (1984) |
| ELTP | ELT practitioners | Educational professional involved in ELT activities, which may or may not include teaching Teachers in higher education (colleges or universities) and in schools who are formally involved in teaching English. In specific terms, I have distinguished these ELT practitioners into three groups: teacher educators (lecturers at university), prospective teachers (also student-teachers in initial teacher education) | Swennen &amp; Van der Klink (2009) |</p>
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<th>Initial Teacher Education (ITE)</th>
<th>Teacher education and teacher training (TETT)</th>
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<tr>
<td>Description</td>
<td>The programmes intended for entrants, likely to be school leavers, who have not started working in the classroom, or mature entry students who have teaching experience.</td>
<td>Preparation for teaching that enables the trainee to deal with unpredictable situations in the classroom. The terms are often used interchangeably in the literature to refer to the 'professional preparation of teachers'. The preparation for professional practice usually through formal courses at colleges or universities. It usually results in some kind of recognized accreditation, granting successful candidates a certificate and the right to put letters after their names. It is the formal acquisition of basic classroom skills, knowledge and routines. A plethora of scholars prefer ‘teacher education’ to ‘training’ since training can imply unthinking habit formation and an over-emphasis on skills and techniques, while the professional teacher needs to develop theories, awareness of options, and decision-making abilities(a process which seems better defined by the word education)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher Development</td>
<td>The professional learning by teachers already engaged in professional practice, usually through reflective discussion sessions based on current classroom experience. It is a life-long process of growth, which may involve collaborative and autonomous learning, but the important distinction is that teachers are engaged in the process and they actively reflect on their practices. It involves four types of growth: knowledge, skills, judgments and the contributions teachers make to a professional community. Teacher development, on its own, is not a very effective means for bringing about change.</td>
<td>Crandall (2000)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher Training and Teacher Development</td>
<td>It encompasses both training and developmental processes. The distinction between ‘training and education’ and ‘professional development’ is that training and education is something that can be presented or managed by others; whereas development is something that can be done only by and for oneself. The distinction ceases to be a useful if the two concepts are considered to be completely separable or mutually exclusive. They are of optimal value when they come together. One needs a combination of aspects of development and training.</td>
<td>Ur (1997)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PL</td>
<td>It connotes individual autonomy and motivation, an image of professionals consciously monitoring their professional practice, learning from their work, and arriving at new understandings or knowledge on that basis. and about drawing a simple separation. It is a continuum from pre-service teacher preparation onward throughout a teacher’s career.</td>
<td>Feiman-Nemser (2001) Ingvarson, Meiers &amp; Beavis (2003) Britzman (2003) Doecke et al. (2008, p.21).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PD</td>
<td>Professional Development</td>
<td>It is an evolving process of professional self-disclosure, reflection, and growth that yields the best results when sustained over time. It is usually taken to mean activities done at the behest of employers or systems, involving knowledge that is delivered by outside experts.</td>
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<tr>
<td>LTPs</td>
<td>Language teaching programmes</td>
<td>There are many types of language teaching programmes around the world. For example, bilingual education programs include immersion, double immersion and dual language bilingual education.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BEP</td>
<td>Bilingual education programmes:</td>
<td>It uses the language as a medium of instruction. It teaches content through an additional language other than the learner’s home language.</td>
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<tr>
<td>LP</td>
<td>Language proficiency</td>
<td>Being able to use that language to express a wide variety of meanings in a range of contexts: academic, social, informal, and formal. It means mastery of the phonological (sound), semantic (vocabulary), morphological (word forming), syntactic (grammatical), and pragmatic (social/functional) systems of language. Those learning a new language will be gradually developing skills and knowledge in all of these domains in order to use language to accomplish particular goals. There are three different ways of categorizing the components of language proficiency also known as sociolinguistic competence.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Language competence</td>
<td>The competence in a language involves communicative, grammatical, discourse, sociolinguistic, and strategic competence. This means a person portrays command of language not only by creating and understanding grammatical sentences accurately, but also in several other aspects, called</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Second Language Competence</strong></td>
<td>The ability to ‘use’ and ‘teach’ second language. It has reference to ‘a person’s ability to create and understand sentences, including sentences they have never heard before a person’s knowledge of what are and what are not sentences’</td>
<td>Richards et al. (1985, p.52)</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Effective English Teaching</strong></td>
<td>‘The development of teachers of English, and how programmes can contribute to the process of development. Effective second language teachers recognize the societal influences (such as the language policy, language attitudes, the domains of use, the status of that language, and so on) that impinge on effective education in general, and on language learning in particular. They also seek to find the best ways to overcome limitations to effective teaching arising from these influences. Effective teachers also recognize that their task in ELT is influenced by factors at whole-school level that dictate what happens at the classroom level.’</td>
<td>Borg (2006b) Calabria (1960) Feldman (1976,1988,1992,1993)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Language Acquisition and Language Learning</strong></td>
<td>‘Acquisition’ is the product of a subconscious process very similar to the process children undergo when they acquire their first language. ‘Learning’ is the product of formal instruction and it comprises a conscious process, which results in conscious knowledge ‘about’ the language</td>
<td>Krashen (1985, pp. 2-3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Additive Bilingualism</td>
<td>A situation where a second language (L2) is acquired without any loss of the first language (L1).</td>
<td>Cummins (1979, p. 229)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Subtractive bilingualism</td>
<td>A situation where the L1 is gradually (but often, not so gradually) replaced by a more prestigious L2.</td>
<td>Cummins (1979, p. 229)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CS</td>
<td>Code switching</td>
<td>A person changing from one language to another and back in oral or written communication or switching between two languages (codes). The concept of code switching is sometimes used interchangeably with code mixing.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CM</td>
<td>Code mixing</td>
<td>A speaker of one language mixes words from other language during conversation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Language awareness</td>
<td>Helping the student raising awareness of language itself.</td>
<td>Wright &amp; Bolitho (1993)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quality</td>
<td>The array of processes (inputs) that go into producing teachers of English (outputs). Inputs include suitability of the trainee recruits, the trainers, the curriculum, and all the procedures therein. Outputs refer to external efficiency in terms of the professional language teachers displaying ‘a sense of public service; high standards of professional conduct; and the ability to perform some specified demanding and socially useful tasks in a demonstrably competent manner.</td>
<td>Wallace (1991, p.5) Harvey &amp; Green (1993)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher quality</td>
<td>‘Teacher quality involves ‘quality teachers’ and ‘quality teaching’. The ‘quality teachers’ refer to ‘issues relevant ...’</td>
<td>Liddicoat, Tognini, Fischmann, Harbon, Kohler, &amp; McLaughlin</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
to teachers’ knowledge and practices in languages teaching, while the ‘quality teaching’ refers to ‘effective teaching which relies on many factors—the knowledge base of teachers being one of them.

Dinham (2011)
Abstract

The quality of teaching that occurs in schools is directly linked to the quality of initial teacher education (ITE). This is very important in the area of English Language Teaching (ELT) in postcolonial Zanzibar, similar to other parts of Africa. Although, English is the language of instruction (LoI), many years of poor results on national examinations raise questions about this approach. Despite well-evidenced failure, universities continue to enroll future teachers into problematic university programmes, which perpetuate rather than address the problems associated with the preparation of teachers of English.

The purpose of this study is to identify the strengths and weaknesses of an English language teacher education (ELTE) programme at the university level.

The study focuses on the grounded stories of teacher educators and their students. It explores the views of teacher educators of English about the ELTE programme.

The main finding shows that participants pay more attention to learning English rather than to teaching English effectively. Analysis also revealed that participants perceive ELTE programme as an English language improvement programme rather than a programme that prepares successful teachers of English.

Apart from the ‘lack of everything’ culture that all participants referred to as a major barrier, the programme ignores the basic principles and pedagogy of second language teacher education (SLTE). Consequently, taken-for-granted routines dominate.

The analysis reveals that many are driven by the symbolic power of English and bear the stamp of positive attitudes toward English but negative mental images about the teaching career.
PART 1: LOCATING MY STUDY IN CONTEXT
CHAPTER 1
INTRODUCTION TO THE THESIS

1.0 INTRODUCTION

Key themes in educational reforms in the first world \(^1\) have been about second
language teacher education (Lo Bianco, 2009; Wright, 2010) and the quality of Initial
Teacher Education (ITE) programmes\(^2\) (Darling-Hammond, 2000a).

Second language (L2) studies show that most of these countries review language
policies in education to abandon the monolingual outlook in their policies (McKay,
2002; Euridyce, 2005; Liddicoat, 2007; Liddicoat & Scarino, 2010; Marginson, 2013).
They focus of the review was on quality education, expectations or outcomes of teacher
education programmes (Cochran-Smith, 2002a; Smith & Lynch, 2010; Kothari, 2012).
Understanding the impacts of teacher education programmes is also a critical part for
ongoing reforms in education (Diez, 2010). What is significant in the discussions of
language education and teacher education is that teacher education studies show that the
quality of teaching occurring in schools is directly linked to the quality of training that
teachers receive (Turney & Wright, 1990; Committee for the Review of Teaching and
Teacher Education, 2003; Musset, 2010; Sadler, 2011).

It has been widely documented that ITE is foundational to quality teachers, and
provides the first step in the professional development of teachers. It exposes
prospective teachers to new perspectives and prepares them in knowledge and skills,

\(^1\) These include Britain, Australia, and North America (Holliday, 1994, 2001) or inner circle
countries (Kachru, 1991) (also the historical native speakers (See Anchimbe, 2006).

\(^2\) It is also known as Initial Teacher Training (ITT), or pre-service teacher education. For clarity
purposes, I used Initial Teacher Education (ITE) throughout the thesis.
which forms the basis for quality practices and effective teaching (Gerges, 2001) (see

Darling-Hammond (2000a, pp.166-169) notes that although traditional teacher
preparation programmes have been and continue to be criticized, a growing body of
empirical evidence indicates that teachers who have had more preparation for teaching
are more confident and successful with students than those who have had little or none.
Darling-Hammond (2000a) further added that the extent and quality of teacher
education matter for teachers’ effectiveness.

This study is about teachers of English and their students at university level. My
interest in an empirical study is partly inspired by the fact that much has been written
about Language of Instruction (LoI), and very little has been written on English
Language Teaching (ELT), hence a new research territory for Second Language
Teacher Education (SLTE) researchers as discussed in Chapter 3.

Inspite of a recent upsurge of studies of non-native\(^3\) studies of non-native
English Speaking teachers (NNESTs) in the global discourse of ELT within the context
of native and non-native speaking countries, the experiences, perceptions and voices of
NNESTs working within their own educational systems remain seriously under-
investigated (Tsui, 2003; Llurda, 2005; Moussu & Llurda, 2008; Hayes, 2009). If this
status quo is not disturbed, I argue that the language education and the potential

\[^3\text{In this study, the use of the term (historical) native speaker does not disregard proficiency or professional ability in ELT. According to Anchimbe (2006), the historical native speaker is someone born in one of the native English-speaking countries (Britain, USA, Australia, New Zealand, and Canada). This is in opposition to those who have English as a second language(i.e. the postcolonial varieties).}\]
contribution of teachers of English in postcolonial Zanzibar may continue to ‘remain unknown’ [my emphasis].

The impetus for this exploration comes from literature search and empirical studies, which show that there is little international research, which specifically explores prospective teachers who enter ITE at university in non-BANA countries. Literature reviewed confirms that previous studies on non-Native Speakers of English (NNSE) have been mostly conducted in native English speaking contexts. These studies have been criticized for being centre-driven (Derbel & Richards, 2007), advocating the monolithic view of ELT based on Western conceptions of practice (Hayes, 2009), conveying monolingual bias (Kachru, 1994) in Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) and Applied Linguistics research continuum which result in practices of discrimination to NNSE, and instilling monolingual mindset and practices (Clyne, 2008). This phenomenon is not unique to Zanzibar, where this research study is set. The problem is a common shared phenomenon in first world context and the margin, as well as in BANA/TESEP environments (Holliday, 1994). Based on the literature survey on ELT and Zanzibar conducted by Rea-Dickins, Clegg and

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4 In this thesis, the term ‘Zanzibar’ (location) and ‘Zanzibari’ (people) were used.
5 Britain, Australia, and North America.
6 In this study, I used the term ‘native speaker’ and ‘non-native speaker’. The ‘nativeness’ and ‘non-nativeness’ are linguistically and conceptually problematic concepts to define. However, literature informs that they are still common in the worldwide discourse of ELT, and are generally accepted for there is a lack of alternative (See Rampton, 1990; Bamgbose, 2001; Hayes, 2009, p.1).
7 In this study, I have used the term ‘first world context’ and ‘margin’ to refer to BANA countries, and ‘margin’ refer to non-BANA countries. See also centre / periphery distinction and the native versus non-native speaker debate (Holliday, 2001).
8 In this study, BANA stands for the approach to language learning and teaching practiced and promoted in Britain, Australasia and North America and TESEP for the approach found in tertiary, secondary and primary sectors throughout the world. It is important to emphasize that TESEP is practice in BANA countries (i.e. Kachru’s inner circle as well as the outer and expanding circle countries). Similarly, BANA practices are in TESEP environments.
Rubagumya (2005), there appears to have been no investigation into the quality of English Language Teacher Education (ELTE) programmes, and whether they are meeting the needs of the ELT stakeholders, in particular teachers of English and their students (Pienemann, 1989).

Based on some previous work of Dewey (1938), Freire (1972), Giroux (1992 & 2012), and Pennycook (2001), it is clear that Language Teacher Education (LTE) approaches (Roberts, 1998) and Teacher Education (TE) models (Cochran-Smith, 2005) are mostly produced by theorists from first world, international contexts or English speaking countries.

Accordingly, this is of particular importance to Zanzibar, and the field of ELT for several reasons: the status of English in a globalized world is on the rise with most people considering English as an International Language (EIL), an international tool (McKay, 2002) and is therefore taught in many countries either as a second language (L2) or as a foreign language (FL). Identifying strengths and weaknesses is vital if the quality of ELTE is to improve in postcolonial Zanzibar.

Hence, the ‘ELT’ in this study become a field of interest and worth exploring within any educational system. It also warrants the creation of new parameters for the ELT providers or for institutions entrusted with educating teachers of English as a L2 or FL in Zanzibar.

English has been used by Non-Native Speakers of English (NNSE), oftentimes in the absence of Native Speakers of English (NSE), in non-Western socio-cultural contexts and is in constant contact with indigenous or other languages. In the case of my study, English is in constant contact with Kiswahili. Several studies have clearly highlighted that the number of English-users is exceedingly high. Three quarters of the English as a second language (ESL) or English as a foreign language (EFL) teaching
workforce worldwide are NNESTs (Kachru, 1996⁹) (see Canagarajah, 2005; Graddol, 2006). In the context of Zanzibar, ELT practitioners do fit into the category of NNESTs, however, there is a lack of NNESTs studies in Zanzibar context while in the international context, studies are very sketchy (Medgyes, 1994; Garton, Copland, & Burns, 2011; Emery, 2012).

Despite the perennial debates among educators of its legitimacy, English continues to enjoy the prestige it used to have, and this prestige mostly resides in education (Rubagumya, 2003). Yet, the voices and perceptions of teacher educators and their students (prospective teachers of English and graduates) have not been extensively explored. This situation warrants further studies in NNSE context such as Zanzibar.

Recent studies show that a number of several education initiatives and ELT reforms have been introduced intending to improve education in postcolonial Zanzibar such as Zanzibar Education Development Programme (ZEDP) (see MoEVT, 2007). However, despite the good intentions of all education reforms (Lynch & Smith, 2011). I argue that following global trends in reforms does not necessarily mean that there are clear commitments when it comes to language education or teacher preparation.

On the other hand, a recent study conducted in Zanzibar shows that little room was made to accommodate the perspectives and voices of teacher educators, teachers and their students (the main curriculum implementers) in new education reforms (Babaci-Wilhite, 2012a, 2013b). It is hoped that the actual voices and views from the

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⁹ In this work, I recognize that Kachru’s model has limitations that is the concentric circles—inner circle (English is a native language), the outer circle (English is a second language), and expanding circle (English is a foreign language). I have chosen to consider the Kachru’s model to focus on geography and nativeness, and proficiency (see Rajadurai, 2005).
margin, the NNSE contexts have the potential to give insights and inform the complexity of ELT worldwide.

Another significance of the study resides in the fact that the teacher educators and their students are a unique group, which have not been thoroughly researched, and are not being well understood. Currently, the ELTE programmes and the teaching of English at university level do not reflect what I found in the literature. However, it is important to study this particular context rather than relying on conclusion drawn by other studies conducted in Tanzania mainland or elsewhere.

The study also provides a powerful NNEST lens, which opens a key insightful gaze at issues of theoretical, professional, and practical interests in ELT, TESOL and Applied Linguistics in Zanzibar (see Kachru, 1994; Mahboob, 2010).

This state of affairs warrants the study of teachers of English and their students in Zanzibar. To help redress this gap, this qualitative study conducted from 2009-2013 seeks to identify the main strengths and weaknesses of ELTE programme at university level. The study utilized grounded narratives from teachers of English in two domains of teacher education (university and schools\textsuperscript{10}) (Goodson, 1973; Goodson & Sikes, 2001; Harrison, 2003; Corbin & Strauss, 2008).

Based on teacher educators and prospective teachers’ perspectives, the study further explores issues that impact on how ELT is taught/learnt or practiced through focus group discussions (FGDs), interviews and follow-up interviews, scratch pads of thoughts to records of language learning experiences, informal observations,

\textsuperscript{10} In this thesis, university refers to teacher domain 1, and schools refers to teacher domain 2.
researcher’s field notes and reflections. By doing so, the study profiled the ‘safari\(^{11}\)’ of teacher educators and their students, explored the patterns of their experiences as an important aspect of the journey to becoming a teacher of English.

The study is grounded in language and teacher education theories, with particular reference to the principles of teaching and learning L2 and drew substantially from a postcolonial framework. The research theorized the ‘safari’ of teachers of English, discussed the strengths and weaknesses identified, and then sought to address the impacts that bring tensions and contradictions in the preparation of teachers of English in ITE. The sections that follow present the central argument of the thesis, assumptions, purpose and scope of the research, research questions, introducing the emerging metaphor ‘safari’. The introductory chapter concludes with a description of the thesis organization and a chapter summary.

1.1 CENTRAL ARGUMENT

Researchers consider language proficiency and language competencies to be the primary objective of language education. However, Kleinhenz, Wilkinson, Gearon, Fernandez, and Ingvarson (2007) argued that proficiency is not sufficient by itself for language teachers (pp.62-63). Other qualifications such as knowledge-base, pedagogical, personal and interpersonal skills are required.

Numerous research evidence from Tanzania show that, in many cases, students and teachers in Tanzania are not at a level of competency in English that allows for

\(^{11}\) Safari (noun) is a Swahili word meaning “long journey”. It entered the English language in the late 19th Century. Originally, it is from the Arabic language سفرة (safra) meaning a journey. The word ‘safari’ is mainly used in East Africa (Tanzania, Kenya, Uganda) to mean any type of journey, be an overland journey, sea or hunting expedition. The person generally attributed to having used the word in English is the famous explorer, Sir Richard Francis Burton (1821-1890).
effective learning and teaching through that medium (Roy-Campbell, 1992a, 1992b, Mwinsheikhe, 2001, 2003; Brock-Utne & Halmarsdottir, 2003; Brock-Utne, 2000, 2013; Malekela, 2003; Mkwizu, 2003; Puja, 2003; Peterson, 2006; Babaci-Wilhite, 2010, 2012b; Rea-Dickins & Yu, 2013). Similarly, related themes can be observed from other studies (Evans, 2011; Babaci-Wilhite, 2012b, 2013a, 2013c; Hamid, Nguyen, & Baldauf Jr, 2013). Another recent study conducted by Gran (2007, p.92) on Language of Instruction (LoI) on Tanzanian Higher Education highlighted the fact that ‘Tanzanians do not differentiate between learning English and learning in English’. Similar opinion has been expressed by several scholars that Tanzanians equate teaching through the English medium with learning English (Rubagumya, 2003; Ismail, 2007). In general, it may be argued that English as LoI in Tanzania have educability problem (Bernstein, 1971; Senkoro, 2004, 2005; Flude & Ahier, 2012).

As far as I am aware, there is no research at university level in Zanzibar that explain how ELT practitioners are trained to become teachers of English, and no research that has identified if there any drivers or inhibitors in ELTE programmes. Since this thesis is the first in Zanzibar to focus exclusively on ELT at university, as part of the ITE programme that prepare second language learners to become teachers of English in Zanzibar, there are clearly a number of issues that need a thorough investigation regarding the role of teacher training institutions.

I would therefore argue that studies related to university-based teacher education programmes are long overdue and essential. Accordingly, my central argument is that the ‘nitty-gritty’ programmes that prepare teachers of English are poorly understood in postcolonial Zanzibar, and there is a need for a thorough study of teacher educators and their students. Hence, the exploration of this qualitative study on ELT programmes at university had two aims: to profile the journey of teachers of English, and share views, experiences and perspectives of teacher educators and their students, both in university
and schools. In order to do this, this research investigation seeks to uncover some possible strengths and weaknesses of ELT programme at university level, and then document how these identified strengths and weaknesses have an impact on how ELT is taught and practiced in postcolonial Zanzibar.

1.2 INTRODUCING SAFARI METAPHOR

In this section, I briefly introduce the safari metaphor that frames this study. I also present the circumstances in which the metaphor ‘safari’ emerged and morphed in the study. The metaphor is further developed in subsequent chapters as demonstrated in Chapters 4, 5, 6, 7 and 8. ‘Safari’ has become the defining metaphor in this study as it describes the experiences of teacher educators and their students in their domains. Safari is not a new concept—it has existed for centuries. The idea of using ‘safari’ as specific metaphor to guide the descriptions of teachers of English journey strongly emerged from the data collected. ‘Safari’ is a Swahili word meaning a long journey originally from the Arabic سفرية (safarīyah), meaning to go from one place to another, and this

12 Informed by the work of postcolonial writers such as Anne-Hickling-Hudson (2006), Jane Tompkins (2001), Michelle Cliff (1985), Linda Tuhiwai Smith (1999), Barbara Kamler (2001) and Linda Brodkey (1987, 1994, 1996), the researcher incorporates the use of first person singular “I” because it allows the researcher to take ownership, deep familiarity with the subject, responsibility of what is being stated and a voice. This is not a self-study thesis, however the personal pronoun “I” has been employed only as a point of departure. The main aim is to go beyond self so that I can generate knowledge and uncover deeper knowledge for the profession of ELT in Zanzibar (see Hamilton, Loughran, & Marcondes, 2009). The ‘I’ is strengthened by the use of data from teachers educators and their students, complemented by influential key stakeholders in which their voices highlight the alternative views that challenge what might be taken-for-granted assumptions about ELT practice in Zanzibar. The cartographic ‘I’ was used because it allows the researcher [me] to produce writing that integrates the personal with the professional. The notion of ‘academic storytelling’ assumes no clear division between conventional categories of ‘creative’ and ‘scholarly’ writing.

13 The word ‘safari’ entered English in the late 19th Century. In the west, some people thinks safari is an English word while some think safari is a holiday tour in Africa in the thick of the wild in remote areas with Khaki suit in an open green jeep, wildebeest and wild animal. In this work ‘safari’ is
may include all forms of movement: physical (land, water, space) and spiritual. In any case, ‘safari is safari’ literally translated “a journey is a journey”- whether it is an overland journey, hunting expedition or a sea sailing, one needs preparation, skills and knowledge before embarking on a journey. The metaphor ‘safari’ fits the teacher educators and their students’ narratives, and descriptions of their experiences. The metaphor further elaborates their professional learning journey in two territories of teacher education, that is university (a place of knowledge) and the school (a place of action). Clandinin and Connelly (1995, p.89) suggest that we seek to understand the stories, myths, rituals and symbols that are part of these often taken-for-granted and silent manifestations of professional knowledge contexts.

In this work, the use of the metaphor was significant to the analysis (Thornbury, 1991; Deignan, 2005). Lakoff and Johnson (1980) describe metaphors as useful tools because they serve to explain and understand complex concepts and processes that happen around us. A metaphor is a device that carries over, or transfers, meaning from one conceptual domain to another (Lackoff & Johnson, 1980). As Bhatia (2007, p.510) explains that the use of metaphor enables the creation of new and alternate realities that make feasible otherwise unfeasible or overly imaginative correlations, thereby allowing an individual conceptualization of reality to appear more convincing because of the invocation of emotions

1.3 ASSUMPTIONS

ELT has been receiving considerable attention around the world due to the increasing importance of English in a globalized world. ELT studies have taken huge strides in the field of language teaching over the past few decades. This situation has about the process of being and becoming a teacher of English in Zanzibar, which is theorized as ‘an open deep sea’ journey.
potential for improving the teaching of English, and has had positive implications in many parts of the world (Issa, 2011). However, this has not been the case in postcolonial Zanzibar. This might have serious negative implications for Zanzibar.

Extensive literature reviews indicate that there is a dearth of knowledge in language education programmes (such as ELT) in university-based initial teacher education (UBITE)\(^\text{14}\) in Zanzibar. The literature on Second Language Teacher Education (SLTE)\(^\text{15}\) at university level was very limited in scope and focus. A review of previous studies mainly covered primary and secondary schools level rather than university level. Like elsewhere in the world, Tanzanians favour the use of English as LoI, and recent research show that there has been much pressure to introduce English as LoI at an early age without proper teacher preparation programs for teachers of English. On the other hand, while the desire to master English increase, studies shows that a large body of scholarship devoted to LoI in Tanzania. In postcolonial Zanzibar, the review of ELT\(^\text{16}\) literature reveals that the dearth of school-based applied linguistic research still persist for decades (Rea-Dickins et al., 2005). So far, no systematic studies or literature reviews that theorize the journey of teachers of English. Review of literature indicates that the studies paid no specific attention to context of Zanzibar when it comes to the preparation of teachers of English in higher education. Although there are few studies to refer to, upon a close examination of the available research evidence, literature review, anecdotal evidence, editorial cartoons and comments, 

\(^\text{14}\) For convenience and for maintaining consistency, this thesis uses the word university-based initial teacher education (UBITE) programme to cover Initial Teacher Education (ITE) and English Language Teacher Education Programme (ELTE) at university.

\(^\text{15}\) Second Language Teacher Education (SLTE) coined by Richards (1990) to cover the preparation-training and education-of L2 teachers is an umbrella term for language teacher education in TESOL (or ELT). In this work, ELT is an umbrella term for SLTE and L2 pedagogy.

\(^\text{16}\) In this work, ELT and SLTE are used interchangeably.
newspaper articles and narratives, conversational narratives from experts and personal accounts (see Appendix 1A, 1B and 2); a number of assumptions guide the current study:

- ELT in Zanzibar is like a ‘revolving door’\textsuperscript{17} because the problem of language education is related to inadequate language-in-education policy (LIEP) design, poor understanding of language education and its implementation
- The educability problem and other (pre)existing issues in and around education, ELT and LoI are responsible for the (re)production and the vicious cycle of poor teachers of English
- The ELT stakeholders continue to be ill-informed about the language education and language-in-education (ELT versus LoI)
- Oftentimes, the teaching and learning of a second language (L2) and foreign language (FL) is not done effectively. L2/FL teaching is taken for granted, under-resourced, inadequately plans and preparations. This tends to generate pressure, ambitious expectations and input-output problems, which in turn frustrates teacher educators and their students, and possibly the community. As a result, the principles of teaching and learning a L2 or FL have no chance to be used in their its own right
- The quality of teaching that occurs in schools is greatly impacted by the ITE preparation and the effectiveness of the teacher education programmes
- The advocacy of bilingual education policy in educational setting take places in violation of Zanzibar Education Policy (2006)\textsuperscript{18}

\textsuperscript{17} I used Lundy’s (2008) door metaphor because it attracted my attention for its logic i.e. the nature and functions of a door fits for the purpose of description.

\textsuperscript{18} MoEVT(2007, pp. 9-10) states that Kiswahili shall continue as the medium of instruction (MoI) in public pre-primary and primary schools except for mathematics and science subjects up to
• The competence and proficiency of English is regarded as more important than the effective training of teachers

The subsequent sections (1.4 and 1.5) present the purpose and scope of the study, and the circumstances in which my research questions emerged. The motivation for and the aims of the research are further explained in Chapter 4.

1.4 PURPOSE AND SCOPE OF THE STUDY

In any research, it is also important to define the boundaries clearly from the outset. The focus of my study is Zanzibar, a part of the United Republic of Tanzania (URT). Since 1964, the islands of Unguja and Pemba have autonomy in internal affairs and have its own executive, judiciary and legislative system. Zanzibar, a semi-autonomous country, has its own education system and has recently redefined its policy for basic and secondary education (Education Policy, 2006) which is different from that of Tanzania mainland; higher education is, however, a union matter further discussed in Chapter 2. In order to justify this study, which specifically deals with ELT programme at university level in postcolonial Zanzibar, it is necessary to establish the uniqueness of the ELT field in Zanzibar. The focus is on the ELT practitioners (teacher educators and their students) with specific attention to teachers of English in two domains (university and schools). All practitioners are adults, have Kiswahili as their first

19 Throughout the thesis, I have chosen to use the term English language teaching (ELT) instead of Second Language Teacher Education (SLTE), as a convenient terminology/acronym because of the complexity of defining a second language and decision to label English, a second or foreign language in Zanzibar.

20 In this study, teacher educators and their students (PTE and graduates) are also referred to as educators.
language, and are teaching and learning in Zanzibar (with few exceptions lecturers were of foreign nationality\textsuperscript{21}). The study particularly focuses on those who undertake a Bachelor of Arts with Education. However, the study had a glimpse of other routes into ELT (diploma and certificate courses) because the university offered the courses. The study is not concerned with the teaching of other foreign languages, or ELT in the whole of Zanzibar. However, this study followed ELT graduates from the university, who teach English in public schools in Zanzibar. The main purpose was to do a follow up of preliminary findings in Phase 1, and conduct an in depth examination of the training of teachers of English.

1.5 RESEARCH QUESTION(S)

Given the preceding list of assumptions (Section 1.3), I briefly present the circumstances in which my questions emerged. The study stem from personal quests, but the timeliness of this investigation on a national and international scale is worth mentioning and is discussed further in Chapter 4. During the four academic years that I pursued this study, several momentous educational reforms have occurred in ELT circles in postcolonial Zanzibar such as making English to be the LoI in upper-primary level and introducing the new curriculum in upper- primary schools, which force the Ministry of Education to re-train their teachers (MoEVT, 2007; Brock-Utne, 2013).

ELT reforms are common in many countries (native and non-native speaking countries), and have had some positive effects in the system (Al-Issa & Al-Bulushi, 2011). However for Zanzibar, the reforms have made teachers’ domains to be in a state of transition. Many of these reforms are donor-driven where conditionalities are set

\textsuperscript{21} I acknowledge that their views on LoI and ELT issues in Zanzibar were useful in this study.
(Mazrui, 1997). As Brock-Utne (2002, p.34) put it ‘education donors in Africa have mostly worked to strengthen ex-colonial languages’.

Accordingly, most of the time there is little consideration of the pressures that lead to major decisions such as continuing with the use of English in education. As a result, the reforms are done haphazardly based on political expediency than pedagogical considerations (Rubagumya, 2009). For example, the decision to lower the LoI in upper-primary school in Zanzibar by 2014 remains despite the fact that ZEDP document identified that primary school teachers are not competent. This decision was partly based on recommendation made in the Rea-Dickins et al. (2005, p.5) consultation report to ‘…gradually introduce English medium teaching, starting first with one subject in, say Standard 4, increase to core subjects i.e. Maths, Science, Social Science, by the end of Standard 7’.

Importantly, empirical studies on teacher training are scarce, and need attention. This is clearly the case in Zanzibar where investigating the strengths and weaknesses of ELT at university level was a necessary point of departure. I initiated this research inquiry with one overarching research question, which helped frame the inquiry. The question is:

What are the main strengths and weaknesses of English language teacher education (ELTE) programme at university level in postcolonial Zanzibar?²²

²² Initially, I framed my central research question as strengths and limitations. During the data analysis, the word strengths and limitations lost its vitality because most participants were frequently mentioning enabling factors (strengths) and inhibiting factors (weaknesses ), and /or what drive or inhibit the ELT practices. Therefore from Chapter 4, I started using the word drivers and inhibitors synonymously with strengths and weaknesses.
The themes that emerged from preliminary analysis based on the data collected from core participants: teacher educators and prospective teachers of English (PTE) provided the environment for further inquiry. After a rigorous analysis of data i.e. level one (open coding) and level two (axial coding) analysis, there were issues that required additional investigation. I wanted to understand how strengths-weaknesses framework presents itself in ELT practices of teachers of English in postcolonial Zanzibar.

Accordingly, a deeper understanding of how the strengths and weaknesses (identified in Phase 1) affect ELT practices was very crucial. Therefore, ‘IMPACT’ was the key emerging theme. To gain a deeper understanding of strengths and weaknesses of ELTE programme and how these strengths and weaknesses affect or shape the way English is practiced, the ‘IMPACT’ theme needed an additional examination.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Phase 1: teacher educators and prospective teachers of English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>What are the main strengths and weaknesses of ELTE at university level in postcolonial Zanzibar?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To identify strengths of ELTE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To identify weaknesses of ELTE</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

**IMPACT AS EMERGENT THEME**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Extension of Phase 1: internal and external key stakeholders</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>To gain a deeper understanding of strengths and weaknesses from the perspectives of teacher educators, their students (PTE and graduates), and ELT stakeholders</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To peg the impact of ELTE exhibited on ELT practices in postcolonial Zanzibar</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 1.1. Schematic Presentation of Research Questions and Phases

The deeper understanding warranted an extension phase of data collection to confirm what I have found out from the data, and being able to theorize the ‘safari’ of teacher educators and their students. In concrete terms, the strengths-weaknesses framework was very complex and intriguing; consequently, a deeper understanding was
necessary for the theory to emerge or for the advancement of theory that explain the ‘safari’ of teachers of English. I therefore set to look deeper at strengths and weaknesses of ELTE at university level to find out how they impact on the way English is practiced in postcolonial Zanzibar.

Significantly, the emergence of themes in preliminary analysis enables the researchers to identify key stakeholders (internal and external) to be included in the Extension of Phase 1 in the quest to understand ELTE programme in Initial Teacher Education (ITE) in university context. Therefore, apart from core participants (teacher educators \(^{23}\) and PTE\(^{24}\)), university graduates and other ELT stakeholders were involved. The process was refined as the thesis develops. A detailed explanation is described in Chapter 4. At this stage (extension phase), the composition of participants was made of internal and external stakeholders which consists of all ELT practitioners.\(^{25}\)

Key ELT stakeholders involved officials/administrators from university and the Ministry of Education and Vocational Training (MoEVT)\(^{26}\) officials involved informed experts (local and foreigners)\(^{27}\). Therefore, in the extension phase, I sought a deeper understanding of the issues affecting the ELT practices. Using Diez (2010, p.442) ideas,

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\(^{23}\) In this study, they are also known as lecturers or teachers of teachers  
\(^{24}\) In this study, they are also known as student-teachers or teacher candidates  
\(^{25}\) In this study, ELT practitioners include teacher educators and their students. The students are formed of prospective teachers of English (PTE), and the university graduates (UGs).  
\(^{26}\) Previously, the Ministry of Education and Vocational Training (MoEVT) was previously known as Ministry of Education and Culture (MoEC).  
\(^{27}\) In this work, informed experts are part of Ministry officials. The informed experts category is made up of local retired (ex-MoEVT officials), and foreign citizen supporting the MoEVT,ELT programmes and activities. They have been treated as a different category because it was anticipated that they have different sphere of influence, and their insights might be beneficial.
I designed strengths-weaknesses framework in order to understand how they impact on ELT practices in teacher domains (i.e. at university level and school level).

Figure 1.2. The Flow of Impact of the ELTE Programme on Teacher Candidates

In the extension phase, the data were collected through various modes: a series of conversational interviews (individual and in groups), observation and collection of artifacts from participants. The stimulus question in these sessions was to find out how the strengths and weaknesses framework identified in Phase 1 affects the way ELT is practiced in postcolonial Zanzibar.

1.6 THESIS LAYOUT

The thesis is mainly divided into three (3) parts: Part 1 discloses the study, Part 2 displays the data, and Part 3 deciphers the findings and summarizes the study.

Part 1 is made up of Chapters 1, 2, 3 and 4. Chapter 1 introduces the thesis. Chapter 2 situates the study in a larger socio-political context of ELTE. The historical
overview of Zanzibar is presented. Chapter 3 reviews empirical literature that explores the development of SLTE in the broader context of education. Based on the review of the literature, the author identifies gaps in the literature that justify the need for the present study. Chapter 4, which provides the methodological rationale of the study and framework of the thesis. It describes the methods, methodologies and display the data collected for this study.

Part 2 consists of Chapters 5, 6, and 7. Chapter 5 and 6 present the data from Phase 1 (questionnaire data), and address the main research question. Chapter 7 presents the data from Extension phase. It addresses the stimulus question ‘IMPACT’ the theme that emerges from the analysis of Phase 1.

Part 3 covers the conclusive chapters. Chapter 8 discusses the findings and Chapter 9 summarizes the findings in relation to research questions, highlighting the implications of the study for ELT practitioners in ITE for on-going review, and reconstruction of the field of ELT in Zanzibar. Recommendation and opportunities for future research, and limitations of the research are discussed.

1.7 CHAPTER SUMMARY

In this Chapter, I provided a preliminary sketch of the context of the study and introduced the metaphor of safari. A brief overview of the literature shows that there is a shortage of research in the area of ELT in postcolonial Zanzibar. Due to this scarcity of research, I formulate my research question and then present the circumstances in which my research questions emerged and developed. In the next chapter, I contextualize the study by giving a brief overview of Zanzibar, which traces the socio-political context of ELTE in Zanzibar.
CHAPTER 2
RESEARCH CONTEXT

2.0 INTRODUCTION

This chapter situates ELT and Zanzibar within the existing literature in Anglophone context. It explores the area of study with general information about language education in Sub-Saharan Africa with particular reference Zanzibar, a part of United Republic of Tanzania (URT)\textsuperscript{28}.

I used a timeline approach to situate the study socio-historical context, explain the enduring colonial legacy and its impact on education. The chapter identifies some of the key issues that have emerged historically, in language education in postcolonial Zanzibar \textsuperscript{29} (see E. Davidson, 1984).

The impacts of colonialism are described in this thesis as legacies of the past in postcolonial Zanzibar as illustrated in the subsequent sections. With the help of some historical documents, the chapter traces the historical background of language education in Zanzibar as illustrated in Zanzibar National Archive (ZNA). It then discusses the Language-in-Education Policy (LiEP) which reveals the status of English in the education system artifacts). Finally, recent developments of ELTE, and other related issues are discussed.

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\textsuperscript{28} United Republic of Tanzania (URT) is made of Tanzania mainland and Zanzibar islands. Zanzibar comprised of Unguja and Pemba. After the 1964 independence, the mainland part is known as Tanzania mainland, while before 1964, it was known as Tanganyika.

\textsuperscript{29} As shown on the map above Zanzibar is more commonly used in formal documents to mean the island of Unguja.
Figure 2.1. Unguja and Pemba Islands collectively known as Zanzibar.


Courtesy of the University of Texas Libraries, The University of Texas at Austin.
2.1 THE SOCIO-POLITICAL CONTEXT OF THE STUDY

The focus of this study is to situate Zanzibar within the Anglophone contexts. However, it is imperative to establish the central research focus for the thesis, it is important to ground ELTE through its sociopolitical context. The status of language education in Sub-Saharan Africa, Tanzania and Zanzibar is highlighted.

2.1.1 Overview of sub-Saharan Africa.

The African continent is famous for its heterogeneity in languages. It constitutes a mosaic of more than 2000 languages, falling into four major continental phyla namely Niger-Congo, Nilo-Saharan, Afro-asiatic, Khoesa (Greenberg, 1963), and an additional Austronesian family spoken in Madagascar and a small number of isolates. The number of languages is highly dependent on the dividing line between languages and dialects (Heine & Nurse, 2000; Küpper; 2003, Petzell, 2012).

Despite the linguistic wealth in Africa, and the large number of languages spoken on the continent, the colonial history introduces a new linguistic/imperial traditions and contexts. The English language became dominant in West and East Africa (Anglophone), the French language in the West and Central Africa (Francophone contexts), and the Portuguese spoken mainly in southern Africa (Lusophone contexts). Even after independence, the postcolonial Africa is still tied to these languages. Though the goals of the colonial powers varied, the results were similar in the African contexts. Even after independence, ex-colonial languages (i.e. English, French, Portuguese, Spanish and Arabic) remained entrenched into every sphere of life in African such as education, business, law, politics, and technology.

A number of studies reported both explicit and implicit recognition that the language of colonization remains the language of power in most postcolonial countries.
(Rasool, 2007; Simpson, 2008). For example in education the languages have been retained as the official languages, languages of education, compulsory or optional subjects in education in most postcolonial African like elsewhere in the world (Tollefson & Tsui, 2004). English is reported to be the most prominent retained language (Anyidoho & Dakubu, 2008). It is also important to note that in multilingual postcolonial settings in Africa, these ex-colonial languages coexist with local languages (indigenous) in diglossic or triglossic relationship, a hierarchical relationship of two or three languages in terms of higher and lower prestige, power and market value for the speakers. In most postcolonial context, the ex-colonial languages are normally identified as ‘High (H)’ language, and the local languages remain the Low (L) languages\(^{30}\) (Rubagumya, 1991). It is against this background, it is argued that the language planning and policy in Africa has to take place against the common background of several factors as illustrated in Wolff (2006, p.29) below:

Figure 2.2. Factor Contributing to the Complexity of Language question in Africa

Fig 2.2 describes the factors, which contribute to complexity of the language question in Africa (Heine & Nurse, 2000; Kupper, 2003; Batibo, 2005; Obondo, 2007). Prior to colonization, different ethno-linguistic groups in Africa did not have a LoI

\(^{30}\) High (H) and Low(L) varieties has been extensively elaborated in the glossary of terms.
problem. Each group used its own language to educate its children, essentially making education linguistically and culturally responsive within each tribal or ethnic setting in order to respond to the needs of the population. In other words, education was naturally intertwined with the life of a person and community, and it was therefore impossible to think of it as an isolated system. In each community, parents identified appropriate socialisation and initiation strategies that they used to introduce their children into adulthood. For indigenous education purposes, no child attended a class where the LoI was foreign. Alidou et al.(2006) argues that the LoI problem emerged in the late 1800s with the introduction of Western education in Africa, given in a language children do not normally use outside of school, a language they do not command and often hardly understand (Brock-Utne 2000; Brock-Utne & Hopson 2005; Brock-Utne & Skattum, 2009).

For quite some time, a commonly shared educational dilemma in most African countries has been choosing the LoI (Brock-Utne, 2004). One argument raised, is that due to multiple languages in each country, it is difficult to choose one particular language for schooling (See United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO), 1953; Bamgbose, 1991; Adegbija, 2000; Ouane & Glanz, 2011). Although a number of studies have confirmed that mother tongue education (MTE) is more effective LoI in African schools (Heugh, 2002; Romain, 2002) and critical for effective learning (Education for All) (EFA) (2005); however the LoI decision has raised perennial debates. Furthermore, although English is the most prestigious ex-colonial language in Africa, other languages such as French, Portuguese and Arabic play powerful roles in different countries across Africa (Lodhi, 1993; Batibo, 2005). These languages are used for official business and are the LoI at different levels in different African countries. Lodhi (1993) observes that a large number of Africans use Arabic as their mother tongue and this language is widely spread across
the continent. Lodhi (1994) and Amidu (1995) show that a number of people consider
Arabic to be a language of religion (Islam). However, Batibo (2005) contends that
Arabic has other functions in society, for example it is the lingua franca in many
African countries such as Mali, Burkina Faso, Eritrea, Senegal, Djibouti, Niger and
others. In some countries, Arabic has been taught as a subject in schools, for example,
in Zanzibar (Lodhi, 1994), in pre-school in Mombasa, Kenya (Bartlett, 2004), and the
LoI in Niger (Brock-Utne, 2001). The common question among academics in
postcolonial countries is to find out whether the legacies of the historical past continue
to haunt African countries31 (see also Piper, 2007). Tanzania is no exception in this case.

2.1.2 Overview of Tanzania

In order to contextualize the problem that this research seek to understand, it is
important to understand the geopolitical relationship between Tanzania mainland and
Zanzibar islands in order to facilitate the interpretation of data.

The name ‘Tanzania’ is an amalgamation of Tanganyika(mainland) and
Zanzibar (Unguja and Pemba) and was created when the two formed one nation, the
United Republic of Tanzania (URT) in 1964 (see the location of Africa, Tanzania and

31The contexts of ELT in most postcolonial countries are similar, but in the context of this study,
the specifics of the historical context of ELT in Zanzibar are necessary to have as the focus.
Tanzania located below the equator in the East of Africa has a total area of 942,800 km². The area of Tanzania includes the islands of Mafia, Unguja and Pemba. The islands of Unguja and Pemba form a semi-autonomous region called Zanzibar as illustrated in Figure 2.4.

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32 The United Republic of Tanzania is situated below the equator in East of Africa. There are 30 regions in the country. Twenty five (25) region on the mainland and five (5) regions in Zanzibar (i.e. three on Unguja and two on Pemba) (see the 2012 Population and Housing Census Report, 2013, p.1).

33 Photo courtesy of the University of Texas Libraries, the University of Texas at Austin (2003).
Figure 2.4. Map showing the location of Tanzania (mainland and islands)

Zanzibar consists of two major islands, Unguja and Pemba and 50 other smaller islets, most of them uninhabited. Unguja and Pemba cover 1500km² (63%) and 900 km² (37%) respectively- jointly occupy an area of 2400 km². The Unguja island, commonly known as Zanzibar, is the main island in the Zanzibar archipelago. It harbours the Stone Town and Ng'ambo (the Other Side) areas (Myers, 1995a, 1995b, 2003).

Zanzibar has a multicultural population. According to the 2012 Population and Housing Census (PHC), the current population is estimated to be about 1,303,569

Before the 1964 political union, Tanganyika and Zanzibar were separate\textsuperscript{34} entities. Despite this union, Tanzania mainland and Zanzibar have remained fundamentally separate entities politically, culturally, and language wise (Petzell, 2000; p.5). Therefore, they are worthy of discrete study as described in Chapter 4.

Tanganyika was under German occupation after the Berlin Agreement (Scramble for Africa, 1884-1885) until the end of the First World War (WW1) in 1918, after which the League of Nations mandated Tanganyika to the British (1919-1961) (after World War I following defeat of Germany and Tanganyika became a Trusteeship Territory). Tanganyika got independence on December 9, 1961.

Zanzibar came under Arab rule in 1832. In 1890, it became a British protectorate (Bhagat & Othman, 1978). On December 1963, Zanzibar attained its independence from the Britain as a constitutional monarchy under the Sultan. Three weeks later, an African socialist revolution toppled the Zanzibar government (Mapuri, 1996). The Sultan and an elected government were overthrown in January 1964. Following this revolution, the two parts united to form Tanzania\textsuperscript{35} in April 1964. Table 2.2 briefly summarizes the geopolitical relationship of two areas.

\textsuperscript{34} In this thesis, Tanzania refers to Tanzania (mainland), unless stated it is used to refer to the whole country Tanzania. Zanzibar refers to the Tanzania (Zanzibar) which is made up of the islands Unguja and Pemba.

\textsuperscript{35} See the 2012 Population and Housing Census Report (2013, p.1) for detailed information about the United Republic of Tanzania, There are 26 regions in the country. Twenty five (25) regions on the mainland and five (5) in Zanzibar; three (3) on Unguja, two (2) on Pemba.
Table 2.2
The Geopolitical Relationship between Tanzania (mainland) and Zanzibar (islands)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>DATE</th>
<th>NAMES</th>
<th>COLONIAL POWER</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1652-1964</td>
<td>Zanzibar</td>
<td>Oman Arabs Sultanate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1885-1918</td>
<td>German East Africa (Tanganyika)</td>
<td>German colony</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1919-1961</td>
<td>Tanganyika</td>
<td>British colony</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1961-1964</td>
<td>Tanganyika (independent)</td>
<td>United Nation Trusteeship Territory under the British</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1963</td>
<td>Zanzibar (independent)</td>
<td>Under Sultanate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1964</td>
<td>Tanzania</td>
<td>Sovereign State</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Experiencing Language Education in Zanzibar cited in Ismail (2005, p.29)

Language has always been a contentious issue in Tanzania as experienced in most postcolonial countries (see Abdi, 2002). There is evidence that socio-historical forces affect the formation of language attitudes, choice and policy (Adegbija, 1994). In Tanzania, the Kiswahili language and culture has deeply impacted the society since Kiswahili became the national language 1964.

In terms of languages spoken, Tanzania, mainland and islands, use Kiswahili as a national official language. Beside Kiswahili, English is the official language, and the most venerated language among Tanzanians (Topan, 2008). Arabic is also strengthened
by the religious affiliations \(^{36}\), which has partly influence the status of language in education (Pew Forum Report, 2010). For example, due to Islamic influence along the coast, Zanzibar has more than 95% are Muslims (CIA World Fact book 2013), who use Arabic ‘the language of their prophet (Bakari, 2001) mainly for religious purposes (Bennett, 1978; Amidu, 1995; Lodhi, 1994). Arabic and Islamic religious studies have a place in education since colonial time (Bennett 1978; Loimeier, 2009). To date, Arabic is taught as a subject at primary and secondary level in Zanzibar, and is offered as a major subject at university level for those who wished to do so. In Tanzania mainland, Arabic is not taught in schools probably due to German and British colonial influences. However, the main issue is the presence of vernaculars spoken by minority and ethnic groups, which are said to be threatened by Kiswahili and English (Petzell, 2012).

In order to fully grasp this complex linguistic context in Tanzania, the historical overview of the making of the current linguistic situation is crucial (Batibo, 2000). To understand the language and education situation in Tanzania today, it is important to look at the historical background of languages in teacher education domains (schools and university)

2.1.2.1 The current language situation.

There are four main sources that describe the current language situation in Tanzania. First, Kiswahili language now a lingua franca and one of the official languages of Kenya and Tanzania. Tanzania is one of the few countries in Africa where large parts of the population understand the same language, Kiswahili as the national language. Kiswahili is a Bantu language, a subgroup of the Niger-Congo family. It is an

\(^{36}\) According to 1967 National Census, there were 34% Christian, 31%, Muslim and 35% other. The 2009 statistics of religion affiliation shows that there are 60% Christian, 36% Muslim and 4% Other (Pew Forum Report, April 2010).
African language which is used as the first language or second language by almost 95% of Tanzanians (Djite, 2008). Generally, the precise number of people speaking Kiswahili as their mother tongue in Tanzania is not clear. There is a widespread assumption that 10% have Kiswahili as a first language, another 80% understand it (Polome, 1979; Rubagumya, 1991) or use it as a second language (Brock-Utne, 2005). A significant number of the native speakers of Kiswahili (almost 99%) live in the islands of Zanzibar where this research has been conducted.

Secondly, the English language introduced by the British colonial administration and missionaries after World War I and consolidated in several domains such as an administration, civil service, legislation, higher education, the judicial system, the media, and international trade and diplomacy. Schmied (1985 & 2008) stated that no more than 5 percent understood English. The number is slightly higher in urban areas and lower in remote rural areas. It is estimated that approximately 15 percent of the population in Tanzania have some knowledge of English (Rubagumya, 1989).

Since English is not really used among Tanzanians, there is no acknowledged variety of Tanzanian English. Instead, British Standard English is still the preferred mode of teaching in the country (Neke, 2005). Significantly, there is a tug-of-war going on between English and Kiswahili particularly in the domain of higher education.

Thirdly, the indigenous African languages of Bantu origin are spoken in Tanzania mainland. The estimated number of languages spoken ranges from 120 to 164
languages (Languages of Tanzania Project, 2009), while in Zanzibar, there are no tribal languages, and most people speak Kiswahili as their native language.  

Fourthly, the non-indigenous languages such Arabic, Indian, French and other foreign languages (Kipacha, 2006) spread for various reasons such as religion, education, trade, tourism, and human settlements.  

In general, the linguistic situation in Tanzania (mainland) exhibits a three-language model ‘triglossic’ (Vernacular-Kiswahili-English). The vernaculars function as markers of solidarity and are used on the local level, in rural areas, villages and homes. In Zanzibar, this is not the case as children grow up with Kiswahili-English, a linguistic situation described as diglossic situation (Mkilifi, 1972; Rubagumya, 1991).  

Critiques of the High (H) and Low (L) varieties studies argue that these models have their roots from Western Europe; hence they are inapplicable in Tanzania, and therefore need modification. Rubagumya (1991) claims that English, an ‘H’ variety is a minority language in Tanzania as it is spoken by very few people, but carries enormous symbolic power (p.73) unlike in Europe ‘H’ variety is the variety spoken by the majority languages.  

At the national level, a larger regional language like Kiswahili is used (for both Tanzania mainland and Zanzibar). Kiswahili is widespread national language understood by very nearly the entire population (Brauner, Kapinga, & Legère, 1978). English is used as a language of wider communication and in higher education (Seidholfer, 2005). Arguably, it is not contradictory to think highly of both languages

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37 Kiswahili is basically of Bantu (African) origin. Kiungupa mjini is the standard variety, and there are other linguistic variants (or dialects) of Kiswahili. For an insightful analysis of the history of Kiswahili (See Whiteley, 1969; Legère, 1990).
since they have their different domains. Petzell (2012) noted that the same person could appreciate English because it is important in education and appreciate Kiswahili because it is a symbol of national identity and denotes traditional ideals, while English is related to technological modernism and external ‘modern’ ideals.

Beside Kiswahili, the national language, English is the official language in Tanzania. Parallel to this, Zanzibar is a growing tourist attraction where English is the dominating language, hence the demand for English is increasing unprecedentedly like anywhere else in the world which gives English a unique position in society (Cummins & Davison, 2007). Kiswahili symbolizes the country’s traditional values in contrast with English, which is associated with technical innovation, outside values (Neke, 2005). English is used as the LoI in higher education; it is the language of the high court, diplomacy and foreign trade. The ex-colonial language is seen as a prerequisite for scientific and technological development (Rubagumya, 1990), perceived as a magical key to social prestige and power (Tembe & Norton, 2011). Nevertheless, English is still considered an international language rather than a second national language (Schmied, 1985). Apart from being a tool for social advancement, English is viewed as the key to education (Neke, 2005), and people have individual aspirations toward English (Rea-Dickins & Yu, 2013).

2.1.2.2 **Structure of the education system in Tanzania**

The system of education in Tanzania (mainland) is slightly different to its counterpart, Zanzibar however; the curriculum for secondary schools and university entrance is the same for both sides. The structure of the formal education and training system in Tanzania is (2-7-4-2-3+), which refers two years of pre-primary education (year 1 and 2); seven years of primary education (Standard I-VII); four years of secondary Ordinary level education (Form 1-4); two years of secondary Advanced level
education (Form 5 and 6) and three or more years of university education (MoEVT, 2010)

Primary education is compulsory and free for all children. After completion of basic education pupils, those who pass may continue to Ordinary level (O level), and then sit for the examination under the auspices of National Examination Council of Tanzania (NECTA). If they pass, they are eligible to continue on to Advance Level (A level), and may continue to university for the courses of their choices including teaching career. Some may join teacher-training colleges for certificate or diploma in teaching, and join teaching as ‘untrained teachers’ and upgrade themselves.38

2.1.3 Overview of Zanzibar.

To better understand the situation of ELT, LoI and teachers of English in Zanzibar, it is imperative to understand the linguistic situation in Tanzania (mainland), which is slightly different from Zanzibar. Zanzibar uses both English and Kiswahili as official languages (Topan, 2008). It has been called ‘the cradle of Swahili’ (Petzell, 2000, p.4) since the standardised variety of Swahili used in all East Africa emanates from Zanzibar (Mkilifi, 1971).

38 When students take exams in O/A-level, they receive results in one of five divisions: Division I, II, III, IV, or Fail. Very few students score Division I or Division II for various reasons, and LoI is mentioned to be among the factor. Minimum entrance requirements for university and institutions of higher learning under direct entry are: Certificate of Secondary Education Examination (C.S.E.E.) or equivalent, with passes in five approved subjects obtained prior to the sitting of the Advanced Certificate of Secondary Education Examination (A.C.S.E.E.) or equivalent; and two principal level passes (in appropriate subjects) at the same sitting with total points not below 5 based on the following scale: A=5; B=4; C=3; D=2; E=1; S=0.5; F=0. Or two principal level passes (in appropriate subjects) not at the same sitting provided they are both grade C or higher.
Kiswahili is the mother tongue of the people living in Zanzibar and nearby coastal Tanzania. Although Kiswahili is Bantu in structure and origin, its vocabulary draws on a variety of sources, including Arabic and English, and it has become the lingua franca of Central and Eastern Africa.

Kiswahili is used as a LoI in all seven years of primary education. English is taught as a compulsory subject from primary to secondary (Rea-Dickins et al., 2005; Brock-Utne, 2007), and it is also the instructional medium from secondary to tertiary levels (MoEVT, 2006). Kiswahili is offered as a subject throughout school years and university for majors, but the LoI at all levels above the primary school is English.

Previously, English was taught as a subject in the third year of primary school, but now it is taught in the first year of primary school. English was then made the LoI in the zero year of secondary school, Orientation for Secondary Class (OSC) (Anderson, 2002; Said, 2003, Rea-Dickins et al., 2005). Zanzibar has now opted to make English as the main LoI in upper primary schools by 2014 (Babaci-Wilhite, 2010; Voluntary Service Overseas (VSO) (2011).

2.2 LEGACIES OF THE PAST IN ZANZIBAR

A postcolonial perspective is important in this study (Hickling-Hudson, 1998, 2004 & 2011). According to Hickling-Hudson (2006), it is concerned with how cultures

In this work, the word Kiswahili would refer specifically to the language spoken in Zanzibar, while Swahili represents culture. Both language and culture are characterized by a mixture of Bantu, Arabic, Persian and Asian influence. Most of the Swahili people (Waswahili) are followers of Islam and many have Arabic names. Swahili people spread along the entire East African coast, forming different cultural variations and dialects of the Swahili language. The Swahili people reside in most of the coastal areas of Tanzania and Kenya (Mombasa, Malindi, and on the Indian Ocean islands of Lamu, Pemba and Unguja (Zanzibar) (See Harries, 1964; Chittick, 1975; Mazrui & Mazrui, 1995) (For detailed discussion see p.42).
have been influenced by the legacies of colonialism, culture wars that results from challenges being made to those legacies and the difficulties and ambivalence involved in change (p. 290). The implication is that Zanzibar language education system can neither be explained nor understood without first unraveling the continent’s colonial experience. Zanzibar has passed through the three periods of historical and political development: the sultanate, protectorate and revolution (Loimeier, 2009). This context has been important to the development of the language policy and language education in Zanzibar. As mentioned elsewhere in this work, there is a substantial amount of literature on the history of Tanzania in general, however, little is known about what happened before the coming of foreigners (Kurtz, 1978).

2.2.1 The beginning of formal education system.

The history of formal education system in Zanzibar is best described in precolonial, colonial and postcolonial. The existing system of education was introduced first by the colonialists in the later part of nineteenth century (Bennett, 1978). Before the arrival of foreigners, Zanzibar had a traditional indigenous education system where transmission of knowledge was informal and cultural, and students learnt through apprenticeship. In the 8th century, migrants from Arabia began teaching the Quran and the Arabic language in order to facilitate the spread of Islamic religion; hence, African and Muslim education co-existed.

Western Education was first introduced in Zanzibar in 1862 by the French missionaries (Bennett, 1978; p.224). Records also shows that before the 19th century, British sailors arrived in Zanzibar looking for fresh water, however, their visit had little impact because there were little contacts with local people.

The Indian migrants arrived in the 12th century and set up the first ‘serious’ formal schools. By 1891, Sir Euan Smith Madressa was established, an Indian
denominational school funded by AgaKhan. English was among the subjects taught. The Portuguese arrived in the 16th century, bringing with them Christian missionaries who established missionary schools (Issa, 2009). Zanzibar under the Sultanate of Oman was able to oust the Portuguese from the coastal settlement (Bhagat & Othman, 1978). From the early 19th century, American and British sailors, traders and geographers visited in Zanzibar. Some of them stayed in Zanzibar Town and started to mingle with the locals: trade, intermarriages and migration were evident (Bakari, 2012).

German missionaries initiated the period of European colonial influence on education in 1830. In 1837, American consul was opened to be followed by the British Consul in 1839 followed by the French and British missionaries around 1850s. The British consulate was in charge of all European affairs in Zanzibar as they assisted Oman Sultans (Bhagat & Othman, 1978). The British played that role until 1890, when Zanzibar became a British Protectorate officially. In 1864, British Protestants opened missionary centre, the Anglicans of the Universities’ Mission to Central Africa (UMCA) also established their station in Zanzibar in 1864, which operated a Slave Village at Mbweni and Kiungani for new converts. Later in 1870s, the missionaries opened dispensary to serve the converts and town people. Most people who worked in Zanzibar were required to learn Kiswahili but the day-to-day administration procedures retained use of English. By 1894, many departments including health, education, public works had been already established under the British officials hence the chances for language expansion.

40 Early evidence show that the first missionary society to arrive was the French Holy Ghost Fathers, who settled in Zanzibar in 1863 and moved their headquarters to Bagamoyo in 1868 (see also Iliffe, 1979; Issa, 2009)(see Bakari, 2012 for a detailed overview of new settlements in Tanzania).
2.2.2 Language policy

The colonial language policy is characterized by three phases: 1900s -1920s, 1920s to late 1930s and late 1930s to 1960, where the language policies were marked by a number of ‘uneasiness’ (Bakari, 2001, p.87), ‘turning points, and crisis’ (Loimeier, 2009, p. 289). The major issue throughout the colonial time was the question as to which language should be the language of education. It has been reported that British education policies were dithering over whether to choose Kiswahili, the majority language, as a LoI (reality and pragmatic reasons) or Arabic, the language of ruling elite, as the LoI (political and administrative considerations). Other issues were replacing Arabic script in government schools by the Latin scripts, dealing with Quranic schools, organizing and structuring government schools, syllabuses and curriculum.

The first phase in the development of education from early 1900s to the early 1920s when some initial ideas on education policy were formulated. In 1905, the first government school was introduced, and was under the auspices of the first Director of Education (DoE), Rivers-Smith by 1907. In this year, the Arabic scripts in the government schools were replace by the Latin scripts.

From this period onward, English was either a LoI or a subject at some level of education. By the WW1, an intermediate phase, from early 1920s to the late 1930s the colonial authority formulated a plan for public education in which children of Asian, Arabic and African ancestry were segregated. Those of African background were not allowed to attend public schools while those with Asians and Arabs background were offered primary and secondary education for almost 12 years. They were also allowed to continue with higher education at the University of Makerere, Uganda.

At the end of the WW1, the British revised the education policy, and the emphasis was to establish standards in administration and school instruction, and to
enhance efficiency to the teaching body. The British Administrators were divided into two camps: those who supported the use of Kiswahili, and those who supported the use of Arabic (Loimeier, 2009). By 1920, initial language policy was formulated. The Education Policy in British Tropic Africa was formulated by an Advisory Council of Education. The aim of the commission was to inscribe education policy that was consistent with the social and economic needs of the Protectorate (ZNA AB 1/231).

The council proposed Kiswahili to be the LoI for elementary school, and English in primary schools. By 1927, the Arab Association (AA) supported Arabic and religious instructions, and resisted the use of English, and Kiswahili as LoI, however Kiswahili still became the LoI because it was the mother tongue of the majority of the people in the community: Africans (natives), Arabs and Indians (Issa, 2010). From 1935, Africans were offered limited primary education to only four years. The aim of education was to prepare Zanzibari in teaching, clerical and commercial (Indians), agriculture (Arabs) and industrial and manual work (Africans) (ZNA1/231). As a result, teacher training college and special courses in teaching were introduced. The intention was to introduce an Arab college. The council suggested that the LoI in elementary education should be Kiswahili for Africans, Gujurati for Indians, while the medium in primary education is English, and there should be classes in English, and Arabic for Arabs. A number of crises in this phase necessitated the British government to prepare for reforms in the early 1930s.

In late phase, from early 1930s to 1960s, the British administrators rethought the role of Arabic in Zanzibar. A number of debates about the direction and contents of education and the roles of language continued to emerge in public discourse. Arabic speaking schools (1951) and Muslim Academy (1953) were established (Loimeier, 2009). Arabic became a subject and not the LoI. The lack of qualified Arabic teachers hampered the expansion of Arabic in schools. By 1963, Kiswahili was the LoI in lower
primary and English in upper and post-primary level. Zanzibar began an expansion of public schooling in 1964. After 1964, all schools were nationalized and free education was offered to all children. In 1964, there were 62 primary schools with an enrolment of 24,334 pupils. There were four secondary schools with 734 students, but most of the students were children of government administrators. There were no changes in terms of LoI until 1967. The 1967 policy of Education for Self Reliance (ESR) brought in some educational reforms (Khamis, 1998 & Ziddy, 2001 all cited in Loimeier, 2009). According to Ziddy (2001 cited in Loimeier, 2009) ‘since 1980 -1994, Zanzibar government school system received financial support from various foreign donors’ (p.35).

2.2.3 Teacher trainings

Prior to 1935, the teachers were trained for three years, and in 1948 were trained for two years. They were no female teachers in the 1930s and 1940s because elite Muslim women in Zanzibari society remained in the home to maintain their respectability (McMahon & Decker, 2009). The work of Loiemeir (2009, pp.340-341) reports that ‘there were less than ten teachers and administrators between 1905-1920’ (Bennett, 1978; Bakari, 2001). By 1940s, a number of teaching staff increased considerably: six Europeans, one Egyptian, seven Indians, 22 Arabs and 22 Africans. A female teacher training class was also introduced in one of the government primary schools in Zanzibar Town (McMahon & Decker, 2009). In 1943, the Women Teacher Training College (WTTC) consisting of one class was established, and was later moved to Nga’mbo (1945). On the same year, the male TTC was reopened in Dole. By 1958, it was shifted to Sayyida Khalifa TTC and a female wing, Sayyida Nunuu College, Zanzibar’s new Technical Secondary and Teacher Training College was established. Dole TTS was recruiting future teacher from Rural Middle School (RMS). In 1946,
women started to join teaching profession, and in the 1950, the female WTTC was attached to the Nga’mbo Girls Primary School.

Historically, the teacher training, recruitment and staff development were the major crises facing the British government in Zanzibar. Loimeir (2009) reported that complaints about the quality of teaching, the poor quality of local teachers, and scarcity of teachers were the common colonial discourse until late 1950s.

The crises were associated with two issues: First, the late introduction of teacher training institutions in Zanzibar. Loimeier (2009, p.556) explain that ‘the first male teacher training school (TTS) was established in 1923 in Dole which was closed in 1935 mainly ‘for pedagogical, structural and resource reasons’. There were no opportunities for its graduates to teach in town schools, and those coming from urban families refused to teach in the rural areas. Second, the language in education was the main problem. Loimeier (2009) claims that some issues in teacher training and other changes in educational system affected the colonial and postcolonial careers of the teachers and scholars in Zanzibar.

2.2.4 ELT in Zanzibar.

The historical development of ELT is discussed in precolonial, colonial and postcolonial time.

2.2.4.1 Precolonial era.

Little is known about what happened before the coming of foreigners (Kurtz, 1978). Until recently, it was not known with any certainty when and from where the first people inhabited Zanzibar (Chami, 1998). However, historical records claim that
the natives include the three Shirazi groups of Wahadimu, Wapemba and Watumbatu. The name Swahili is said to originate from the Arabic word for Sawahil (Petzell, 2012) or “Sahil/Sahel” (Mazrui & Mazrui, 1992) meaning coast. Kiswahili refers not only to the language but also to the Islamic culture of the people inhabiting the East African coast (Chittick & Rotberg; 1975; Chiraghdin & Mnyampala, 1977; Lodhi, 1979).

Records also show that it was not clear how the language (Ki) Swahili came into being; however, there is a body of stories about how it emerged. Some claim that Zanzibar has had connections with southern Arabia (Chami, 1998); others claim that when Persians and Arabs occupy Zanzibar, Kiswahili had long been established in the island. Some established that Persians and Arabs intermingled with the native blacks and produced the race known as ‘Swahili’ (Polome, 1979); Kiswahili did not extend into the mainland until the 19th century.

Chami (1998) highlights the two theories in explaining the origin of the Waswahili, the people. The first and older theory was presented by geographers and travellers from the Middle East and Europe who visited the coast of East Africa between 800 and 1700 AD. This model saw the Swahili as the indigenous, Negroid people, and probably Bantu speakers. The second model was developed during the colonial time. The Swahilis were viewed as descendants of intermarriages between African women and Persians and/or Arabs who came to trade, settle on the coast of East Africa and built with coral, rags, and lime. According to this theory, the coast of East Africa was an Arab-Persian empire. The work of Hollingsworth (1951 cited in Chami, 1994, p.204) mentioned the existence of ‘Zanj Empire’ and the civilization which sprang up during the 10-12 centuries to be of Shirazi or ancient Persia. The theory was rejected in the

41 There are other ethnic groups who inhabit Zanzibar such as Arabs, Asians, Comorians, and people from Tanzania mainland who are now collectively known as Africans.
1960s in favour of a more Africanist model. In the 1980s, a new version of the Africanist model argued that Swahili people were the descendants of Pastoral-Cushitic people of northern Kenya and the Rift Valley. Based on the archaeological findings, the notion of a Cushitic origin for the Swahili people was challenged in the mid-1990s by the work as shown in the work of Chami (1998). Mazrui and Mazrui (1995) state that Swahili was spoken on the east coast of Africa as early as before the 10th century (see also Mazrui & Mazrui, 1998, 1999).

The ethnography of Zanzibar suggests that the history is influenced by the Arabs, Persians, Indians, Portuguese, British, and the Africans. The Swahili people have been viewed as of Persian, Arabic or Cushitic-speaking origin (Chami, 1998). Scholars have used historical, archaeological and linguistic data to suggest that the Swahili culture had its origin in the early first centuries AD (Chami, 1998, p.199). Also, it has been proposed that Kiswahili emerged on the islands and along the coast of East African to facilitate the communication between merchants and traders (Mazrui & Mazrui, 1995). This was offset by the arrival of explorers, foreign visitors, European and Arab colonizers such as Burton and Speke (1856), Stanley (1871, 1874), and Karl Peters (1884) in the 17th-19th centuries AD.

The outcome of historical processes though complex, paved the way for the current distribution of most of Tanzania’s indigenous languages, including Kiswahili (Kipacha, 2006). It has been widely documented that as early as the 18th and 19th centuries, Kiswahili spread inland along the caravan trade route in Tanzania (Kipacha, 2006, p.502). Kiswahili developed into a lingua franca and ultimately becomes the national language (Whiteley, 1969; Nurse & Spear, 1985).
2.2.4.2 Colonial era

The development of Kiswahili is language can be attributed factors: trade, religion, colonial rule and education (Mbaabu, 1978; Nurse and Spear, 1985; Mazrui & Mazrui, 1995). Initially, Christian missionaries were key players in the formulation of language policy in Tanzania. They set up mission stations in different parts of the country. Missionaries boosted local languages by using Latin scripts and translating the Biblical texts into Kiswahili to spread the words of gospel using the mother tongue.

Initial records shows that Kiswahili was written in Arabic scripts as early as the 18th century and Christian missions used it in their work in the early 20th century. In 1930, it was decided that Unguja dialect, the variety of Kiswahili from Zanzibar would be the basis for Standard Swahili. English was first introduced in Tanzania by Christian missionaries, the United Universities’ Mission to Central Africa (UMCA) from England (Rubagumya, 2003). This shows that Tanzania was exposed to various foreign influences during the colonial period like most countries in the world. However, some scholars argue that the Christian missionary activities destroyed African culture through the gospels of salvation, obedience and work using Western education (Ndege, 2006).

With respect to the colonial language policy, three epochs that emerge during this time are worth discussing: The German period (1885-1919), the British period (1919-1961) and the struggle for independence period (1950-1960s).

First, during the German period (1885-1919), the German colonial language policy encouraged the use of Kiswahili in commerce, the military, administration, and education. The language received extensive attention from administrators, missionaries, and linguists seeking to study it and promote its use. English was rarely used until 1918, when parts of the country came under British mandate following the First World War (WW1). Rubagumya (2003) says that ‘the systematic teaching of English as a subject
did not start in earnest until the end of the WW1 when Britain took over Tanganyika from the Germans’ (p.18). During the German colonial period, the formal education system consisted of four years of primary schooling where Kiswahili was the LoI. Germans made Kiswahili the language of colonial administration therefore promoted it massively. German was taught as a subject, but there was no real effort to promote it.

Second, the British influence and a nationalistic movement between 1919-1961 led to a bilingual English-Kiswahili language policy. English became the language of the schools and administration and was introduced into the education system (Mafu, 2003). Kiswahili was adopted as a language of lower administrative level and as a LoI in the first five years of primary school (Rubagumya, 1990, p.7).

Between 1920 and 1924, the Phelps-Stokes Commission visited several African countries and handed down several recommendations about its language policy in Tanganyika. It has been argued that even though the Phelps-Stokes Commission emphasized the importance of mother tongue education, at the same time their report reflected colonial bias, favouring English over African languages (Rubagumya, 1997). Another seminal event which influenced language policy in British Africa was the conference on African Education at Cambridge in 1953. Rubagumya (1997) lamented that the conference was the replica of the Phelps-Stokes Commission. During this time, English was seen as crucial. Historically, controversies over the LoI in schools were common and decisions were rarely guided by pedagogical considerations (Rubagumya, 2009).

During the struggle for independence in Tanganyika, Kiswahili being adopted as the language for the struggle of independence, it acted as a crucial tool in unifying the larger stratified section of the population to fight for their freedom and it was used to pass on messages about what was happening. Mafu (2003) mentioned two main reasons
for this. First, English was considered as the language of the enemy (colonialists) and second, English become an institutionalised language, and was learnt in schools.

### 2.2.4.3 Postcolonial era

During the first years after independence Tanzania was still dependent on the colonial structure left by the British. Education was expanded but the improvement of education in Kiswahili was hampered by the shortage of people trained to teach Swahili (Polome, 1980a, 1980b, 1980c). There were a number of language crises in Tanzania (Roy-Campbell & Qorro, 1997). For example, Mafu (2003, pp.270-271) reported that Zanzibar government decree made Kiswahili, the official language and banned Arabic and English in 1964. This is partly influenced Tanzania mainland to make Kiswahili the official and national language. However, in spite of the negative attitudes toward English, in this period there was a synchronization of English and Kiswahili, though not a perfect one. Around 1970s, it was declared that Kiswahili will be the LoI at secondary level but the decision was later abandoned. Like most postcolonial countries, These colonized countries succumb to the pressure of globalization and internationalization hence the preferred language of schooling remains to be English (Napier & Majhanovich, 2013, p.4). Similarly, since independence, Tanzania experienced the great toing and froing of decisions to promote Kiswahili, and make English as LoI.

Several authors describe the influences of English in Tanzania during the post-independence period. Six phase timeline were outlined by Mohamed (2008, pp.9-10): The first phase: (1961-1967), the Pre-Arusha period where English and Kiswahili co-existed harmoniously and at the same time Kiswahili was ideologically viewed as a language of Africa nationalism and pride. The second phase (1967 -1975), the heyday

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42 In this paragraph, I acknowledge the ‘language in education discussion I had with late Professor Mohammed A Mohammed of the State University of Zanzibar (personal communication).
of Swahilization period emerged when English and Kiswahili become more and more at variance. This was described to be the period of the struggle for Kiswahili against English. The third phase (1975-1982), the period of confusion started when politics and linguistics started taking divergent courses and it is when political decisions effectively prevented further Swahilization. The fourth phase (1982-1986), the period of decline was guided by the government decision to preserve English as the medium of higher education bringing the prospects of Swahilization to the end. Rubagumya (1997) called it a liberalization and modernization period, where the symbolic value of English increased dramatically. The fifth phase (1986 - 2000), the period of relaxation is a period of the introduction of economic liberalization and the abolition of one-party state resulting into the stoppage of debates on English versus Kiswahili. It was in this period when English regained its pre-1969 prestige and heralded the mushrooming of English medium schools. According to Rubagumya (1997), Tanzania observed a “dramatic change in the fortune of English” (p.22). Tanzania was facing serious economic difficulties and had to bow down to International Monetary Fund (IMF) conditions. The political and economic changes at this time partly explain the increase in the symbolic value of English in the 1980s. The sixth phase (2000 onwards) has seen the period of resumption of outdated debates. Mohamed (2008) argued that the period of relaxation has ended and debates on English versus Kiswahili have resurfaced in full swing. Even so, Mohammed (2008) observes that these debates have nothing new to offer. The main theme in this period is that the points about Lo1 which are advanced in the current phase are the same points which were advanced in the 1970s.

2.2.5 Status of English and Kiswahili

English and Kiswahili have been struggling for greater legitimacy, the former by being increasingly localized and the latter by seeking Universalist credentials (Mazrui & Mazrui, 1993, p. 275).
Rubagumya (1991) used Calvet 1987 metaphor to describe the Kiswahili-English relationship in Tanzania as ‘Language at wars’ (p.68). Since the beginning of colonial history of Tanzania, the relationship between Kiswahili and English was at times contested in two ways: first by the growth of Kiswahili and because English has been supported at the expense of smaller languages and local languages.

Second, the relationship between English and Kiswahili played complementary and competitive role and have acquired both convergent and divergent functions (Mazrui & Mazrui, 1993). For example, historically, Kiswahili was associated with Zanzibar, the coast and Islam (Goyvaerts, 1986). Later, Kiswahili was considered a detribalised language, with a new national Tanzanian and African identity (Mazrui & Mazrui, 1999, p.118). Kiswahili was then associated with independence and nation building (Abdulaziz-Mkilifi, 1980). English was sometimes rejected as a language of the colonialists while at other times; it was regarded as too valuable to be ignored. Nyerere, the then President of Tanzania, who served from 1961-1985, once referred to English as Kiswahili of the world (Roy-Campbell, 2001a; Mazrui, 2003) whereas the use of local (vernaculars) languages smack of tribalism (Polome & Dil, 1982; Mazrui & Mazrui, 1993). At times, there were general concerns that English might not have direct relationship to school leavers especially those who resided in the rural areas. This idea was locally contested, and people held different views and opinions (Brumfit & Hikmany, 1997, 2002).

The work of Mazrui & Mazrui (1993) use the three plus one equation proposed by Laitin (1989) from India to describe the linguistic situation in East Africa. They argue that native speakers of Kiswahili would normally add just one other language, and that language is likely to be English (p.289). This prediction is as old as time, but its relevance is valid to date. This point is also illustrated by Petzell’s (2000) study on attitudes to English and Swahili among the inhabitants in Zanzibar town. Petzell (2000,
p.3) claimed that ‘Kiswahili and English in Zanzibar enjoy the same high status but for
dissimilar reasons and with different connotations’

Like most African countries, there are ongoing fierce debate on the status, role
and position of English and Kiswahili in education, with no indication that the debates
will be over. The debates centre on whether English should continue to be used as a LoI
in secondary and tertiary levels or whether Kiswahili should replace English (Topan,
2008). Consequently, the English-Kiswahili tug-of-war over which language to be used
in education is one of the predominant issues since 1960s.

Empirical evidence demonstrates that the use of English as LoI causes a number
of disastrous outcomes in education (Roy-Campbell, 2001a, 2001b; Mkwizu, 2003;
Brock-Utne, Desai & Qorro, 2006; Mwinsheikhe, 2009) and ultimately undermines the
quality of education (Rubagumya, 2009). Research findings have repeatedly show that
English as LoI brought more harm than good (Rubagumya, 2003) and made learners
content and proficiency deficient (Brock-Utne, 2007). Studies from Tanzania indicate
that the points advanced in this century are the same points which were raised in the late
60s. Studies from 1960s, 1970s, 1980s, 1990s, and 2000s consecutively underscored
that there is a “spiral decline in standards from tertiary level downwards (Brumfit &
Hikmany, 2002, p. 226). Despite the fact that a lot of research has been conducted on
LoI in Tanzania since the late 1970s, the debate on LoI still continues to date (see
earlier studies Prator, 1969; Mlama & Materu, 1978; Polome & Dil, 1982; Cripper &
Dodd, 1984; Yahya-Othman, 1990; Roy-Campell & Qorro, 1997 and Rubagumya, 1997
among others). See also SPINE project (2007- 2010) and LOITASA project (2002-2011). Recent studies acknowledge that English is the main barrier in education (Wort, Sumra, Van Schaik & Mbasha, 2007; Rea-Dickins, Yu, & Oksana, 2009; Babaci-Wilhite, 2012a, 2012b, 2012c; Brock-Utne, 2013). Some studies suggested that opportunities, human resources and infrastructures for teacher of English are needed as well as goes beyond support level (Rea-Dickins & Yu, 2013, p.203).

Disturbing this status quo created unfruitful debates on English-Kiswahili status and unfortunately, brought nothing new to offer. Most of these studies conclude that the level of English proficiency among students in Tanzania is inadequate for the teaching and learning of other subjects, and ‘the status quo’ needed to be addressed. The studies diverge on how the LoI problem should be addressed in Tanzania.

Despite the long perennial debates, controversies still engulf Tanzania society over which language to use in education. Kiswahili remains the language used in everyday life while English dominates in education and other important domains (Rubagumya, 1994). The majority of people continues to favour the use of English than Kiswahili (Rea-Dickins et al., 2013). The external and internal contexts triggered the demand for English (Roy-Campbell, 2001a, 2001b; Mazrui, 2003).

43 Student Performance in National Examinations (SPINE), a three-year collaborative project between the University of Bristol and the State University of Zanzibar funded by the Economic and Social Research Council (ESRC) and Department for International Development in the United Kingdom (DfID-UK). This project is about the dynamics of language in school achievement for the children in sub-Saharan Africa.

44 Language of Instruction in Tanzania and South Africa (LOITASA) project is a NUFU-funded (Norwegian University Fund) project, started in 2001-2012. It addresses key issues around the changing educational policies in Tanzania and South Africa when it comes to the language in education policies.
Major reasons behind the reluctance to switch to Kiswahili as a LoI were discussed. The attitude of people towards English, perceived by many as a language with high status and advantageous language of education (Kioko & Muthwii, 2001; Kembo-Sure, 2003). The quality of language teaching in Tanzania has been constantly under scrutiny (See the Speech of Minister of Education and Culture, Joseph Mungai, US Embassy Press Release, June 4, 2004).

Tanzania has also witnessed a decline in standard of education, which many are attributable to the decline in the Standard of English (VSO, 2011). Most of the studies indicate that students learn very little subject matter for all subjects taught in English. Likely students pick incorrect English from their teachers (Skatum & Brock-Utne, 2009). Since Kiswahili and other local languages are prohibited in class, students learn neither Kiswahili nor any of the local languages. There is a lack of solid foundation in the first and second language, poor exposure to English and inability to communicate, students’ competence in all languages are undermined (Cummins, 2000).

2.3 CURRENT DEVELOPMENTS

The main feature of Tanzania education system is the bilingual policy (URT, 2006), which requires children to learn both Kiswahili and English (Baker, 2007). In spite of vicissitudes of Kiswahili and English, English remains the medium of upper primary, secondary and tertiary education. There is a mushrooming of English medium schools everywhere in the country both private and public (Rubagumya, 2003). The language debate in Tanzania continues unabated (Nassor & Mohammed, 1998). The question of which is the appropriate medium of instruction in different levels of education still persist in Tanzania (Brock-Utne, Desai, Qorro & Pitman, 2010).

The language issues in education are not unique to Tanzania, and are a common denominator in most postcolonial countries (Alidou, 2004; Tollefson, 2004;
Hornberger, 2008; Cummins, 2009). Despite the diverse complex contexts, English is still the powerful dominant medium of instruction in most postcolonial Africa, and it is a compulsory subject in most educational context (Webb, 2004).

Several reasons has been advocated for the use of English as a LoI at different levels have been forwarded by governments, authorities and other stakeholders across postcolonial Africa, who also express common concerns about education sector across. For example, there is a lack of teaching and learning resources written in vernaculars (Githiora, 2008; Mfum-Mensah, 2005); lack of proficiency in English leads to a lack of economic opportunity for students (Githiora, 2008; Igboanusi, 2008) and African languages (vernaculars) are believed to not adjust well to modern jargon in science and technology (Simpson & Oyetade, 2008; Topan, 2008). Zanzibar, a part of Tanzania is no exception.

2.4 FRAMING THE STUDY IN POSTCOLONIAL CONTEXT

Since this work is based on ‘ELT and Zanzibar’, a postcolonial framing of the research was very important for a number of reasons. First, the history of formal education in Zanzibar started with colonization. Second, the relationship between colonial history and postcolonial context of Zanzibar suggest the need to understand its effect on language education. Third, growing relationship between education and globalization, and internationalization. Fourth, the fact that language education is associated with foreigners, explorers, and missionaries. To date, the challenges of education in Africa have their roots in the colonial education system (Babaci-Wilhite, 2013a). For example, the work of Abdi (2002) connects globalization and neocolonisation within Sub-Saharan Africa. Abdi (2002) argues that the effect of globalization on Sub-Saharan Africa’s education systems has largely been negative, due to inappropriately applied programs and theories. Postcolonial framing has been utilized
because education in postcolonial contexts is associated with ‘suppressed knowledge’
and ‘exploitative practices of colonialism’ (Hickling-Hudson, 2006, pp.202-214),
foreign ideologies and philosophies, and Eurocentric paradigms, which are said to
unconsciously influence teacher education and L2 pedagogy.

History has that colonialism and its legacies continue to attract scholarly
attention(see the work of Fanon, 1968; Nyerere, 1968; Ngugi, 1980; Rodney,1982;
Mandela, 1994; Said,1994). A number of scholars describe colonialism to have had a
powerful and lasting impact on Africa (Mamdani, 1994, 1996; Brock-Utne, 2005).
History informs that the defining contact between Africa and the West originated with
the colonization of the continent whereby, the Europeans implemented various political,
economic, and social policies that enabled them to maintain or extend their authority
and control over different territories in Africa. Colonialism, thus, had and still has a far-
reaching effect (colonial legacies) on the continent because of its indirect impacts on the
political, social, economic and cultural life of ex-colonial societies -neo-colonialism.
Additionally, my study theorises the journey of teachers of English through postcolonial
lenses because the data collected revealed challenges, contradictions, tensions in the
practices of ELT (Copland, 2010, Kasmer, 2013, Babaci-Whilhite, 2013b). The study
explores a number of significant lenses of postcolonial theory as discussed in literature.
The first lens describes the general conditions of former colonies; the second lens
describes global conditions in the aftermath of the period of colonialism; and the third
lens captures a discourse informed by the epistemological and mental orientations of
colonization. All these three lenses provide a podium towards exploring the university-
based teacher education programme that deals with ELT in postcolonial Zanzibar. The
lenses help generate the examination of and analysis of past, present and future. By
implication, the global spread of English and its increasing socioeconomic importance
in the world is not a new phenomenon in the 21st century (Pennycook, 1994).
The justification for the use of this framework in this research lies in the fact that Zanzibar is a postcolonial country. Arguably, some traces of her colonial ideals, practices and legacies prevalent in its education system. One may wish to argue that the traits that characterised colonial education are the same traits found in postcolonial Zanzibar. Since this study is situated in the context of postcolonial Zanzibar, the question that most intrigued me was how much the happenings of past are influencing the present. A brief overview of postcolonial theory is provided to justify its importance in this research. It is important to note that the study uses the theory not to criticise but to take a theoretical stance, interrogate the current ethos of the ELT in Zanzibar and uncover the postcolonial challenges in education (Coloma, 2009).

Moreover, the postcolonial theory proposes that language is one of the main instruments for the construction of subjective identities with colonized mentality and experiences through the discourses of power and knowledge, orientalism and cultural imperialism (Said, 1994). Drawing on Said’s (1994) work, the basis of the postcolonial approach which my analysis supported his argument that language is one of the main instruments for the construction of subjective identities with colonized mentality and experiences through the discourses of power and knowledge, orientalism and cultural imperialism. Research confirms that language education policy and teachers’ professional backgrounds significantly influence teaching practice and student learning. Studies related to LoI issues in postcolonial Africa consistently suggest that the ‘maintenance of language like English creates teaching and learning problems in Africa’ (Alidou & Brock-Utne, 2011, p.160)

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45 Due to the word limitation of this thesis, this study does not provide a comprehensive historical account of the emergence of postcolonial theory.
Literature has widely documented that postcolonial theory is also a critical practice which involves a set of complex theories that seeks to understand the legacy of colonialism -‘the continuing struggles against colonialism and its effects’ (Quayson, 2000, pp.1-11). Loomba’s (1998) notion of post-colonial as being ‘a process of disengagement from the whole colonial syndrome, which takes many forms and is probably inescapable for all those whose worlds have been marked by that set of phenomena’(p.19) where all colonial relations are dependent on historical, geographical and cultural variations has been an important aspect of my findings. Within this context, the core assertion of postcolonial theorists is to subvert structures of domination from centre to periphery and give voice to the so-called ‘subaltern’ or marginalized people to tell their own tales with their own tongue (Young, 2001). In addition to that, research in postcolonial context show ELT is situated in a complex arena. The teachers are confined in a master-servant trajectory. In a master-servant relation, teachers’ voices and authority are dominant, and learners’ voices are often neglected. Crucial issues such as teaching and learning (Viruru, 2005a & 2005b) tend to be ignored. Policy-makers often ignore the needs of teachers and teacher educators in decision making (Rubagumya, 2009). Most educators are not involved in education planning, reform, and are usually treated as passive implementers. Decolonising studies and non-Eurocentric views argue that decolonising relationships, university and its pedagogy may improve policy and practices (Alvares & Faruqi, 2012), and in turn improve student learning outcome (Alvares & Faruqi, 2012).

2.5 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter has discussed the socio-political and historical context of this study. The chapter started with the general context of language issues in education in Africa, Tanzania, and then specifically focused on Zanzibar. Within this socio-political context, one of the most common themes that emerge was the need to study the influence of the
dominant issues in their particular context. The insights from the literature calls for the quest to understand how much the sin of the past, (Anglo-imperialism), got in the way of the present? Are these historical factors still valid in ELT today? The chapter has highlighted some themes in language education, which may potentially affect the teaching of English. I wanted to understand how the legacies of the past were (re)produced and how postcolonial subjects are continually (re)shaped by the legacies of the past. In the next chapter, the literature pertinent to the research question is reviewed. My quest is to combine literature from two interrelated fields, linguistics and education, which will provide basis for the epistemological framework that help explain and theorize the ‘safari’ of teachers of English.
CHAPTER 3
REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE AND CONCEPTUAL HANDLES

3.0 INTRODUCTION

This review is intended to provide an overview of Second Language Teacher Education (SLTE). What follows in this chapter is an integrative comprehensive review of teacher education and language education from the literature. One main theme of this chapter is the preparation of teachers of English from the first world contexts (BANA), and from the margin (non-BANA). The chapter identified the number of themes that drives and inhibits the language education in postcolonial countries. The themes identified suggest that there is a dire need to study the professional preparation of teachers of English in postcolonial contexts.

3.1 ELT AND ITS DISCOURSES

The current section aims to contribute to our understanding of this area. It reveals that ELT and its discourses are problematic terms in the field for a number of reasons. One key issue to note is that the majority of concepts, research and the theoretical underpinnings of ELT and its discourses are based on a historical view of the native speaker (Anchimbe, 2006) whereby judgments, performances and theories are characterized by Eurocentric traits, and normally tend to originate from first world contexts. However, the perspectives tend to ignore the spread of English and its impact on the native and non-native speakers of English (Prator, 1968, Mufwene, 1994, 1997; In this study, the term ‘margin’ refers to context or teachers whose preparations and practices in SLTE have been influenced by Anglo-Saxon or British colonies as they adopt practices from BANA contexts (See Wright, 2010, p.260). For conveniences, the term ‘margin and postcolonial contexts’ are used interchangeably.
Therefore, the main purpose of this study is twofold. First is to understand the discourses by discussing SLTE, ESL, EFL and LoI as a series of related discourses in order to identify the relevant conceptual handles for this work. Second, is to identify which variables have a dominant role in addressing research question as illustrated in Chapter 1.

3.1.1 SLTE

SLTE is an umbrella term for language teacher education in TESOL/ELT. Previous literature informs that ‘SLTE’ was previously used in various contexts to denote ‘initial teacher training’, ‘initial teacher education’, and ‘pre-service training. For the purposes of this review, I use the term initial teacher education (ITE).

The literature of ‘SLTE’ is considered very broad and inconsistent (Cross & Gearon, 2004; Burns & Richards, 2009). According to Wright (2010), the term ‘SLTE’ was initially introduced by Richards (1990) to cover the preparation: that is training and education of L2 teachers (Wright, 2010, p.260). Richards (1990) and Wright (2010) observe that the main concerns of SLTE is to provide the opportunities for the novice teachers to acquire the skills and competencies of effective teachers, and building the working model of effective teaching. Wright (2010, pp.262 -263) notes that the core artifact of a formal SLTE curriculum is its programme. Using Breen and Candlin’s (1980) curriculum model, Wright (2010) proposes three areas for consideration, which helps in the analysis of a productive SLTE programme(see also Richards, 1998; Johnston & Goettsch, 2000). The figure below from Wright (2010, p.262) identify the
purposes or goals of the programme, formal learning experiences in an ITE programme, and evaluation of programme.\textsuperscript{47}

Figure 3.1. Features of the curriculum of SLTE

Research evidence from first world identified studies on SLTE practice and pedagogy over the last three decades (Long & Sato, 1983; Nunan, 1991; 1999, 2000a, 2000b, 2007; Freeman & Johnson, 1998; Cook, 2008; Kiely & Askham, 2012). There has been a large body of theoretical discussion and empirical research on SLTE content (Graves, 2009; Borg, 2011). Most studies focused on learners and language acquisition rather than in-depth empirical studies of teacher practices and pedagogy (Johnson, 2009a, 2009b). This situation resonates with previous discussions about language

\textsuperscript{47} The work of Wright (2010) appears to be adapted and modified from the work which originally appeared in Breen and Candlin (1980).
teaching and teacher training in Zanzibar as illustrated in Chapter 1, 2 and elsewhere in this chapter.

Research demonstrates that the knowledge base of language -education and learning from applied linguistics research are very important at university level (Rea-Dickins et al., 2005), and that a strong foundation in linguistic theory is a valuable part of teachers-in-preparation (Clegg, 2005). The SLTE literature emphasizes the needs to know more about knowledge base that underlies language teacher education (Johnson, 2009a): how language teachers consider what they do; what they know about language teaching; how they think about their classroom practices; how that knowledge and those thinking processes are learned through formal teacher education and informal experience on the job, and why they are doing what they do- the philosophy of language teacher (Freeman & Richards, 1996; Cochran-Smith, 2005, 2006; Vélez-Rendón, 2002; Wright, 2010; Loughran, 2013). This body of literature highlights that knowledge base of SLTE have great role in preparing effective teachers. Old and new studies confirm that a well-designed SLTE programmes is part and parcel of teacher education reforms (Johnson, 1994; Freeman, 1996; Abednia, 2012; Nguyen, 2013). SLTE is still an underserved topic within the literature of language education, and to date, there is no known focus considered on the SLTE programme in Zanzibar’s context.

3.1.2 ESL and EFL

The literature suggests that the context of the firstness, secondness and foreignness of English is often discussed in the literature. However, in the real context, the secondness and foreignness of ELT is not distinguished despite the fact that it is the major source of the success or failure of learning language among adult learners (Spolsky, 1989). It is taken for granted and ignores certain facet of realities in postcolonial Englishes (PCE’s) (Schneider, 2007). ESL and EFL are conceptualised
differently in the first world (west) and in the margin (postcolonial contexts) (see Freeman & Freeman, 1998; Freeman & Freeman, 2004). In this study, ESL is defined as the “role of English in countries where it is widely used within the country (school, language of business, government, or everyday communication by some people), and it is not the first language of population” (Richards, Platt & Platt; 1992, p.124)48.

In second language (L2), the word ‘second’ presupposes that there is a ‘first’ that is when a person is said to learn or use a second language; it is assumed that such a person has acquired L1 already and is only adding a second one. However, the first world appears to view second language in terms of acquisition, while the margin or postcolonial countries underline the role allocated to languages, hence the excolonial languages are referred to as L2. There are a number of historical reasons attributed to this: such as nativeness, waves of immigration into the western societies increase diversified communities as well as globalization and the demands for English. It should be noted that in the first world context, ESL, is also defined as the role of English for immigrants and other minority groups in English-speaking countries. The people use their mother tongue among friends, but use English at school or at work (see Richards et al., 1992, p.124).

Moreover, some scholars from the first world make room for diverse views of L2 (Koda, 2005). However, it appears that most first world scholars define L2 in terms of the sequence of acquisition (Stern, 1983; Yule, 1996) while the scholars from the margin define L2 in terms of the role of a language. The point highlighted here is that the definition of L2 has been adopted from first world to the margin to be able to describe the status of excolonial languages in postcolonial Africa (Dunkel, 1948).

48 This definition has been adopted for the purpose of the discussion in this study
The EFL context is the one where English is mainly acquired in the classroom and not much of it is available in the immediate environment; it is not the LoI or interpersonal communication nor is it the language of administrative or legal systems (Richards et al., 1992; pp. 123-124).

In Tanzania, the researchers are divided on the status of English. In 1989, the status of English was claimed to be neither a second language nor a foreign language (Trappes-Lomax, 1990). Some argues that it is a second language (L2) while others argues that it is a foreign language (FL) (Othman, 1990; Rubagumya, 1990). Furthermore there are those who argue that English is not only a foreign language (FL) and restricted to the school setting, but it is also perceived and quantified as a second language (L2). Arguably, the line between a L2 and FL is murky especially in this era of globalization.

3.1.2.1 Knowing, learning and teaching a second language / foreign language

So far, research on non-native teachers of English has constantly questioned the issues of privileging the native speakers over L2 users when it comes to ELT (Cook, 1983; 2002, 2007; 2010a). However, what has received little attention until recently is understanding the goals of ELT as put by Cook (2007, p.238) ‘…reproducing native-speakers or promoting multi- competence among second language users?’ Cook (2007) further reminds that there is no goal which directly state that learners should approximate native speakers but rather the goal should focus on the educational values of the teaching or learning a second or a foreign language (Johnson, 2008; Mullock, 2002, 2010).

Many scholars have developed different theories related to second language acquisition (SLA) and learning, formalist theories, natural approach, functional approach and theories (Cook, 1973; Ervin-Tripp,1974; Krashen, 1980, 1981,1982;
Krashen & Terell, 1983; Klein, 1986; Scarcella, 1996; Bialystoc, 2001; Dutro & Moran, 2003, Johnson, 2008); additive and subtractive bilingualism (Baker, 2007; García, 2009); Common Underlying Proficiency (CUP) (Cummins, 2000); interrelationships of first language (L1) literacy and second language (L2) proficiency i.e. Linguistic Interdependence Hypothesis or the Linguistic Threshold Hypothesis (Cummins, 1979; 1991). Other theoretical perspectives which have influenced language research are the behaviourists, the nativists, the cognitive, and constructivist approaches (Tomasello, 1995; Larsen-Freeman, 2000).

The extensive body of theories of SLA formed the backdrop to the development of this study. Schools of thoughts in language acquisition differ widely and range between the view that the child is born tabula rasa implying that all learning occurs by forming associations that is children are prewired by nature to learn language (Hudson, 2004), and that language acquisition takes place during specific critical periods in a child’s life (Pinker, 1994; Scarcella, 2003, Johnson, 2008). The significant point arising from the body of knowledge are useful for teachers to have some grounding in the most influential theories of SLA.

Literature acknowledges that the theories contribute to understanding of a second language acquisition and implicitly underpin the instructional strategies recommended in various programmes and materials. However due to the constraint of length, this brief literature review has not exhaustively all theories on SLA but I referred to some theories that have been particularly pertinent to this thesis.

3.1.2.2 Knowing, learning and teaching about L2 pedagogy

The pedagogy of teaching in a second language require a ‘special pedagogy’ (Clegg, 2005), which is poorly understood in postcolonial countries, and in many parts of the world (Rea-Dickins et al., 2005). Clegg (2007) notes that teachers in teacher
education programmes require to be trained to teach subjects to learners who are not competent in the second language (L2), and when they teach a subject in a L2, they need to use a special pedagogy, which is different from the one they use when working in L1. The pedagogy needs to be specifically taught in teacher-education (Clegg, 2001). Although English is used as a LoI, and taught as a subject at university in most postcolonial countries, studies show that teachers in ITE context are not prepared to deal with L2 pedagogy. It is argued that teacher education programmes that do not give L2 pedagogy its due consideration are not likely to be successful (Rubagumya, 2009). In this case, Zanzibar has not yet considered this pedagogy (Burns, 2012).

3.1.2.3 Knowledge about L2/FL

“What does it mean to know a second or a foreign language?” (See Cook, 1993; 1997; 1999; 2001; 2002 & 2010b). This is a critical question that can challenge classroom practices, how people learn a L2 or FL, and why people learn a L2 (See Grosjean, 1982; Myles & Mitchell, 2003; Lightbown, & Spada, 2006; Van Patten, & Williams, 2006; Ortega, 2009). It is generally agreed that teachers’ knowledge about language is an essential element of teachers’ knowledge base (Andrew, 2007). Literature reveals that a teacher-in-preparation requires the ‘Knowledge about language’ (KAL) and the ‘Knowledge about the L2 or FL’ (Cenoz & Honberger, 2008). KAL is important for prospective teachers who need to know the language and about the language. However, studies have shown that although teachers’ knowledge about language has profound influence in their work, and it is useful in shaping their conceptions of language, they are not always successful in translating their knowledge into effective pedagogic practice (Johnson, 1996, 2009a, 200b).

Promoting KAL is considered beneficial for language learners, and university students who are training to be future language teachers (prospective or future
teachers). Carter (1990), Hawkins (1984), James & Garrett (1991) all highlighted the importance of developing awareness of language and knowledge about language. Literature clearly explains that language awareness does not mean learning facts about language, but exploring the potential of language from the experience of each language user. Hudson (2004) notes that learners need KAL for a variety of reasons in different subject-areas. Two main arguments for teaching KAL are highlighted: first, a deeper understanding of language is necessary for its long-term intellectual benefits and then it improves the language skills such as writing, reading, speaking and listening. Although the concept of KAL is highly contested, it is still considered very useful in teacher training (Peacock, 2001; Cots, 2008). The importance of KAL in mother tongue and in second/foreign language is widely discussed in the literature (Bartels, 2005; Ellis, 2008a & 2008b). It should be noted that research shows that this argument has not been deployed because of a perceived conflict with both linguistic theory, research and negative conclusions from some studies (Hudson & Walmsley, 2005; Ellis, 2008a, 2012). Similarly, Chomsky (1986) argues that language may grow unaided, regardless of instruction. Hence, the teaching is irrelevant to the growth of the mother tongue. This ‘nativist’ view is challenged by a large number of linguists and psycholinguists who believe that language is learned from experience, and not inherited genetically (Tomasello, 2003). It is argued that children need not only the very ‘unnatural’ skills of reading and writing, but also the entire linguistic competence of a mature educated person. Literature show that very few believe that language acquisition can proceed naturally without strong support from a teacher (Wong-Fillmore, 1991).

The principles of L2 /FL learning and teaching have been widely described by a number of scholars (Richards & Rodgers; 1995; Lightbown & Spada, 1999). Most scholars agree that when foreign language teaching follows the principle of mother tongue teaching, it recycles the insights learned initially in mother-tongue lessons
(Hudson, 2004). However, Trumbull & Pacheco (2005) warn that a one-size-fits-all approach to promoting English acquisition does not work in many situations.

A number of studies have shown that learning through the indigenous language is beneficial (Alidou, 2011). Several countries have attempted to use mother tongue instruction successfully (Heugh, 1995; Bamgbose, 2003; Alidou et al., 2006; García, 2009). Literature show that some studies favour the use of vernaculars (L1) especially at the primary level (Githiora, 2008; Küpper, 2003; Mfum-Mensah, 2005). These studies establish that the learners’ mother tongues are the stepping stones into their acquisition of a second language (L2). The studies also show that there is a link between first language (L1) and second language (L2) development (see Linguistic interdependence hypothesis Baker, 1993, 2006; Cummins 1979a, 1979b; Benson, 2009).

Research evidence widely documents that mother tongue education and bilingual instructions in a large section of Africa have positive social and economic consequences if the students receive this instruction for at least six years (Cummins, 1999; Benson, 2008). Cummin’s (1999) Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills (BICS) and Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP) have been useful frameworks to consider. Cummins (1980) argued that in assessing students’ proficiency in a language, both-BICS (surface-fluency) and CALP (academic language competence) have to be taken into account.

According to Cummins (2000), CALP is necessary before one can use a language as the LoI. However, research studies in most African countries revealed that

49 See for example the Ife Experiment in Nigeria in the 1970s, the Écoles de la Pédagogie Convergente in Mali, the Écoles Bilingues in Burkina Faso, PROPELCA and NACALCO’s bilingual schools in Cameroon, the Regenerated Freirean Literacy through Empowering Community Techniques (REFLECT) projects in Uganda and Tanzania.
there is an assumption that BICS in L1 (accent, oral fluency, and sociolinguistic competence) is enough for a foreign language to be used as the LoI (Rubagumya, 2009). Rubagumya’s (2009) findings are consistent with research findings from ESL students in mainstream school in USA, Canada and Columbia (Guerrero, 2008; García, 2009; Miller & Windle, 2010). In a recent BICS-CALP work, the three facets are necessary for language proficiency: conversational fluency, discrete language skills and academic language proficiency. According to Cummins (2009, p.22), the language abilities required for academic success are very different from those operating in everyday conversational contexts. A crucial aspect here is that academic proficiency has achieved through literacy development, ideally in both the mother tongue and the L2. Cummins (2000) argued that long period is needed for a second language learner to acquire academic proficiency of English within the environment where the mother tongue of the majority population is spoken widely and a learner has easy access to peer-native-speakers of English (Cummins & Swain, 1986; Heugh, 2009).

The context of learning is also an important factor. For example, the situation is quite different in an environment where English is rarely heard outside the classroom. Studies show that teachers with similar levels of language proficiency and similar backgrounds in language teaching methodology may produce widely differing outcomes (Australian Language and Literacy Council (ALLC) (1996).

In addition to that, L2 can be acquired in many ways, at any age, for different purposes and varying degrees (Klein, 1986; Collier, 1987, 1989; Cummins, 1981, 1994). However, a number of factors may affect the outcome, rate and success of second language acquisition, which is the main source of variation in the learning outcomes (Farr & Bruna, 2005). Some of the factors that are considered to affect outcomes include nature of the first language, language aptitude, other cognitive and developmental factors, affective and personality factor, age, linguistic, social,
instructional, political and historical factors (Ellis, 1997; Cummins, 2000; Farr, Bruna, & Quintanar-Sarellana, 2005; Trumbull & Pacheco, 2005). Since these factors are interrelated, studies highlight the need to understand the whole picture in which the student is learning a second language (see for example Trumbull & Pacheco, 2005, p.69). Additionally, language teachers need to understand the linguistic and social contexts of their students’ lives. This understanding is considered important because it may guide the language pedagogy (Ellis, 2012). Its impact in education is significant and featured largely in the literature of the 21st century. However, to date, none of this focus is known to have been given to the context of SLTE programme in Zanzibar.

3.1.3 LoI

In some postcolonial countries, it is very common to hear questions like “Which language should be used as a language of instruction (LoI) in schools? Should it be a familiar, local language, Kiswahili or a language of wider communication, English? Although much has been written about LoI and its crisis, the question that is not raised very often in language education debates is about teachers preparation - how are they prepared to become ‘teachers of English’?[My emphasis]. Although the positive attitudes towards the use of English as a LoI across Africa have put English in a powerful position (with few exceptions in francophone and lusophone countries), studies show that the use of English as LoI can lead to student underachievement due to poor proficiency in English (Brock-Utne, 2001& 2007; Küpper, 2003; Alidou, 2004). Regardless of this state of affairs, literature show that the majority of postcolonial countries favour the use of English as LoI rather than their vernaculars (Alidou, 2004; Mfum-Mensah, 2005; Penelope, 2006; Githiora, 2008; Igboanusi, 2008; Mesthrie, 2008; Simpson & Oyetade 2008, Opoku-Amankwa, 2009). This move has prompted never-ending debate over the use of English versus the use of vernaculars in education (Anyidoho & Dakubu, 2008)(Heugh,2006; Ouane & Glanz, 2011).
A similar pattern has been found in other African countries (Djite, 2008; Opoku-Amankwa, 2009). However, studies conducted in Tanzania contend that language education does not exploit the advantage of bilingualism (Rubagumya, 2009). In most postcolonial countries, the bilingual programmes bear the features of subtractive bilingualism rather than additive bilingualism (Baker, 2007; García, 2009). Similarly, there were also instances to discourage learners to use mother tongue while in classroom (Weschler, 1997; Skutnabb-Kangas, 2000; Phillipson, 2001; Simpson and Oyetade, 2008; Igboanusi, 2008).

Code switching is a common phenomenon in most African classrooms. A number of studies demonstrate that the use of code switching can facilitate learning (Adendorff, 1996; Arthur, 2001, 2006; Hardman, Abd-Kadir, & Smith, 2008; Rolin-Ianziti & Varshney, 2008; McGlynn & Martin, 2009; Probyn, 2009) while others argue that it may preclude the production of genuine L2 users in the sense that learners are unlikely to gain competences at the level of native speakers (Kim & Elder; 2005; Nizegorodcew, 2007).

Rubagumya (2009, p.57) is of the view that European languages are “always chosen by default because of their supposed neutrality”, which is problematic for postcolonial societies because it generates myths in language education (Moyo, 2001; Kupper, 2003; Obondo, 2007; Anyidoho and Dakubu, 2008; Batibo, 2008; Simpson, 2008). For example, Kirkpatrick (2008, p.312) study shows that this attitude is echoing a number of myths as observed in the Asian region “…the best way to learn a language is to use it as LoI, you must start as early as possible, and the home language gets in the way of learning a second languages(see for example Igboanusi, 2008). Furthermore, some develop the desire to obtain native speaker-like competence while others view success in the L2 learning tends to be defined in terms of the ideal native speaker (Sridhar, 1994; Kachru, 1994; Mullock, 2010).
The policy of ‘English only’ in the classroom has been widespread both in ESL contexts, and in EFL contexts, and, under the influence of both historical traditions and political imperative. Some scholars view the tendency for ‘English only’ in classrooms as the most efficacious for language learning in EFL contexts. For example, Lo Bianco (2009) argues that there may have been sound pedagogical reasons espoused for the adoption of ‘English only’ approaches in the classroom. However, he cautioned that some people take a more cynical view by bringing the native speakers educators in many EFL settings (Phillipson, 1992; Hardman, Abd-Kadir & Smith, 2008; Webb, 2004).

Rassool, Edwards and Bloch (2006) agree that the use of ex-colonial languages as LoI can be a barrier to communication between teachers and students and amongst students in the classroom. However, they also show that the use of vernaculars may cause various negative consequences if the curriculum is not well designed, as it was the case of South Africa.

Literature reviews elsewhere support that language and quality education is closely related. Rubagumya (2009, p.49) reminds that ‘any attempt to raise the quality of education has to address the language issue’ (see also Skutnabb-Kangas & Phillipson, 1995; Kosonen, 2010). Similarly, Okonkwo (1983) also highlights that there is a crucial link between language and learning. On the contrary, literature informs us language-in-education tends to be overlooked in most postcolonial countries. LoI in postcolonial contexts like elsewhere has been associated with low achievement (Rubagumya, 2003), swim-sink pedagogies (Rubagumya, 2009), and unsatisfactory levels of literacy in many nations (Street, 1993; Hornberger, 1990; Muthwii and Kioko, 2003; Wiley, 2005; Snyder, 2008; Rubagumya, Afitska, Clegg, & Kiliku, 2010). This status quo contributes to competing discourses, exploitative practices and ideologies in education (Hickling-Hudson, 2003) and the tensions between structure and agency in language policy are
common (Menken & García, 2010). It is argued that the different ideological positions influence the way bilingualism is conceived, planned for, or constructed (DeMejía, 2002; Baker, 2007; Phillipson, 2008a). Although the role of educators within the process of policy creation and implementations is important, arguably, language education policies decisions are said to create or perpetuate social inequities in most postcolonial countries (Ricento & Hornberger, 1996; Kaplan & Baldauf, 1997; Crawford, 2000; Spolsky, 2004).

In this section, I have identified the number of themes that drives and inhibit the language education in postcolonial countries. The themes identified suggest that there is a dire need to study the professional preparation of teachers of English in postcolonial contexts. Zanzibar is no exception.

3.1.4 ELT versus LoI

…ELT refers to the ‘teaching of English’, while using English as LoI is ‘teaching (other subjects) in English’. These two are different...While the former is a profession, the later is not (Skattum and Brock-Utne, 2009, p.19)

The quotation clearly illustrates that ELT and LoI are two different concepts, which requires some explanation to avoid persistence confusion in the field of language education. Brock-Utne and Skattum (2009) clearly elaborate that ELT is for teachers who have been trained to teach English language. Literature suggest that using English as LoI requires certain level of competence in English and sufficient proficiency to be able to teach in English. Teachers with limited proficiency in English may cause

50 Since this study is about non-native English-speaking teachers (NNESTs), the determinant factors in ELT such as professional training, educational qualification, experience, language proficiency, and sociocultural implications are considered because they add a more relevant dimension to any meaningful ELT programme than just the status of a native speaker.
perpetual damaging effect to learners of English in two ways: first the failure to grasps the subject matters, and learning the correct forms of English (Qorro, 2009). Second, literature clearly suggest that in most African countries, there is confusion between learning second language (L2), foreign language (FL), and the choice of LoI (Qorro, 2003; Vuzo, 2009; Babaci-Wilhite, 2010; Babaci-Wilhite, 2012a & 20012 b)(see also Brock-Utne, Desai & Qorro, 2004, 2005, & 2006).

Desai (1999; p. 3) reminds us of the context of learning a language that there is a difference between those who are learning an additional language voluntarily to expand their linguistic repertoire (immersed in the context), and those who are forced to learn an additional language primarily in formal education or school context in order to gain access to education and to participate in the wider society. It should be noted that learners in the second context are likely to face difficulties in learning a second language and be exposed to exploitative practices. In my study, these two concepts are inseparable. The study deals with ELT in the context of initial teacher education, and English is a LoI.

In reporting the Tanzanians concerns, Wong-Fillmore (1991, pp.52-53) cites three important conditions for students to succeed with second language learning:

…they must recognize that they need to learn the target language, they need access to proficient speakers of that language who can help them learn it, and they need a social setting in which they interact on a frequent basis with speakers of the target language…

Wong-Fillmore (1991 &1999) suggests that if one of these conditions is deficient, or unfavourable, the language learning process will be difficult. The Wong-Fillmore (1999) conditions as pre-requisites for effective language learning provide a good analytical point for language learners in Tanzania. These pre-requisites are underprovided for most language learners in Tanzania at all levels in the education
hierarchy. If learners are learning English in a context, where it is not used often, they are likely to encounter difficulties with the learning process as well as using it as a medium. Consequently, it may be argued that these are the same learners who join university level, and some aspire to become teachers of English in postcolonial Zanzibar.

The discussion of ELT and its discourses identified conceptual hurdles and incorporated theories on language teachers’ knowledge, knowledge about language (KAL), mother tongue education (MTE), bilingual education, second language acquisition (SLA) and academic language development. Understanding the hurdles is necessary at this stage in order to address the tensions of that exist in the preparation of teachers of English. Apart from postcolonial framework which was addressed in the previous chapter (Chapter 2). In this chapter, I drew substantially on the foundational work of Chomsky (1965), Gardner (1983), Richards (1992), and Cummins (1979a, 1979b & 1980). I also critically reviewed recent research evidence to complement foundational works. Moreover studies such as (Baker & Hornberger, 2001; Blommaert, 2003; Bartels, 2005; Neke, 2005; Alidou et al, 2006; Djite, 2008; May & Hornberger, 2008; Brock-Utne, et al., 2009, 2010;Cenoz & Hornberger, 2008; Skutnabb-Kangas, Phillipson &Mohanty, 2009; Rubagumya 2009; Shoba & Chimbutane, 2013) were also used.

3.2 TEACHER EDUCATION

A plethora of studies from first world clearly explicates the role of teacher preparation in general education, and in language education. A further critical review of literature in the field of ELT has also noted a paucity of research and theory on the preparation of teachers of English (Ellis, 1990; Lange, 1990; Freeman, 1996; Freeman & Richards, 1996; Richards, 1998; Gearon, 2007; Tucker et al., 2001; Ellis, 2010).
There have been discussions about the reconceptualization of TESOL teacher education in first world countries (BANA and other dominant English speaking countries) (Amin, 2001; Yates & Muchisky, 2003; Freeman & Johnson, 2004). This study examines teacher educators and their students in postcolonial Zanzibar, with the intention of adding knowledge to the existing body of theoretical, methodological, and practical knowledge in the fields of ELT, TESOL, SLTE and general teacher education.

Teacher education (pre-service and in-service education), deals with ‘education of teachers’ in two domains of teacher education (universities and schools). It involves schoolteacher (first-order practitioners) and teacher educators (second-order practitioners) (Castle, 1970; Murray & Male, 2005). Since this study is conducted at university level, conceptualizing teacher education is crucial because it is different from other forms of higher education. According to Guilfoyle, Hamilton, Pinnegar & Placier (1995), it includes disciplinary knowledge (knowledge about the discipline) and pedagogical knowledge (teaching about teaching), which are not easily separated.

Reconceptualizing teaching in higher education is problematic because ‘teaching teachers’ is complex, problematic and a highly skilled task which demands more sophisticated understandings of the practice (Darling-Hammond, 2006; Loughran, 2007, 2009, 2011; 2012; Berry, 2008; Teaching Matters, 2008; Ellis, 2012). Loughran (2009) underlines that ‘teaching is about knowing the what, why, and how of practice in sophisticated ways and being able to create pedagogical situations that encourage students of teaching to learn about the problematic nature of teaching and to be comfortable in a world of such uncertainty’ (p.200). This means that teacher educators cannot just talk about how to teach, but must be able to model excellent teaching and are expected to be excellent teachers. Teaching is also described as a principled practice (Grossman, 1990), more than the delivery of prescribed knowledge, or using a list of strategies, it is rather a dynamic relationship that changes with different students and
context (Hoban, 2004). The major construct in teacher education is the pedagogy (Loughran, 2013). Pedagogy is oftentimes portrayed as synonymous as teaching (van Manen, 1999; Loughran, 2006 & 2010; Loughran, Berry, & Mulhall, 2012).

On the contrary, pedagogy has two important constructs, ‘pedagogical content knowledge (PCK) and pedagogy of teacher education which conceptualizes teaching as being problematic, and is centred on the teaching-learning relationship’ (Loughran, 2013, p.119). Since this study is about teacher educators and their students at university level, I found it crucial to include perspectives from teacher educators.

A review of literature shows that research on teacher educators is very scarce (Smith, 2003; Murray & Male, 2005; Swennen & van der Klink, 2009), both in first world countries, and in the margin (postcolonial contexts) (See Kahinga, 1976; Ishumi, 1988). Zanzibar is no exception.

Available studies report that educators tend to teach in the way they were taught, or teach as a reaction against their own experiences of learning as students (Teaching Matters, 2008, p.2). Earlier studies share the same insights that how an individual frames the learning to teach depends entirely on how one conceptualizes what is to be learned and how that learning occurs (Tedick, 2005). Review of literature on teachers’ conceptions of learning informs that teachers who conceive learning as information accumulation to meet external demands also conceive teaching as transmitting information to students (Trigwell & Prosser, 1996 & 1999). See similar studies by Entwistle & Ramsden, 1983; Kember, 1997; Kember & Kwan, 2002; Ramsden & Watson, 2003; Light, Calkins, & Cox, 2009).

Studies show that if prospective teachers are adequately prepared to deal with the real context of school culture, then their early years of teaching can be turned into a positive experience (Gratch, 2001; Flores, 2001). If teacher preparation has not been
effective in preparing teachers, teachers may sideline the knowledge and skills that they learnt at university, and adopt the ‘school culture’ (Mark, 1998).

Teacher education studies around the globe have shown that ITE has a significant impact on early-career teacher’s pedagogical skills and their philosophies of teaching (Committee for the Review of Teaching and Teacher education, 2003). Constructivist teacher education has claimed that teacher education has little impact on classroom practice (Stuart & Thurlow, 2000; Cochrane-Smith, 2002a). Arguably, others maintain that the positive impacts of teacher education are likely to be observed if the type and design of teacher education is constructive in nature. Darling-Hammond (2000b) argues that teacher education improves teachers’ knowledge and skills, which may continue to develop throughout his/her career. However, there is consensus that teacher learning does not end at the completion of ITE programme but should continue throughout the career and that the first year of employment is an especially challenging time for many new teachers (Draper & O’Brien, 2006; Rippon & Martin, 2006). Theoretical underpinning of the professional reforms suggest that supportive environment, induction and mentoring contribute to positive outcomes (Zeichner & Liston, 1987; 1990; Swennen & Van der Klink, 2009), and to the formation of professional identity (Gerges, 2001). The works by these scholars provide a useful framework for addressing the current state of teacher education in Zanzibar.

Studies suggested also that teacher’s knowledge would be central to this study. Teacher candidates must be well grounded in their teaching with a variety of categories of knowledge (knowledge of content, pedagogy, curriculum, learners, context, and value (Shulman, 1987). Teacher candidates must also be able to teach, adapt and reflect the knowledge (Ramsey, 2000). ITE studies argue that if teacher candidates are motivated and adequately prepared to deal with the complexities and challenges of schools, then their early years into the profession may have positive impacts (Ashby,
Hobson, Tracey, Malderez, Tomlinson, Roper, Chambers & Healy, 2008). If ‘outcome’ in teacher education is important in producing successful and effective teachers, then it is very necessary to explore teachers’ knowledge, and skills they require to be successful and good teachers.

Studies from the context of first world confirm that the quality teaching often reflects the quality of teacher education (Darling-Hammond, 2000a). Several studies also suggest that the years spent in ITE are very crucial in the life of teachers’ candidates. This study is also informed by literature about initial teacher education preparation (Darling-Hammond, 2000b); pre-service teachers' motivation to teach; need analysis (Hutchison and Waters, 1987); teachers’ knowledge (Darling-Hammond, 2002, Loughran, 2013); learners’ beliefs (Carter, 1999; Cotterall, 1995, 1999; Horwitz, 1999); language teachers' beliefs (Lortie,1975; Bailey et al., 1996; Brown and McGannon, 1998; Johnson, 1999; Peacock, 1999;Geges, 2001; Loughran, 2006); the exploration of the relationship of teachers' beliefs to their teaching practice (Woods, 1996); teacher socialization as addressed in universities and schools (Keltchtermans & Bakllet, 2002; Swennen &Van der Klink, 2009); teacher reforms and quality (Cochran-Smith, 2002a, 2002b,2002c); teaching context (Hawkey, 1996); and of teachers’ negative experiences at universities and schools (McCormack & Thomas, 2003)(See also Shapiro,1988)

3.3 LANGUAGE TEACHER EDUCATION

Language teaching is different from other fields because language is both the subject and the medium of instruction in language education (see Johnson 1999, 2000). My study brings together literature on the development of language teachers’ knowledge and language teachers’ learning (Bartels, 2005). Bartels (2005) reminds that language teachers need to know about Applied Linguistics because courses on Applied Linguistics play a major role in teacher education programmes around the world as they
may inform what kind of knowledge do teachers need (see also Farrell & Jacobs, 2010). The teachers’ knowledge of the language they teach becomes part of language teachers’ concern (Cook & Wei, 2009).

Literature in language education pointed out that language is a crucial factor in ensuring the quality of education (Djite, 2008; Rea-Dickins et al., 2008; Brock-Utne, 2010). Clegg (2007) raised two important arguments that “You can’t learn if you don’t understand lessons and you can’t teach if you’re not confident enough in the language of learning (p. 1)”. Although some scholars argue that language is not everything in education, studies confirm that ‘without language, everything is nothing in education’ (Wolff, 2006; p. 50). Arguably, no one can afford to ignore the importance of language in education (Burnaby, 1982; Bamgbose, 2001; Liddicoat, 2008; Rea-Dickins, Yu, & Afitska, 2008).

The concept of language has arguably emerged to have many conceptualization (Vygostky, 1962, 1978; Searle, 1971; Lyons 1981, Gardner, 1983; Oller, 1991; Swain, 2006). However, conceptualization of language is part of professional stance for language educators. It adds a layer of awareness and competence, and is regarded as helpful in reconsidering presuppositions about language, learning and language teaching.

Four key themes emerged from the literature of language education. First, language is at the heart of language teaching and learning, and is central to education (Pennycook, 1990). Language and education are central issues at university level, and that both disciplines have much to contribute to the debates of pedagogical quality (Crandall, 2000). There is a consensus that there is a close historical relationship between linguistics and education language teaching (Lefevre, 1965; Spolsky, 1969a,
Second, language is key in the professional competence of future graduates, who need to know the language and know about the language. Teachers need to constantly research and reflect on language because their understanding is very important as it affects the ways they teach languages (Brown & Rodgers, 2002; Trumbull & Pacheco, 2005). Third, language is important to postcolonial researchers because of its importance to identity formation and its use as a weapon to subvert colonial powers (Cannella & Viruru, 2004). Fourth, literature reminds us that early theorists universally described language as a means of communication, while contemporary ways of knowing informs us that language is more than a mere means of communication (Bourdieu, 1991; Djite, 2008a & b; Pennycook, 2010). This study does not intend to go into the complexity of this field but rather to bring a simple argument that language is not solely a means of communication. It is considered an indispensable part of culture and is closely related to social, cultural and symbolic resources. When intersected with power, the interplay between language and social, cultural and symbolic resources imbues a sense of belongingness or alienation (Smith, 1991). Based on these conceptualizations, the four conceptual handles are used in this study to understand teachers’ views of language to be able to address the teaching of English.

3.3.1 Language as a system

Early theorists universally described language as a system, and a means of communication. Hence, in applied linguistic, language is described an abstract system of signs. Traditionally, language is viewed as a fixed arbitrary system or code, and subsystem (Batibo, 1972, Wardhaugh, 1972; Brown, 1994), and made up of words and a series of rules that connect words together. It consists of the phonological system that
deals with the patterns of sound, the semantic system that deals with the meaning of words, and the syntactic system that deals with the rules of grammar (Kumaravadivelu, 2006). Scholars describe language as a predetermined system in which context independent lexical and grammatical meanings (langue) are separated from the relative and context contingent nature of language in use (parole) (Thorne, 2000). Following this distinction in ELT discourses, a binary is set out where there is an ideal speaker-hearer combination in a completely homogenous speech community.

This has been theorized by Chomsky (1965) as competence and performance (see Cook & Newson, 2007), by Wilkin (1972) as form and meaning, by Widdowson (1978) as usage and use, and as the Sassurian langue-parole dichotomy (Danesi, 2003). The learner is considered as a student in a context, rather than a person with a particular history situated in specific and complex social and political space(s). If language is only viewed as a system, then language learning involves learning vocabulary and mastering the rules for constructing sentences. This understanding of language is considered a very narrow one because it sees language as fixed and finite and does not explore the complexities involved in using language for communication. Arguably, this approach has influenced Zanzibar.

Contemporary ways of knowing informs us that language is more than a mere means of communication (Bourdieu, 1991; Djite, 2008b, Pennycook, 2010). Language is a tool that transmits values, beliefs, knowledge, ideology and can shape, regulate and validate social structures and behaviour (Bourdieu, 1991). Our identities take shape and are shaped by the language(s) we speak and encounter (Djite, 2008b, p.2). For example, Rea-Dickins et al. (2005) noted that English in Tanzania is taught for general-purpose communication and as a language system rather than for communication ability. Little attention is paid to the specific life world of language teachers and learners, where it is widely argued that ELT considers language structures and language learning as
cognitive phenomena, not social ones. García (2009) observes, “our conceptualization of language is often limiting and does not reflect the complex ways in which people are languaging”51 (p.39).

3.3.2 Language as social practice

In sociolinguistics, language is more than just a system. Language is viewed as a social practice in the sense that it is open, dynamic, full of life, constantly evolving and personal, and that it encompasses the rich complexities of communication (Shohamy, 2007). This expanded view of language also makes educational experience more engaging for students. Shohamy (2007) pointed out that language is not a something to be learnt but a way of seeing the world, understanding it, and communicating about the world. This is a central idea of sociocultural theory in the sense that development depends on interaction with others and the world around us (Vygotsky, 1981 & 1987).

People use language for purposeful communication and learning a new language involves learning how to use words, rules, and knowledge about language and its use in order to communicate with speakers of the language (Kumaradivelu, 2006). This understanding of language sees a language not simply as a body of knowledge to be learnt but as a social practice in which to participate (Kramsch, 1993, 1994). Based on this conceptualization, it is not enough for learners of language to know grammar and vocabulary. They need to know how that language is used to create and represent meanings and how to communicate with others and to engage with the communication of others.

51 The language practice of the people (García, 2009).
3.3.3 Language as ideology

According to the theorists such as Bourdieu (1991), language is a tool that transmits values, beliefs, knowledge, ideology and can shape, regulate and validate social structures and behavior. Language as a representational system that produces and constitutes the social order as lived social practices situated within specific social and political relations (Hall, 1997). Accordingly, literature informs that language privileges certain epistemologies and ontologies in education, and may legitimize particular ways of constructing knowledge (Welikala, 2008). It is argued that language can serve noble or evil purposes (Phillipson, 2008b, p.251). Phillipson (2008b) claims that English has manifestly done both in the past and continues to do so but contends that this depends entirely on whether the learning and use of any dominant language is additive or subtractive. The rationale for this judgment is based on what the users of a language can do with the language (See Phillipson, 2000; 2009a& 2009b).

Language is omnipresent in classrooms not only as a subject and a LoI but also as a means of expression, of identity, and knowledge construction. The decision and actions educators take around language have profound implications for learners’ futures because language has the power to affirm or undermine the language and intellectual resources learners bring to the classroom (Menken & García, 2010, p. xiii). Our identities also take shape and are shaped by the language(s) we speak and encounter (Djite, 2008b, p.2). Hence, language, from this point of view, is an indispensable part of culture and closely linked to socio-cultural, psychological, and symbolic resources (Pennycook, 1998, 2004; Makoni & Pennycook, 2007).

Against this background, postcolonial studies note that language can be a ‘medium of domination and social power’ (Habermas, 1988) ‘mechanism of power’ (Bourdieu, 1991), a ‘cultural’ or ‘imperialistic’ product (Viruru, 2005a & 2005b), a
‘tool of cultural imperialism’ (Said, 1978). Phillipson (2009) argues that language is not ideologically neutral for it can affect the way people think about power (See also Germino, 1990), hence the imposition of ‘symbolic violence’ is potential (Bartels, 2003).

3.3.4 Language as discourse

To understand language learning and teaching, the notion of discourse is useful as language is learnt in social context through discourse communities (Gee, 1996, p.127). Language as discourse emerged in the 1970s as a critique of the dominance of the Chomskyian view of language as a closed system that focused mainly on disconnected and decontextualized units of phonology, syntax, and semantics (Hymes, 1972, Brookfield, 2005). Instead of viewing language as something exclusively internal to the learner, Halliday (1973) viewed language as a sets of options in meaning that are available to the speaker-hearer in social contexts (meaning potential).

The literature is also consistent with my study, as it documents that the colonial process begins in language (Ashcroft, Griffiths &Tiffins, 2006). Postcolonial theorists view language as a central issue in postcolonial studies (Said, 1978; Spivak, 1990; Bhabha, 1994; Pennycook, 1994; Kothari, 1996; Guha, 1997; Gandhi, 1998; Loomba, 1998; Ahluwalia & Ahluwalia, 2000; Quayson, 2000; Cannella & Viruru, 2004, among others). It also ‘implies a space for moving beyond the negative pattern that persists after colonialism’ (Hickling-Hudson, Matthews, & Woods, 2004, pp.2-4). Additionally, the key concepts in postcolonial theory: discourses of power, knowledge, orientalism, linguistic imperialism, exclusion, identity are considered as powerful tools in ELT (Altbach & Kelly, 1978; Fairclough, 1989; Spivak, 1999; Pennycook, 2001; Iser, 2006). Related studies show that the choice of language is an issue of power allocation among subjects involved, which in turn become a mechanism for distributing a particular
pattern of linguistic resources (Neke, 2005). This pattern forces learners to learn the so called ‘legitimate’ language(s) because of its pivotal role and the social status that it confers on its speakers (Albright & Luke, 2008; Grenfell, 2008). This had much impact in ELT as it is described in Chapter 5, 6 and 7 of my study.

This brings to the surface the notions of “symbolic domination” (Bourdieu, 1991; Ives, 2009), and symbolic violence, which consists of the imposition of a cultural arbitrary by an arbitrary power (Bourdieu & Passeron, 1977). The arbitrary constructs are imposed and (re)produced doxa (i.e. a taking-for-granted-the predispositions, habits, and belief systems that seem natural and commonsensical.

Bourdieu’s analysis makes ties with Gramsci’s (1971) notion of hegemony and Foucault’s (1991) notion of governmentality (Ricento, 2003; Makoni & Pennycook, 2007; Menken, 2008). All focused on power dynamics built into linguistic interactions and the relations between social groups (Friedman, 2005). Gramsci’s notion of hegemony lies in the presumption that language is politics. Echoing Tollefson, (1991, 1995, 2001 & 2002) (see also Shannon, 1995; Dimitriadis & Kamberelis, 2006), Ives (2009, p.665) noted that the ‘politics of language are an integral part of hegemony’. Similarly, the work of Foucault (1980), Giddens (1985), Habermas (1988), and Fairclough, 1985 add to this useful framework that social power and domination is revealed through the appropriation and legitimation of language decision-making.

3.4 ELT AND NNESTS

The number of non-native English speaking teachers (NNESTs) population is increasing around the globe. This indicates that the number of research studies related to NNESTs and their ELT experiences is also increasing (Canagarajah, 1993, 1996; 1999; Medgyes, 1999; Tsui, 2003; Hancock & Scherff, 2010; Nel & Muller, 2010; Selvi, 2009, 2011; Ma, 2012; Gurkan & Yusksel, 2012). Literature from first world context
addressed a number of studies for native speakers and non-native speakers within the inner circle context. The existing literature informs that historically language and linguistics studies seem to place more emphasis on BANA and TESEP situations. For example, a number of studies were carried out to explore the way Native Speaker (NS) teachers differ from their Non-Native Speakers (NNS) colleagues (Reves & Medgyes, 1994; Árva & Medgyes, 2000; Medgyes, 2001; Benke & Medgyes, 2005; Llurda, 2012).

The literature reported a number of positive and negative aspects of NNESTs and NESTs. Studies show that there is a general perception that NNESTs have strong pedagogical understanding and are linguistically weak, while NESTs are perceived to have strong linguistic understanding but are pedagogically weak; however, Ma (2012) studied Hong Kong teachers and found that this is not the case in that context. Previous research has compared NNESTs with NESTs on the ground of command of English (Reves & Medgyes, 1994); proficiency(Medgyes, 1994); self-perception (Tang,1997); self-image (Samimy & Brutt-Griffler,1999); knowing the language needs of learners (Modiano, 1999), accent, fluency, grammar, knowledge of the language (Rajagopalan, 2005); self-confidence (Rajagopalan, 2005); English language proficiency (Brutt-Griffler,1999; Moussu, 2006); inferiority complex (Llurda & Huguet, 2003); teaching behaviour (Shin & Kellogg, 2007); and the superiority of native speaker (Cook, 2007; Lewier & Bilmona, 2010).

On the positive side, L2 learning experience of NNESTs was mentioned in a number of studies (Stern, 1983; Medgyes, 1994; Widdowson, 1994; Phillipson, 1996; Cook, 2010b). NNESTs studies have been conducted within the educational systems of English- speaking countries, yet little is known about the teachers of English in the margin (postcolonial contexts). A substantial literature on linguistics and education has
also been identified (Howatt, 1984; Wright, 2010), which show that teachers of English in the postcolonial contexts remain largely unexplored.

3.5 **DRIVERS-INHIBITORS OF ELT AND ITS IMPLICATIONS ON PRACTICES**

Given the above review of the complex intersection of SLTE, LoI, ELTE and especially the paucity of knowledge about postcolonial experience investigating ELTE programmes at university level, it is imperative to identify strengths and weaknesses of ELTE. In the context of globalization and post-modern discourses, review of discourses show that English is overwhelmingly the linguistic gold (Chew, 2009). Hence, the literature reported a number of positive and negative aspects of NNESTs and NESTs. As I discussed above, NNESTs studies have been conducted within the educational systems of English-speaking countries, yet little is known about the teachers of English in the margin (postcolonial contexts). Also even though a plethora of studies have been conducted on LoI and ELT around the world (Phillipson, 2003; Borg, 2006a; Rassool, 2007; Chowdhury & Ha, 2008; Negash, 2011), and positive attitudes and motivation were identified to be important (Shimizu, 1995; Dörnyei, 2001a, 2001b), the review identified gaps in the existing body of knowledge on the provision of language education in all levels of education in particular at university level (Canagarajah, 2005; Wright, 2010; Hinkel, 2011).

The field of ELT is also rapidly expanding globally, both as a field of practice and of research. This growth in interest is attributed to a number of key factors discussed below: the response to the escalating demand for English as a result of economic globalization (Crystal, 2003; Nunan, 2003), which leads to pressure on governments from international economic forces to ensure there is an English-speaking workforce (Garton, et al., 2011, p.4). Several authors confirm that this unprecedented
situation has created new parameters for the institutions charged with educating teachers of English (Rajagopalan, 2004; Derbel & Richards, 2007), which need immediate attention.
3.5.1 Motivation

The importance of motivation, aspiration and satisfaction in the education field is becoming the focus of attention in the field of language and teacher education. Studies have shown that motivation is crucial for L2 learning (Dörnyei, 1994a, 1994b, 1998; Spolsky, 1989, 2000) because it influence how L2 is learnt. Trang and Baldauf (2007) caution that it is not the only factor relevant to L2 and FL language learning and teacher education. With the growing needs of English around the globe, a number of students want to learn it, and yet they are not successful. While in the field of ELT, English as a L2 or FL is learnt for a number of reasons, studies related to teaching career reported that ‘about 50-70% British teachers graduates leave the field of TESOL within three to four years’ (Mullock, 2009; p.2). A number of studies have been undertaken about motivation in ITE, and investigated the major reasons that people choose teaching, and stay or leave the career. The common findings were related to intrinsic, altruistic and extrinsic motivation (See for example, Brookhart & Freeman, 1992; Huberman & Grounauer, 1993; Cochran-Smith 2003, 2004; Rhodes, Neville & Allen 2004; Hammerness, 2006; Manuel & Hughes 2006; Richardson & Watt, 2005, 2006; Kyriacou & Kunc, 2007; Morgan, Kitching & O’Leary, 2007; Teven, 2007 & Alexander, 2008). Research demonstrates that motivation at the pre-service stage is not always maintained in the early years (Hargreaves, 2005). It has been reported that although the career entry stage of a teacher’s professional life cycle can be easy, however instances of pain and trauma were mentioned. Hoy (2008) reported that novice teachers are not well prepared in their early years of teaching (see also Faez, & Valeo, 2012).

Another notably study in the field reported that motivation is crucial in ELT, as well as in the recruitment of students. This is confirmed by a number of general surveys of undergraduate students and of beginning teachers (Coulthard & Kyriacou, 2002).
Some were motivated by ‘role model teachers’ (see Fillmore & Snow, 2000, 2002). Studies highlighted that some people have integrative motivation to learn English for their personal growth and cultural enrichment (Gardner & Lambert, 1972; Lightbown & Spada, 1999).

### 3.5.2 Approaches

Strevens (1976) noted that the training of teachers of foreign languages must involve three components: a theory component, an information component, and a skill component. Other have found the need for proficiency in foreign language and expertise in integrating language instruction into their curricula (Shrum & Glisan; 1994); teaching theory, teaching skills, communication skills, subject matter knowledge, pedagogical reasoning and decision-making skills, and contextual knowledge (Richard, 1998; Yeh, 2003); personal proficiency development and methodological awareness involving culturally appropriate approaches to teaching (Snow, Kamhi-Stein and Briton, 2006); a knowledge and understanding of learners, learner characteristics, and educational contexts in which learners are operating (Shulman, 1986). Wallace (1993, pp.6-13) outlines three main models of teacher training and other professional education: craft model, applied science model and reflective model. Current literature recommends the reflective model (Loughran, 2009, 2011 & 2012), a compromise which “gives due weight both to experience and to the scientific basis of the profession” (Wallace, 1993; p. 17).

A useful study in the context of NNESTs, Cullen (1994 & 2001) who repeatedly emphasizes that it is necessary for teachers to improve their own command of the language so that they can use the language in the classroom fluently and confidently (Cook, 2007). Cullen (1994) found that the language improvement component of teacher training courses should be linked to the kind of language the teachers will need
to use in the classroom (also discussed above regarding the KAL framework) (See Trousdale, 2006).

Others have found that student teachers need to learn to use suitable resources and be able to evaluate teaching materials in relation to the teaching-learning context and their teaching purposes (Garton et al., 2011; Ellis, 2012) (See other studies in Saudi Arabia,(Al-Gaeed; 1983); in Turkey (Erozan, 2005; Cosgun-Ogeyik ;2009; Coskun & Daloglu, 2010), and in Spain (Corona, 2010).

### 3.5.3 Models

The best models in teaching and learning produces tangible evidence and positive outcomes. Consequently, Lo Bianci and Slaughter (2009, p.28) ‘…good teaching is the single most important controllable variable in successful language learning’. Lo Bianco and Slaughter (2009) argue that the ultimate target of all language education is about ‘good teaching’, the effectiveness of the teachers, the skills they are able to marshal, and their persistence in their roles.

Most second/foreign language teaching researchers agree that teaching a foreign language is not an easy task. The training should put in consideration how second language is learnt (Shih, 2001; Trumbull & Pacheco, 2005; Hu, 2007; Lo Bianco & Slaughter, 2009). Ur (2001) warns that no matter how good the initial training courses, it cannot produce fully competent practitioners who can immediately vie with their experienced colleagues in expertise. Bamgbose (2005, p.215) reported that ‘exposure to a good model of English, improve the pupils’ mastery of the English language’.

Ur (2001) states that teachers are likely to perpetuate the way in which they were taught or the way in which colleagues teach, having ‘little opportunity to encounter new ideas…’ (p.8). However, this does not disregard the fact that effective initial training
courses are paramount and the key aspect of initial teacher education. Other studies have pointed out that language policies are generally imposed from above (top-down approach), and oftentimes there is no appropriate or sufficient preparation (Nunan, 2003; Lee, 2009).

3.5.4 Outcomes

There have been some studies at university level observing university programmes. It was reported that some factors such as mode of study, student age, previous tertiary qualifications and past academic performance contribute to students’ academic success while at university level or at programme level (Dickson, Fleet & Watt, 2000). Quality teaching is of concern in language education as well as teacher education. Rausch (2001, p.1) believes that initial teacher education and training determines not just the quality of future in-service teachers, but also the character of education as a whole. However, some important investigation in the field of ETL and ITE informs that the high-quality teaching is only possible with the support of high quality teacher education. Kleinhenz et al. (2007, p.18) state that “…understanding what constitute quality teaching is of central importance to language teacher education course development” (see Wallace, 1991,1993). Competence and high proficiency in the target language is the most often valued aspect of a non-native teacher’s competence (Murdoch, 1994; Shrum & Glisan, 2004). However, in a study conducted in Australia, Kleinhenz et al. (2007, pp.62-63) remind us that proficiency is not sufficient component of the knowledge base of language teachers. They found that other qualifications such as a sound knowledge base and pedagogical, personal and interpersonal skills are required (see Llurda, 2000)

A large-scale study conducted by Garton et al. (2011) in 144 countries (including Tanzania) confirms that that low proficiency level in English and lack of
confidence in English ability is a major problem across the globe. Despite the wide range of challenges identified in the study, Garton et al. (2011) confirm that the introduction of primary level English has increased globally without considering the consequences and outcome of the early start. The studies show that there is a growing gap between policy and implementation (Enever, Moon & Raman, 2009). The study also claim that the gap in upper primary, secondary and higher education (in all 144 countries surveyed) might be wider than can be envisioned. Although this study was conducted for primary school teachers but it was significant, because it reveals the importance of teacher trainings at all levels of education. The study found that institutions that deals with teacher training needs to be strengthened (see also Emery, 2012).

3.6 ZANZIBARI, ENGLISH AND TEACHER EDUCATION

In postcolonial Zanzibar, ELT at university level is a relatively understudied area of inquiry in language education. Previous studies about ELT and LoI in Zanzibar are of limited scope. This section provides an overview of evidence-based findings from postcolonial Zanzibar (MoEVT, 2007).

A recent policy documents in postcolonial Zanzibar acknowledges the value of Kiswahili, and supports its maintenance, preservation and promotion. However, the government has policies that limit Kiswahili (L1) teaching in the interests of promoting English (L2) literacy. The policy document confirms that there is a need to upgrade English competence in Zanzibar, however the consequences for preferring L2 over L1 has not been sufficiently researched in Zanzibar. Notably where research evidence are readily available (Muhdhar, 2002; Said, 2003; Rea-Dickins et al., 2005; Ismail, 2005, 2007, Maalim, 2009; Babaci-Wilhite, 2013a & 2013b), language policy decisions and new education reforms appear to be based on a range of considerations that are external
to ELTE within the university or schools such as political expediency, the demands for foreign donors which are normally associated with conditions of the aid (Easterly, 2006), and lack of meaningful dialogue between researchers and policy makers (Shoba & Chimbutane, 2013). Zanzibar policy makers note that it is common for most school leavers to have weak language skills in L1 (Kiswahili) as well as in L2 (English), where most learners lack effective communication skills. They have also noted the majority leave primary school with low English language proficiency, and many teachers are trained inadequately to teach English, and teach in English effectively (MoEVT, 2007). See also Zanzibar Education Policy (ZEP)(2006). MoEVT (2007, p.13) further reported in terms of resources, the system is dependent on ad hoc donor support. Regarding staffing issues, it was highlighted that English, Mathematics and Science remain understaffed and with teachers lacking the right qualifications (p.14) resulting in unfairly distributed teaching load, and the large number of Zanzibari pupils not getting quality teaching in key subjects (pp.18-19)(see also Mzee, 1994, and other studies).

MoEVT (2007, pp.18-19) further reported that:

about ‘83% of primary teachers have a teaching certificate, obtained through 2 years of study following O level (lower secondary) or as an in-service course, however, close to 50% of secondary teachers are unqualified (qualifications of certificate or less), 40% have a diploma and only 11% have a degree or higher’

The report also stresses on the need for training (pre-service and in-service), particularly in-service training. It also pinpointed that teacher centres (TCs) are of importance to the schools, however building the capacity of TCs to take on the in-

52 Zanzibar Education Policy (ZEP)(2006) also commonly known as EP06
service training programs in Zanzibar is another critical area of development needed for successful implementation of the reforms (MoEVT, 2007, p.14).

Limited literature has shown that ELT in Zanzibar is a topic of concern from multiple perspectives. A recent study conducted by Babaci-Wilhite (2012) on curriculum reforms in Zanzibar clearly pointed out that although there is a policy preference for English over Kiswahili as a LoI, it will not lead to improvement of learning in Zanzibari children. The study concludes that Zanzibari are ignoring the experiences of other countries, which have retained or regained their own language as LoI, and policy reforms are ill-founded. The study recommends they be reassessed and reviewed. Of considerable importance, the practical and empirical evidence shows that there are several key gaps in literature of ELT in Zanzibar. There is a dearth of applied linguistic studies (Rea-Dickins et al., 2005), and whatever was documented in earlier studies did not shed much light on ELT in initial teacher education (university level). As far as literature review in Tanzania is concerned, no studies have combined linguistic and pedagogical examination in higher education. What research does exist confirms is that ELT has been, and still is, a problematic phenomenon in the context of Zanzibar, and this warrants further exploration.

Political economy studies shows that English has more harm than good in most postcolonial countries (Rubagumya, 2003) (see studies of language and poverty, which is not the scope of this study, however the concept cannot be ignored as discussed in Harbert, McConnell-Ginet, Miller, & Whitman in 2008). The review of second language empirical studies suggest opportunities to improve ELT in teacher trainings institutions and the need for research in higher education (Rea-Dickins et al., 2005). Available evidence suggests that a large number of students are failing to continue with their studies beyond basic education mainly because of their examination performance (Mlama & Matteru, 1978; Roy-Campbell & Qorro, 1997; Mwinshekhe, 2001;
Mtesigwa, 2001). Another study has found that in Zanzibar, currently 50% of students underachieve (Rea-Dickins & Afitska, 2010). The Tanzanian education system is sometimes accused of fostering memorisation rather than critical thinking (Loimeier, 2009). Many comment on the language factor (Alidou & Brock-Utne, 2004; Rea-Dickins Yu, & Afitska, 2009; Rea-Dickins & Yu, 2013), and poor English language understanding and use in education has been mentioned to be among the key contributing factors of underachievement (Criper & Dodd, 1984; Rubagumya, 1989 & 1990; Yahya-Othman, 1990; Rugemarila, 2005; Legère, 2010; Brock-Utne, & Holmarsdottir, 2004 & Brock-Utne, 2011).

The quality of ELT in Tanzania has been dissected and questioned (UWEZO, 2011). A quote from a newspaper article by Bill Jones, a former English teacher in Tanzania from UK “Improve quality of English teaching” is very pertinent here (The Citizen dated 23 August 2011). (see also Roy-Campbell, 1989; Moilanen & Mwinula, 2008; Batibo, 2009). Some studies show that the teacher quality and quality of teaching constrains learning in classrooms (Anangisye & Barrett, 2005) however, little research is available to specifically explain how teacher quality and quality of teaching in lower levels affect teachers of English when they join ITE, and throughout their teaching career (Cohen, 2010).

All in all, while there is abundance of literature on ELT in BANA countries, there is a paucity of research focusing on the grounded stories involving several ELT stakeholders in Zanzibar. The review of research conducted in Tanzania indicates that most of the studies were conducted at primary and secondary schools (Rubagumya, 2003; Vuzo, 2007; Brock-Utne & Skattum, 2009; Babaci-Wilhite, 2012a, 2012b). While there has been a focus on teachers and students at school level, what is lacking so far is substantive research from the perspective of teacher educators and their students from university level (ITE context) (Rea-Dickins et al., 2005).
No research has been conducted in teacher education involving schoolteachers (first order teachers) and teacher educators (second order teachers) in postcolonial Zanzibar. Generally, there is a poverty of research in Zanzibar. Hence this study aims to address the general lack of awareness of ELT issues and teacher education in postcolonial Zanzibar.

Despite the conspicuous growth in ELT interest around the world, literature reviewed show that there is very little research on teachers-in-training at university level in Zanzibar. The current statistics in Zanzibar showed that there was a need to ensure that the shortfall of 1100 trained English language teachers is met prior to the closing date of July 2013 (Arun, 2013), and there is little hope that this need will be met by appropriately trained SLTE graduates from the ITE program in Zanzibar.

My review of literature also noted that studies that have been conducted in Zanzibar about SLTE have insufficiently explored the experiences and perception of teachers of English in Zanzibar. In terms of comparative studies between first world and the margin, it is undoubtedly clear that the studies in Zanzibar tell very little about ELT practitioners. This is consistent with Medgyes’ (2000, p.445) statement that ‘that the study of the NNESTs remain a largely unexplored area in language education’.

3.7 **OVERALL SUMMARY OF REVIEW OF LITERATURE**

This review of the literature covers the contexts of first world and margin, which show that only limited research has been undertaken to look into teachers' linguistic knowledge and their pedagogic practices. There is criticism that research in ITE consists of a number of small-scale studies conducted by individuals, some team research and development type work through contracts (McGee, 1999). My analysis of this broad literature concludes that ITE remains fragmented, lacks purpose and direction. Little has been published about novice teacher educators into the profession (Murray, 2008;
Swennen & Van der Klink, 2009). This is reflected and replicated in the context of postcolonial Zanzibar. Given the limited studies from Zanzibar, empirical evidence and theoretical works designed to give insights in matters pertaining to language education are much needed to improve the teaching of English at any level.

3.8 CHAPTER SUMMARY

In this chapter, ELT and its discourses were outlined. While several perspectives of ELT have been thoroughly discussed in the literature, empirical studies that investigated NNESTs are limited in number. Although there is a considerable body of literature on NESTs, the same is not the case for the NNESTs. The body of literature identifies aspects that contribute and inhibit ELT in postcolonial contexts. Significantly, this review suggests that ELT in Zanzibar faces unprecedented challenges. It seems that the position of ELT is exacerbated by an ill preparedness to confront the crisis that stem from ELT, its practices and its discourses. Since very little is empirically known about ELT in postcolonial Zanzibar, the researcher chose to conduct critical descriptive and interpretative exploratory study in order to understand the phenomenon in question. The next chapter describes the methodological approach underpinning this study.
CHAPTER 4
METHODOLOGY

4.0 INTRODUCTION

This chapter describes the master plan for this study. It presents the research design, methods of data collection and procedures adopted. This chapter describes the pathway between the research questions and the data collected and analyzed in order to answer the research question. The specific research questions addressed in this study are presented in Chapter 1 and contextualized in Chapters 2 and 3. They are summarized here as a point of reference in a discussion of the research design. Methods of data collection and data analysis procedures are described. In this chapter, I briefly present my personal motivation using two voices: a personal voice and a researcher’s voice— the multiple I’s (Connelly & Clandinin, 1990). The chapter lays the foundation aspects of this research regarding the relevance of the study, significance of the study and the contribution to knowledge in the area of study.

4.1 IN THE FIELD: WHAT, WHY AND WHERE

This study is about teachers of English, involving university teacher educators and their students, in postcolonial Zanzibar. The study takes into account the perspectives and experiences of core participants who includes teacher educators, PTE and university graduates. Additionally, it also considers views of university officials, officials of MoEVT and informed experts both locals and foreigners.

The methodology used in this study falls within an interpretive paradigm (Grotjahn, 1987) with the major goal being to gain an insider or emic perspective (van Lier, 1988; Watson-Gegeo, 1988). The study was conducted using qualitative methods. Baseline data were collected through open-ended questionnaires. Eleven (11) teacher educators and fourty (40) PTE responses were obtained from the process. Qualitative
data was obtained through focused discussion groups, interviews, observation, and through the collection of artifacts such as biographies and documents.

The qualitative method was considered as the most effective means to study the ELT because of two main reasons. First, it would enable gathering data that would allow a deep, enrich understanding of the strengths and weaknesses of ELTE. Second, it facilitates the development of an empirically grounded approach, the findings of which would help educators in Zanzibar to restructure the terrain of ELT/ELTE programme at university level.

4.2 RATIONALE FOR THE STUDY

This study was born out of a unique set of events in my personal and professional life. The research was initially triggered by local and national data about the state of education in general, and particularly ELT in Tanzania (See Appendix 1A & 1B), and motivated by concerns and questions arising from my personal experiences in teaching and learning English as a second/foreign language in different loci.

Teachers of English are often at the frontline of criticisms, and it was very common to hear statement like “ELT has been of questionable quality for decades in Zanzibar”. Against this backdrop, I shift my interests in higher education. My interest was to explore the ELTE in initial teacher education. I wanted to understand the nature of the existing practices in ELT and justify the need to re-examine them. Additionally, I also had the desire to deeply understand the academics and non-academics perspectives that “ELT is not working in Zanzibar?” as illustrated in Chapter 5, 6 and 7. Research evidence from literature and personal experiences contributed to the context of study and allowed me to make a deeper inquiry in understanding of the complexities and nuances of language education in postcolonial Zanzibar.
4.2.1 Selection of Zanzibar as a research site

Zanzibar was considered a site of interest because it bears the following properties crucial to this study. First, this was a small-scale work-based research involving me as an insider-researcher in two teacher education domains, in the public university, the State University of Zanzibar (SUZA) and selected public schools as illustrated in Figure 4.1. Second, Zanzibar offers the epistemological location that enabled me to extract rich data for the purposes of this study. As discussed in Chapter 2, Zanzibar has a colonial history. Therefore, the historical background and geopolitical nature of Zanzibar offered the context of the study, and set the platform for the quest of this inquiry.

Next, Zanzibar has a distinct linguistic background worthy of investigation, compared to their counterparts, Tanzania mainlanders. For quite sometime Zanzibari have been relying on empirical conclusions drawn from Tanzania mainland. For example, available evidence reveals that the advocacy for Kiswahili to be the teaching tool stems from the wrong assumption that Kiswahili is the mother tongue of all pupils in the primary and secondary schools, which means all pupils are considered proficient in the language when they start schooling (Rubagumya, 2003). Rubagumya (2003) argued that this assumption is incorrect with Zanzibar being an obvious example. The point I wish to make here is that the policy gap revealed by a number of language crises in Tanzania need to be addressed separately in the Zanzibar context.

Additionally, the motivation for carrying out the present study derives from the central role that the development of language proficiency plays in the education of teachers of English (also NNESTs). Finally, Zanzibar as my home also influenced my choice of the research site.
Figure 4.1. Research Sites in Zanzibar
4.2.2  The quest to make an impact from inside

The choice to focus on ELT at university level in initial teacher preparation was influenced by my profession as a teacher educator at SUZA. Moreover, as a language teacher educator, I was cognizant of my role as a practitioner-researcher and I wanted to be able to capture the anecdotal evidence, stories and language learning experiences in a way, which properly describes the state of ELT in Zanzibar. This backdrop as evidenced elsewhere in research can influence the desire to conduct a practitioner research and make an impact from within (Brindley, 1991; Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 1990, 1993).

Despite the centrality of ELT in Zanzibar, it is an area with limited professional literature (Chapter 3). My aim therefore is to advance knowledge and create a picture for all key stakeholders involved in ELT and language education to see (i.e. the government, learners, teachers, parents, policy makers, curriculum developers, informed experts and academic institutions).

My study was motivated by personal experience, and previous studies (Ismail 2005, 2007). I borrowed the word “ontogenetic”\textsuperscript{54} from science, to describe my tripartite stance: position, voice, and role continually provides different kinds of reflective feedback and reminded me that becoming a teacher educator is based on a continual process of learning about teaching through sustained inquiry into practice(Loughran, 2011) (see Loughran & Northfield, 1998; Loughran, 2005; Zeichner, 2005).

\textsuperscript{54} Ontogenetic refer to the entire sequence of events involved in the development of an individual organism without the loss of the organization, which allows that unity or organism to exist.
4.2.3 The quest to understand teacher education domains

I have been motivated to reflect on this dualism of teacher education domains (university and schools) so that I can influence the knowledge, skills and understanding of this dualism, which I believe, is required in Zanzibar. This dualism is clearly captured in the work of Taylor (1983):

…Teacher education is Janus-faced…faces classroom and school, with their demands for relevance, practicality, competence, technique….faces the university and the world of research, with their stress on scholarship, theoretical fruitfulness and disciplinary rigour (p.41).

When I started working at university as an English teacher educator, there were a number of issues that needed a thorough investigation. Unbeknown to me, the safari began, when I was first involved in supervising student teachers while in their Block Teaching Practice (BTP) or Practicum experiences in various schools in Zanzibar (Unguja and Pemba), but I never had the opportunity to serve teachers on in-service courses or programme, which I thought was a crucial part of working as a teacher educator. My quest is supported by studies that show there is a relationship between teacher education (teacher preparation) and the school sector (schooling), and there is a variety of models for cooperative partnerships between schools and teacher education institutes (Maandag, Deinum, Hofman, & Buitink, 2007). These aspects are crucial in understanding my field and my position as an English teacher educators working within it.

Second, as a teacher educator, my plan was to synthesis a formula that will help reforming the curricula, pedagogies and assessment modes used in teacher education in order to enhance teacher training and teacher quality. This idea originates from three sources: first, the Revolutionary Government of Zanzibar (RGOZ) draft report showed that student teachers frequently find it difficult to work through English, and that their
poor level of English is a barrier to quality, and teaching is often done using a mixture of Kiswahili and English (MoEVT, 2007). Further, empirical evidence shows that this state of affair is happening at all levels of education (primary, secondary and tertiary education), and at the same time issues that affect the language-in-education remain unsolved (see also RGOZ, 1998, 2003 & 2007). There is a lack of evidence-base database to inform language education policy (Rea-Dickins et al., 2005).

Third, until recently there has been a tendency for bureaucrats to blame the teachers and students, and to fail to accept their fair share of responsibility. Editorial cartoons and newspaper articles are also used in this study to demonstrate how the state of education generally and the language education policy in particular was depicted in Zanzibar’s media (See Appendix 1A & 1B). The study is premised on the assumption that ELT in Zanzibar at primary and secondary levels is like a “revolving door” (see Chapter 1). Lundy’s door metaphor (2008) was adopted to denote that the existing language education policy is responsible for the vicious cycle of the proliferation of poor teachers of English.

As expounded in Chapter 3, the review of literature suggested that for the changes to have a significant impact, and for the cycle to break, there is a clear need to understand the strengths and weaknesses of ELTE programme at university level to get the perspectives of ELT practitioners. Such understanding can then inform policy and practices in pursuit of improvement.

4.2.4 The quest to study ELT and ITE

The current state of teacher training and teacher preparation in Zanzibar motivated the needs to focus on the ELTE programme, and examine the ITE at university level for several reasons. To start with, studies suggest that work-based
research may prove beneficial to the long-term success of the organization and can make significant contributions to work practices (Costley, Elliott & Gibbs, 2010).

Secondly, Zanzibar has only four major state-financed teacher training institutions namely Chuo Cha Kiislam (CCK) Uguja (also known as Muslim Academy), Benjamin Mkapa College in Pemba, SUZA and the Chuo Cha Kiislam (CCK) in Pemba.

Currently, there are only one government institution, SUZA established in 2001, and two private institutions, which provide initial teacher training at the level of university in Zanzibar:

During the fieldwork, SUZA was the only public university that offers degree courses in education (that is trains English teachers for secondary schools teaching), and it offers diploma courses in science and languages. SUZA was the only ELT provider, and trainer of teachers of English. In 2005, SUZA produced the first batch with a Bachelor’s degree in English. However according to MoEVT (2007, p.49) state:

‘…Staffing is one of the major constraints characterizing all three universities, but perhaps it is more acute at SUZA. Currently, SUZA totally depends on the services of the part-time lecturers, mainly from the University of Dar es Salaam in order to afford to run its programmes…’

55 Until the data were collected for this research in 2010, these were the only three (3) universities in Zanzibar, the State University of Zanzibar (SUZA), Zanzibar University (ZU), and University College of Education(UCEZ)

56 The Zanzibar Teacher Centres (TCs) also play a great role to the professional development (PD) of the English teachers in Zanzibar. They provide training for teachers of English with college qualifications and at the same time provide short and long courses for the English teachers to improve their language teaching.
Prior to 2005, Zanzibar relied on teachers training colleges to prepare qualified English teachers and other universities such as University of Dar-es-salaam and other parts of the world. The highest level provided to the English teachers in those colleges was a Diploma from the Nkrumah Teachers Training College (NTTC).

Third, although teachers training and institutions were introduced during colonial time, the Teacher Education Department in Zanzibar was recently established in 2006, a separate entity from the Department of Curriculum and Examination and Teacher Education. The evidence above indicates that the preparation of teachers of English in postcolonial Zanzibar needs a thorough attention.

4.2.5 Setting the background context: anecdotal evidence

Over the years leading to this study, I have gathered anecdotal comments about the lack of progress in ELT and learners being rendered functionally illiterate in a number of platforms: news, research reports, cartoons, comic, songs, speeches, publications, and disparaging radio and television advertisements about the ability to communicate in English (Appendix 1A and 1B). My desire to investigate the strengths and weaknesses of ELTE arose within this context. Furthermore, the anecdotal comments resonated with my multiple experiences as a learner and a teacher of English, (school and university) and my responsibility as a parent raising ‘bilingual children’ of my own.

As an English teacher educator, several of my roles reminded me that learning a L2 is a difficult experience and can be frustrating. Moreover, teaching in a L2/FL language can be even more complex. Consequently, I needed to (re) think its implications for teachers of English so that I could inform ELT practitioners and develop an articulated knowledge about practice.
It should be noted that ‘learning to teach’ and ‘teaching about teaching’ share many common features although they vary (Loughran, 2006). Both fields have much to contribute to the debates about pedagogical quality and thus, my attempt to bring the two fields closer together. There is also an inadequate research focus on English language learning and teaching in higher education and in teacher education.

In this respect, this study is unique and has an important contribution to make to the understanding of ELT by professionals in Zanzibar, and in the larger context, Tanzania, as well as the role, which ELT practitioners can play in it. Although this study stems from a personal quest, the timeliness of this investigation on a national and international scale is worth noting. For instance, the timing of SPINE project coincided with my study. The findings of the study provides evidence that pupils in Zanzibar face significant difficulties with English language which contribute to their difficulties with subject knowledge (Roy-Campbell, 2003; Rea-Dickins, Yu & Afitska, 2009). The study confirms that low academic achievement in Zanzibar is partly language-related. Knowing English pressure was evident in SUZA VC Communication Series 1 (Personal communication, October 1, 2010).

4.2.6 Setting the big scene

A set of questions and problems I posed at the beginning of Chapter 1 justifies why I have conducted this research. In Chapter 2 and Chapter 3, I show that there is a lack of knowledge about ELT/SLTE. Studies show that only small body of literature exists to explain the status of ELT in primary and secondary education. Little current empirical research exists within the Tanzania contexts to provide a distinct understanding of the complexities and difficulties of ELT at university level.
In this Chapter, I clearly showed what motivated me to conduct this study, and my purpose being to provide a qualitative description of strengths and weaknesses of ELT at university level.

In general, my research context, Zanzibar is information and variable-rich. As an insider researcher, I brought my own broad experience of the course to the setting and the desired outcome was a deeper understanding of others’ perspectives. Glaser and Strauss (1967, p.252) stressed that ‘researchers can cultivate crucial insights not only from their research but from their own personal experiences’. This positioning results in a series of ethical issues and other dilemmas for consideration in order to improve validity and credibility of the findings, which are discussed later in the ethical section. Importantly, I was aware that despite my intention to stay ‘professionally detached’, my own perceptions and beliefs shaped my work as a teacher-researcher. This research adheres to the ethical regulations, including the university’s code of practice, policy on research ethics and laws, as well as the practices and protocols of Zanzibar. Where challenges arose, I used my insider knowledge to comply with standard processes used for all participants.

4.3 RETHINKING AND RESEARCHING ‘POSTCOLONIALITY’

In this section, I locate myself ideologically by focusing on framing my role as a practitioner-researcher who is situated in specific cultural, historical and geographic places. As Cliff (1985) states:

‘…To write as a complete Caribbean woman demands of us the retracing of the African part of ourselves, reclaiming as our own, and as our subject, a history sunk under the sea, or scattered as potash in the cane fields, or gone to the bush or trapped in a class system notable for its rigidity and absolute dependence …’(p.14)
As I have suggested in Chapter 1, in order to understand the ELT in Zanzibar, I adopted a methodology that can discover the complexities and contradictions of lived experience. I therefore needed data that is as local, concrete, and grounded in real context of Zanzibar.

To make my argument clear, I provided a detailed rationale of the study, and I followed the notion of postcolonial writers and other writers who utilized a postcolonial perspective (Tikly, 2001; Hickling-Hudson, 2006). I chose the cartographic ‘I’ (See Cliff, 1985; Kamler, 2001) to frame my role as a researcher situated in particular cultural, historical and geographic places.

Research values and beliefs are known as ones’ research paradigm (s) (Guba & Lincoln, 1994; Creswell, 2009). This is a way of seeing the world-reality or ‘knowledge claims’ (Creswell, 2003, 2007) which inform and guide the inquiry. Paradigm encompasses three crucial elements: ontology, epistemology and methodology to be explored (Denzin & Lincoln, 2000; Bryman, 2001; Grix, 2001; Schwandt, 2002; Litchman, 2006; Wiersma & Jurs, 2009). The proposed work is shaped by my worldview, human constructions. Reality in the world is perceived as subjective, multiple (Litchman, 2006), and is socially constructed (Lincoln & Guba, 2000; Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007).

My research paradigm is grounded in the sort of experiences recounted in the previous section and my research questions lead the development of my methodology (Chapter). My research question allowed data to emerge from participants’ experiences, which is consistent with postcolonial methodology. Postcolonial ways of knowing have evolved from a critique of modernist views of understanding the world, which attempts to reinterpret issues that have a direct bearing on colonization and its aftermath (Ghandi, 1998).
A postcolonial perspective challenges the Western epistemologies and cultures, and tries to change the colonial process of knowledge generation and its implications for power relations (Alvares & Faruqi, 2012). While the positivists and western research perspectives reminds us that what is known is objective, rational, value free, scientific, and can be measured, the human realities are taken for granted. The postcolonial epistemologies may rely on unique experiences of participants such as views, perspectives and aspirations as sources of empirical data. It is through these lived experiences of interconnectedness, relationships, and cultural values that perceptions and subjectivities are generated, and are dependent upon social, political and cultural landscapes.

The legacies of the past have established historical forces that structure education in ELT in Zanzibar. Thinking postColonially has been a useful tool for identifying the strengths and weaknesses of ELTE at university level in postcolonial Zanzibar. I used the strengths-weaknesses framework to interrogate and make sense of issues such as language, symbolic power, knowledge, dominance and voices.

Furthermore, the complex and social nature of my study required that I use a constructivist/interpretivist paradigm (Geertz, 1973). Ontologically, interpretive research assumes that all aspects of the social world, including the world of work and organisations, are socially constructed through interactions between people (Charmaz, 2000; Merriam, 2002). For this reason, social reality-including all human interaction cannot be ‘discovered’ but can only be interpreted.

Explanations and interpretations constructed by interpretive research seek to generate understandings of how subjective meanings are formed and maintained in a given setting. Knowledge can be generated through inductive and deductive processes. The emphasis on understanding the experience and perspective of participants leads to
the use of interpretations, understandings, meanings and language as a primary and valid source of data. Postcolonial theory is supported by an interpretivist paradigm, which portrays a world in which reality is socially constructed, complex and ever-changing (Glesne & Peshkin, 1992, p.6).

I chose to employ the constructivist/interpretivist perspective because knowledge is socially constructed, and the phenomena can be understood only within the context in which they are studied, and how the researched person(s) construct their reality. The researcher’s job is to try to understand the complex world lived from the point of view of those who are researched (Mertens, 2005). The basic assumption is that interpretivist paradigm seeks a compassionate understanding of the everyday lived experience of the person(s) being researched in their natural setting (Neuman, 2000; Creswell, 2008), and therefore context and behaviour are viewed as interdependent and intertwined, and are affected by knowledge of the social world (Creswell, 2007, 2009).

Second, this paradigm is seen as the more appropriate approach for this study because it does not suggest a particular method of creating data but rather prescribes a particular way of treating any type of data (Bevir & Rhodes 2002). The ‘university’ was conceptualized as a “case”, because each institution has its own specific characteristics. Thus, the university was the case, and the participants in different categories interviewed made up the contexts of analysis from which various phenomena were investigated. Yin (2009) noted that a case study is used in many situations to contribute to our knowledge of individual, groups, organizational, social, political and related phenomena.

Since ELT is complex, the researcher needed to understand multiple realities of the different stakeholders involved. It also argues that reality is subjective to the person
experiencing it (Charmaz, 2000, 2006) and so was able to frame the anticipated complexity of the research design.

The current study has used a range of data and an interpretive methodology to gain an in depth understanding of participants’ views on ELT in Zanzibar. The research was guided by the participants’ worldviews about English language teaching (ELT), which I regarded as their socially constructed realities (Mertens, 2005).

I also discuss some of the theoretical issues that I have grappled with in my research. These include thinking and researching postcoloniality (Smith, 2002), the standpoint of the researcher and the research. My postcolonial\textsuperscript{57} standpoint is linked to the debunking of scientific ways of writing. The major challenge I had to face repeatedly, and the interjections of using the personal ‘1’ in professional writing. As Smith (2002) put it, my conceptual tools are those, which bring discomfort, which most people avoid or which have no easy response. I found the questions raised by the literature of postcolonial theory pertinent for this study. It echoed the proposal made by postcolonial writers such as Cliff (1985), Mahala and Swilky (1996), and Hickling-Hudson (2003).

4.4 RESEARCH DESIGN

The purpose of the research was to identify strengths and weaknesses of ELTE at university level in postcolonial Zanzibar. The design chosen for this research is an interpretive method of enquiry with a postcolonial influence as my research approach. There is also an element of explanatory design (Creswell, 2009).

Research questions were designed to be answered by qualitative data. Hancock et al. (2009) considered not suited to a positivist approach. I chose to investigate the

\textsuperscript{57}This thesis is also informed by the work of female postcolonial writers such as Jane Tompkins, Michelle Cliff, Linda Tuhiwai Smith, Barbara Kamler and Linda Brodkey.
problem that seemed amenable to qualitative inquiries as mentioned in the earlier section (Gergen & Gergen, 2002; Silverman, 1993, 2004, 2005, 2006; Litchman, 2006; Schwandt, 2007) (see Silverman & Marvasti, 2008). The timing of the research, the small sample size, the difficulty in identifying or controlling many important variables and the wish to understand a range of perspectives which are difficult to express numerically meant that a quantitative research approach was not considered appropriate. I attuned my study to a qualitative approach for a host of reasons, which are relevant to and compatible with the study.

First, qualitative approach is appropriate for understanding individual feelings, experiences, attitudes, and beliefs (Bell, 1993) hence it allows me to tell stories (Bartels, 2005). The approach is considered appropriate for investigating teachers’ role (Bell, 1997). Thus, there are instances, particularly in the social sciences, where researchers are interested in insight, discovery, and interpretation rather than hypothesis testing (Merriam, 1988; Barbour, 2008). Second, the focus is on interpreting data rather than quantifying it; the emphasis is on process, not product, the research calls for a holistic approach which perceptually involves putting pieces together to make wholes) (see Geertz, 1973), rather than atomistic, description (consequently there is less call for the identification, analysis, or quantification of variables).

Third, the approach matches the research questions I explored as I am interested in rich description, natural and holistic representation, “few” participants, emic perspectives, iterative and inductive path (Mackey & Gass, 2005, pp.163-164). Therefore, recognition was given to the influence of the researcher and the research process on the participants and to their contribution to the process; and the research is experience-based with emerging emic themes rather than guided by predetermined or etic themes or outcomes (Merriam, 1988, 2009; Cassell & Symon, 1994; Denzin & Lincoln, 2000).
Fourth, literature reviews consulted inform that qualitative and data-driven empirical studies are the less trodden path in Non-Native Speakers of English (NNES) and NNESTs studies around the world (Medgyes, 1992; Moussu & Llurda, 2008).

Fifth, Barone (2000) encourages qualitative researchers to engage in critical storytelling that inform and shape our current research and promote inquiries of our teaching practices as teacher educators. In addition to that, qualitative research allows a range of different methods, and taps into different sorts of curiosity (Barbour, 2008).

Fieldwork activities are central to qualitative research; in particular, those activities that involve the researcher in direct, personal involvement and contact with the participants in the research context in real time. This study, then, was grounded as being data-based rather than theory-based. Rich data give us a solid ground for data analysis (Charmaz, 2006).

Given the nature of my research question, I was mindful of scholars who have highlighted the limitations of the positivist research perspective (Denzin & Lincoln, 2008, 2011), whose core aim is to explain an external reality, assuming that people do not construct their own reality from their life experience (Shao & Müller, 2011). Given that my purpose of the research has been to contribute to an understanding of the experience and understandings of the participants in the research, an interpretive qualitative research approach was identified as most appropriate in this ELT study at university level.

4.5 SHAPE OF THE STUDY

Researchers adopt research approaches that yield insightful data (Bryman, 2004; M. Gall, J. Gall, & Borg, 2007). In this spirit, I was guided by my central question, in order to begin the safari of teachers of English as shown in later chapters. In the first
Phase (Phase 1) of my journey, the research question that underpins this study was framed as:

What are the main strengths and weaknesses of English language teacher education (ELTE) at university level in postcolonial Zanzibar?

The objective of the first phase was to identify strengths and limitations of ELTE at university level. The focal participants that I talked to and obtained information from were English teacher educators and prospective English teachers. I wanted to document strengths and limitations of ELT from their perspectives.

In my study, Phase 1 made me rethink the scale of the research and the data to be collected. As I began to draw the map of my proposed journey after preliminary analysis, I realized that identifying strengths and weaknesses limitations as “stand-alone” idea would not make a high impact contribution in ELT in Zanzibar.

Phase 1 was a useful way to prepare for my journey. This phase involved a survey using two open ended-questionnaires for teacher educators and prospective teachers as explained earlier. I used the results of these questionnaires to identify key informants, for the extension phase, which was organized in FGDs, individual interview sessions, observations and other research activities. It assisted me also in identifying key variables in the survey questionnaire, which guided me in the framing of questions for the FDGs and interviews. I decided that the study would be stronger and would make an original contribution if I probed more into strengths and limitations of ELTE - that is how these strengths and weaknesses impact on policy and practice.

Based on this, I had to set two major tasks: the first one was to establish what situation informs or influences these perceptions? I needed to do that to understand the ‘IMPACT’ of these perceptions on teachers of English. The second task was to find the
ways in which the strengths and weaknesses identified in Phase 1 shape the way English is practiced?

4.5.1 The first phase

In order to answer this question, I began the study by providing questionnaires with closed and open-ended questions in which I invited responses (in paragraphs, sentences or in note form) (See Appendix 5 and 6). This phase used a purposive sample of English teacher educators (n =11) employed by the university, both full and part-timers, and prospective English teachers (n=40) registered in English language courses, both core and optional courses as per university requirements. The questionnaires consisted of open-ended questions incorporating components of the Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities and Threats (SWOT) in the last section of the questionnaire. This was not a strict SWOT analysis, but the SWOT matrix was used to generate input to get a rich description of ELT educators’ work in Zanzibar. The purpose of this process was to obtain a firsthand qualitative description of ELT practitioners’ that would inform this work. The main aim was to find the views of both teacher educators and prospective teachers on the initial English teaching programme at university, so that I could identify strengths and limitations of the programme. I went through all the questionnaires for both teacher educators and prospective English teachers. I collected a vast amount of information, and I jotted down all issues raised for further exploration. I grouped the strengths and limitations in different categories: individual, institution/organization, policy, and programme. I used the above framework to set up research question in the second phase in such a way that I could examine ELT policies and practices in Zanzibar.
4.5.2 Extended phase

Putting into consideration the situation described by teacher educators and their students at university in Phase 1 and after a number of alternatives had been considered and rejected, I used preliminary findings to gain a deeper understanding of strengths and weaknesses.

In this extended phase, I was interested to find out and document how these strengths and weaknesses identified in Phase 1 impact on the way English is taught and practiced. From this, I could theorize the safari of teachers of English. The extension phase formed the main data collection of this research.

A number of sources of data were collected: focus group discussion (FGD) with prospective teachers of English (PTE), individual interview with teacher educators (TEs) \(^{58}\), university graduates (G), university officials (U), ministry officials (M), foreign informed experts (FIE), and local informed experts (LIE), general observation at university and classroom observations in schools, asking PTE group to write language learning biographies and collecting and analyzing published documents, external examiners reports, course contents, archives documents and other available artifacts. All these sources helped me generate different types of data as per the research question, and were important in understanding drivers and inhibitors of ELTE.

For triangulation purposes, I attempted to obtain perspectives from various sources as shown above. In Chapter 5, I outlined and described in detail how I journeyed through Phase 1 and extension phase (Chapter 6), how I reformulate the questions in extension phase, where I wanted to find out how strengths and weaknesses impacted on ELT practices.

\(^{58}\) See Table 4.3 for identification of participants codes
4.6 RESEARCH PARTICIPANTS

The target population in the fieldwork involved eighty six (86) participants, over a period of 6 months, from April to October 2010. Eleven (11) of the participants were English teacher educators; forty (40) were prospective English teachers at the time of the research; seventeen (17) were university graduate teachers; five (5) were university officials; nine (9) were Ministry of Education officials; and four (4) ex-ministry officials (also identified as informed experts in this work) as shown in Table 4.1.

The first phase focused on 40 PTE and 11 teacher educators involved in the Bachelor of Education, a three-year programme, involving six semesters in a public university in Zanzibar. The core participants (teacher educators and PTE) provided the required information.

Some information was secured from SUZA graduates, who were teaching English in public schools in Zanzibar (during the time of data collection). Other key influential participants (ELT stakeholders) i.e. University administrators, ministry (ex) officials and informed experts (locals and foreigners) were also required to provide information relevant to the study upon their consents.

Initially, approximately 125 participants were expected to participate as per purposive sampling techniques (See below). Due to the reasons beyond researcher’s control, only eighty six (86) participants participated in this study.

4.7 SAMPLE AND SAMPLING TECHNIQUE

The purposive sample on key attributes: a respondent must be an English teacher educator teaching at SUZA, or a prospective teacher enrolled at SUZA in his/her 3rd

59 The SUZA graduate teachers were included in the extension phase
year taking English as a major (or teaching subject), or a graduate from SUZA who teaches English in a public school, or SUZA administrator, Ministry officials and ex-officials from the MoEVT involved with the ELT\(^{60}\), and informed local and foreign experts.

First and second year students were excluded from this research by the fact of their newness at the university. The failure to return a completed questionnaire also excluded a potential participant. Core participants who opted to be interviewed took part in a semi-structured interview (teacher educators) and focus group discussion and writing a biography in the form of scratch pad of thought (prospective teachers)(See Graham, 1989). The selection of interviewees was guided by the maximum variation strategy (Patton, 2002) and was carried out based on participants’ passion and enthusiasm for being interviewees. The extension phase used convenient and snowballing techniques to widen the circle of participants in this safari.

Purposive sampling was used in this research as a first sampling strategy. To capture a snapshot of strengths and weaknesses of ELT in Zanzibar, a convenient and purposive sampling was used to recruit study participants (Creswell, 2009). I therefore selected everyone who was willing and available when needed, and who met the criteria of my study. While purposive sampling lies in selecting information-rich cases from which one can learn a great deal about issues of central importance for in-depth analysis (Fink, 2009).

It is necessary for researchers working within the qualitative paradigm to select a sample on the basis of whoever is likely to supply the richest information (Merriam, 1988; Patton, 1990). I used ‘theoretical sampling’ because it encapsulates the notion that

\(^{60}\) In this study, these participants were also categorized as informed experts.
sampling is based on the need to collect data in an ongoing manner in order to develop the theory (Glaser & Strauss, 1967; Chenitz & Swanson, 1986). The research was advertised through noticeboards. Ethical issues emerged and are discussed in this chapter. The questionnaires also served as a recruitment tool for those who consented to participate in the follow-up activities.
Table 4.1
General Description of Research Participants

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>INSTITUTION</th>
<th>PARTICIPANTS</th>
<th>SAMPLING TECHNIQUE</th>
<th>DATA COLLECTION TOOLS</th>
<th>GENDER</th>
<th>TOTAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>F</td>
<td>M</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UNIVERSITY</td>
<td>English Teacher Educators</td>
<td>purposive sampling</td>
<td>Questionnaires (11)</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Interviews (8)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3rd year Prospective English Teacher</td>
<td>purposive sampling</td>
<td>Questionnaires (40)</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>FGD (20)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Biography (10)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>SUZA Officials</td>
<td>purposive sampling</td>
<td>Interview (5)</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MoEVT</td>
<td>ELT SUZA Graduates</td>
<td>Snowball sampling</td>
<td>Interview (17)</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Observation (8)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Ministry (ex)officials Informed experts</td>
<td>purposive sampling</td>
<td>Interviews (9)</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Interviews (4)</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>52</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In the extension phase, I divided the participants into core participants and key ELT stakeholders. The core participants involved English teacher educators, PTE and university graduate who teach English in public schools, and key ELT stakeholders involved university officials, ministry officials and informed experts. I decided to include key stakeholders because I considered that with their varied backgrounds and teaching experience, they would be able to provide a range of different insights.
Table 4.2
Participants by Category and Gender

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>INSTITUTION</th>
<th>CATEGORY OF PARTICIPANTS</th>
<th>GENDER</th>
<th>TOTAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>FEMALE</td>
<td>MALE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UNIVERSITY</td>
<td>English Teacher Educators</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3rd year PTE</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>University Officials</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>University Graduates</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MoEVT</td>
<td>MoEVT officials, ex-MoEVT and informed experts</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(local and foreigners)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This section gives more information about the study participants. The data were collected in Phase 1 and then it was further extended to gather more information. Table 4.3 shows the description of the participants and how they were distinguished by ID codes. The core participants participate in Phase 1. During the extension of Phase 1 of data collection, SUZA graduates were also identified as part of core participants. Other ELT stakeholders (university officials, ministry officials and informed experts) were identified as key influential stakeholders.

61 Interview officials from the Ministry of Education included foreigners and local experts. The foreigners’ input in this research were coded in two ways as part of Ministry officials (ID code used M8 and M9), and also as Informed Foreign Experts (FIE1, FIE 2).
Table 4.3
Key Descriptions of the Participants

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participant(s)</th>
<th>Phase(s)</th>
<th>Description(s)</th>
<th>ID Code</th>
<th>Example as used in the study</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ELT Practitioners (core participants)</td>
<td>1 and Extension</td>
<td>Lecturers (teacher educators)</td>
<td>L</td>
<td>L1, L2, L3…</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Prospective Teachers (student-teachers)</td>
<td>PT</td>
<td>PT 1, PT2, PT3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Graduates(^{\text{62}}) (former students)</td>
<td>G</td>
<td>G1, G2, G3…</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Key ELT stakeholders</td>
<td>Extension</td>
<td>University Officials</td>
<td>U</td>
<td>U1, U2, U3…</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Ministry Officials</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>M1, M2, M3…</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Informed Experts (foreigners)</td>
<td>FIE</td>
<td>FIE 1, FIE 2…</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Informed Experts (locals)</td>
<td>LIE</td>
<td>LIE 1, LIE 2…</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.8 RESEARCH MAP AND TOOLS

Consistent with Bartels (2005) work, a variety of methods of data collection were required to understand language teachers, and ‘give a full picture of teachers knowledge’ (p.2). Valid and robust evidence is only achievable with appropriate tools (Litchman, 2006). In this study, every source of information was valued and used to help illuminate my research questions. The data were generated through a number of sources: self-designed questionnaires, conducting semi-structured interviews and FGDs, language learning biographies (in the form of scratch pad of thoughts), observations, and keeping field notes. ELT-related artifacts and documents (course outlines, prospectuses, and external examiners reports) were also collected. Field notes and a

\(^{62}\) SUZA graduates were considered an important joint between university and Ministry of Education. Although they were considered to be like a joint or a bridge between micro and macro level, they were granted an “ELT practitioners status”, core participants status due to the nature of the sample, skills learned and knowledge attained while at university, and the teaching job they were currently doing in public schools.
personal reflective journal were maintained. A range of methods was used to obtain unique and rich data to answer the research question.

4.8.1 The questionnaire(s)

As shown in 4.5.1, Phase 1 utilized the questionnaires (for teacher educators and PTE group), which provided a broad picture of strengths and weaknesses of ELTE programme at university level (research question 1 from Phase 1). Each questionnaire had a mix of closed and open-ended questions as directed by Gilham, (2000) and Fink (2009), who indicated that the effectiveness and reliability of questionnaires depends heavily on their design. The questionnaires invited responses (in paragraphs, sentences or in note form) (Appendix 5 and 6).

The questionnaires had the following main sections: background information of the respondents and the context of their work and the factors that support or inhibit the provision of quality ELT programmes at university. The first part of the tool consists of demographic data of the participants. Other additional items consist of participants experience and academic qualifications, employment and professional status, their classes, professional learning/development experience, the context of English teaching and finally a free writing section on expressing opinion to find from participants their views on factors that support or inhibit the quality of ELT teacher education programme at university level. The questionnaires sought to get views of teacher educators and PTE, on ELTE at university level, so that I could identify strengths and weaknesses in the programme.

To add rigour, the questionnaires items were drawn from a variety of pre-existing instruments (see for example Ingvarson et al. 2005; Darling-Hammond, 2006; Kleinhenz, Wilkinson, Gearon, Fernandez, & Ingvarson, 2007; Freebody, 2007;
During the fieldwork, there were 15 teacher educators on full time and part time basis and one visiting scholar, and 62 PTE registered in various ELTE programme, taking both core and optional courses as per university requirements. Eleven teacher educators (73%) and 40 PTE (64.5%) returned the questionnaire. In the questionnaire, participants were able to indicate their willingness to participate further in the research.

The data were collected and analyzed in an on-going manner, with insights and tentative assumptions, which were developed in the questionnaires guiding the researcher's line of questioning in subsequent interviews (Merriam, 1988). The reason that this practice is so important to the theory-building process is because it enables the researcher to develop a composite picture of what all the informants are collectively saying. I went through all the questionnaires for both teacher educators and PTE. I used their handwritten notes as a starting point for interview and FGD. I jotted down all issues for further exploration. To increase the validity and credibility of the findings, the results of the questionnaires were triangulated with findings from other data sources (Tharenou, Donohoe & Cooper, 2007).

### 4.8.2 Verbal data

As shown in 4.5.2, the extended phase utilized the interviews for teacher educators and FGDs for PTE were used to investigate at a deeper level the impact of the strengths and weaknesses identified on ELT practices. Using the strengths-weaknesses

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63 See also Department of Education, Science and Training (DEST), Department of Education, Employment and Workplace Relations (DEEWR) and Australian Council for Educational Review (ACER) research publications for Australian Education Review (AER).
framework, I wanted to gain deeper understanding of all ELT stakeholders’ views in an exploratory qualitative way; hence, I identify other key influential ELT stakeholders in Zanzibar. Data collected in extension phase derived from core participants (teacher educators, PTE, university graduates, and ELT stakeholders from university and Ministry of Education as described in Chapter 5 and 6 respectively.

Interviews for teacher educators, university graduates and officials from university and MoEVT were useful for ascertaining respondents’ thoughts, perceptions, feelings, perspectives, retrospective accounts of events and offered contextual data (Mishler, 1986; Kvale, 1996; Biklen & Bogden, 2007). They allowed the researcher to gain insights into others’ perspectives about the phenomena under study (Litchman, 2006). This is the kind of information this study yearned for, and I chose to have a semi-structured interview as the relevant method to learn about ELTE in Zanzibar. This method allowed me the freedom to ask questions and raise additional issues that were salient to this study. It also helped me to unpack the strengths and weaknesses that arose from the responses from the questionnaires and do a follow up of particular topics in order to give the interviewees the opportunity to comment on my interpretation. The choice of semi-structured rather than structured interview was employed because it offers sufficient flexibility to approach different respondents differently while still covering the same themes (See Block, 1995 & 2000).

The interview questions were also developed based on previous studies from international and Zanzibar context (Australian Language and Literacy Council, 1995; Tyler & Stokes, 2002; Cross & Gearon, 2004; Meiers & Ingvarson, 2005; Rea-Dickins, et al., 2005; Browet & Spencer, 2006; Kleinhenz, et al., 2007, Maalim, 2009; Scarino & Liddicoat, 2009). Participants who required a copy of recorded interview for their personal records were provided with the copy as per their wish.
This study also sought to capture the data through the interactive aspects, hence Focus Group Discussions (FGDs), involving 20 PTE were considered very important. FGDs gather a core group by getting them to talk about particular topic(s) in order to get their interpretations from their earlier insights, generating a range of responses within a short period. FDGs are described as “simulation of everyday discourses” (Flick, 2009, p.204) or “structured eavesdropping” (Barbour, 2008, p.16) where the researcher takes less active role in directing the talk to avoid power relations and access issues (O’Reilly, 2005). FGDs are valuable tool in studying professional practices (Barbour, 2008) because they encourage people to collectively address topics to which as individuals, they may have possibly devoted little attention.

I contacted and invited 40 PTE to attend FGDs because all consented to participate in further research activities. Only 20 PTE participated and I managed to accommodate each group of ten participants for two sessions. The initial plan was to have groups of five but this was not possible due to time constraints caused by approaching University Final examination, which these participants had to sit for.

I also contacted teacher educators for one to one interviews. I interviewed eight, most willing and readily available teacher educators at their conveniences for approximately one to two hours. I had to go with the teachers’ timetable, and note appointment time and date in the diary. I also used their handwritten notes from the questionnaires as a starting point for their interview. My interviews can best be described as ‘informal conversational interviews’ (Patton, 1990), ”free-flowing, open-ended interviews” (Murphy, 1980), or as ‘conversations between two trusting parties’ (Bogdan & Bicklen, 1992). Mindful of Patton's (1990) exhortation to ‘go with the flow (p. 282), I was particularly careful to let the informants guide the direction of the interviews and not to put ideas into their heads. I used a variety of questioning techniques, including questions in which I advanced a tentative interpretation of what
the informants had been saying and then asked the informants to confirm, deny or qualify what I had said and to expand further (Merriam, 1988).

4.8.3 Textual data

Research shows that the use of textual data in most qualitative research is value-free but not utilized effectively (Merriam, 1998; Love, 2003; Peräkylä, 2005; Bowen 2009). Merriam (1988) pointed out that ‘documents of all types can help the researcher uncover meaning, develop understanding, and discover insights relevant to the research problem’ (p.112). I was keen to research archival data and other documentation available. In this study, the textual data analyzed includes teaching artifacts and archival data (i.e. documents, texts, letters and photos), newspapers64, external examiners reports, university publications, other artifacts related to education and ELT were gathered.

In this research, the historical method was compatible with socio-political context of Zanzibar (see Perry, 1992). The existing documents and artifacts were source of contents, and used for triangulation - the combination of methodologies in the study of the same phenomenon’ (Denzin, 1970) to increase the breadth of the analysis. Triangulating data breeds credibility’ (Eisner, 1991), validates and corroborates data obtained during the study.

A considerable time was spent in Zanzibar National Archive (ZNA) to dig into archival and existing documents. Additionally, editorials, letters, newspapers clips65, (p.106)

64 See for example the Guardian (29 th May 2007) TZ: students prefer English as teaching language; Guardian (13th July 2010), Low pass in science, English subjects worries govt; Guardian (12th October 2010). EA varsities in acute shortage of lecturers

65 See for example, the  Daily news(14th July English medium schools need proper check (Editorial); Daily News (7th July 2010 ) Zanzibar lacks literacy sponsorship by Jaffar Msafiri; Daily
television and radio news, conference papers, and external examiners reports were also collected. These documents provided guidelines in assisting the researcher with the inquiry and at times serve as social actors (Prior, 2008). The corroboration of qualitative techniques used in this study was designed to enhance the validity, reliability and credibility of my findings.

Informed by literature, narratives and biographic methods are important in understanding teachers (Bertaux, 1981; Bailey & Ochsner, 1983; Bailey, 1991; Bell, 2002; Benson, 2004; Bartels, 2005). I therefore collected simple language learning biographies in the form of scratchpad of thoughts to record and reflect language-learning experiences from PTE (Boyatzis, 1998; Litchman, 2006). The biographical accounts were used in order to capture language-learning experiences, record critical incidents, highlight unique instances of the strengths and weaknesses of ELT programme in postcolonial Zanzibar. I was also interested to match ELT practices with the biographical events of students to find out how to they identify themselves-self-image and teachers’ identities.

The use of biography affords participants an apt space to provide uninterrupted narratives. Sherman and Webb (1988) points out that the insights gathered from biography are difficult to quantify but such findings can nevertheless be much closer to reality. Since all participants consented to participate, immediately, after the second session of FGDs, PTE were provided with A4 size pile of papers, pen, coloured pen and envelope to write down the stories and experiences of their language learning. The activity was intended to be a free-format writing in a scratch pad to encourage free

News (9th October 2010) Universities lack qualified lecturers by Marc Nkwame; Daily News (9th November 2011 ), Lack of reading culture costing SAUT students dearly by Swaum Mustapher and John Britto; and Daily News (24th December 2011 ) Zanzibar keen on improving education by Issa Yussuf.
responses. Prompts were given as a guideline only to redirect the writers in case they were struggling on what to write. The participants were reminded to drop their written biographies to the Head of Department’s secretary. Most participants asked for extension to return their biographies because they were concerned with their upcoming final university examinations. Out of 20 PTE in the FGDs, only 10 PTE managed to do the activities.

4.8.4 Observational data

Observation of teaching and observation of teacher education classes are central and powerful method for gaining understanding of phenomenon (Allwright, 1988). Pennington, 1995; Bailey & Nunan, 1996; Bailey, 2001; Bartels, 2005). Barbour (2008) urges the observer to be ‘like a fly on the wall so that s/he can uncover inconsistencies between how people perceive and present their own involvement and what they actually do in practice’ (p.17).

Observation data focus on the what-when-and how to observe (Patton, 1990). The initial plan was to observe teacher educators and their students (PTE and graduates) in their classrooms. However, during fieldwork, the university semester was coming to an end, teacher educators and PTE became unavailable to the researcher, as they were all involved in the preparation of their final University Examination (UE).

Consequently, I had to observe other phenomena of interest in the environment where I did my study. I observed the university daily activities and the setting within which the ELT was taking place in the hope of capturing issues that I may not have

66 Knowing that several issues could affect both the external and/or internal validity of the research, purposeful sampling was used as the main technique in this research (See Chapter 10 for limitations and delimitations of the study)
captured if I had too many activities on my hands. This type of observation generated insight and better understanding on the phenomenon under study.

Although I missed the chance to observe university ELT practitioners (teacher educators and PTE), I was able to observe the university graduates in public schools. The observation was conducted to get insight on the impact of identified strengths and weaknesses of ELTE on ELT practices in postcolonial Zanzibar. General observations were conducted in places like schools, local and university libraries, American corner and bookshops to get a picture of day-to-day context for teachers of English, and ELT providers.

The framing of observation schedule was guided by literature (Barbour, 2008; Light et al., 2009). General observation and classroom observation were also conducted at public school level (Speer, 2002). I also did an environmental scan in a variety of methods to ascertain the ELT practices in general (see Appendix 1A, 1B, 14 and 15).

4.8.5 Visual data

Images are central to our social world (Pink, 2001; Galman, 2009). The use of visual research methods has become increasingly widespread throughout the social sciences (Knoblauch, Baer, Laurier, Petschke, Sabine, Schnettler & Bernt, 2008). Images, photos and historical photos from ZNA, were used as visual data to snap the past stories. This was important to supplement as well as to compensate for the limitations of other methods.

4.8.6 Field notes and reflective journal

Field notes and a reflective journal were kept. Field notes included descriptive accounts of settings, individuals, events, and dialogue, as well as researcher reflections regarding analysis, ethics, and methods. These instruments helped me to explore themes...
emerging in the investigation. I took notes during different stages of the study. Observational and secondary field notes were significant as these helped me to intersect theory and practice in ELT, hence shaping my understanding of strengths and weaknesses of ELTE programme. The study was conducted from May 2010 - October 2010, and the data were generated as illustrated Table 4.4.
Table 4.4
Mapping Field Work Journey: Phase 1 and the Extended Phase

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Phase</th>
<th>Research question(s)</th>
<th>Participants</th>
<th>Instruments</th>
<th>Timeline</th>
<th>Research focus</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>What are the main strengths and weaknesses of ELTE programme at university level?</td>
<td>Teacher educators(11)</td>
<td>Open-ended questionnaires</td>
<td>May-June 2010</td>
<td>To amass strengths and weaknesses of ELTE programme at university level To lay down core participants views and perceptions’ ELT at university level</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>PTE(40)</td>
<td>Open-ended questionnaires</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>UNPACKING THE IMPACT THEME</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>In what ways do the strengths and weaknesses identified in Phase 1 impact/shape the way English is taught and practiced?</td>
<td>Teacher educators (08)</td>
<td>Interviews</td>
<td>June- July 2010</td>
<td>To gain a deeper understanding of strengths and weaknesses and how they impact on ELT practices</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>PTE(20)</td>
<td>FGDs</td>
<td>June-July 2010</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>University officials (05)</td>
<td>Interviews</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>University artifacts</td>
<td>July-Sept 2010</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Ministry officials(06)</td>
<td>Interviews</td>
<td>June-Sept 2010</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Informed experts(03)</td>
<td>Interviews</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>University graduates</td>
<td>Initial Interviews</td>
<td>June-Oct 2010</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>(17)</td>
<td>General observations</td>
<td>May- Oct 2010</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Biographies</td>
<td>June-Oct 2010</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>University graduates</td>
<td>Classroom Observations</td>
<td>June-Oct 2010</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>(08)</td>
<td>Follow-up interviews</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Artifacts</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Archival notes</td>
<td>May-Oct 2010</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Other documents</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The researcher considered the relationship between research questions and the variability of methods and the principle of triangulation (Lofland, Snow, Anderson & Lofland, 2006) to avoid common pitfalls, and collect data that were relevant, and of good quality.

![Research Map Diagram]

Figure 4.2. The Research Map

I chose this design so that I could address the research questions, develop a theoretical understanding in the field of ELT, explore and theorizes teachers’ safari, while working with a design that was possible within the time frame of the study and the limited access to participants (see Geertz, 1973).
4.9 DATA ANALYSIS PLAN

Glaser & Strauss (1967); Van Maanen, (1988); Miles & Huberman (1994), Wolcott (1994) and Litchman (2006) informed qualitative data analysis. In order to find the ideas, patterns and themes within the masses of qualitative data, it was important for me to employ useful approaches, and techniques to organize and reduce the data properly for interpretation (Coffey & Atkinson, 1996; LeCompte, 2000; Lacey & Luff, 2001). I used ‘inductive approach’ to analyze data adopting principles and techniques of hermeneutical procedures (Charmaz, 2000, 2006), and constructivist ‘Grounded Theory’ (GT) (Strauss & Corbin, 1990) (see also Glasser, 2009a, 2009b, 2011, 2012a, 2012b; Jones, & Alony, 2011).

The hermeneutical analysis emphasizes the importance of the views of the participants based on their experiences and their standpoint. It is primarily concerned with the meaning of a text, which the researcher comes to understand through oral or written text. The basic question in hermeneutics is: ‘what is the meaning of this text?’ (Radnitzky, 1970, p. 20). One implication of this approach is the idea of ‘hermeneutic circles’ (Klein & Myers, 1999), which suggest that we come to understand a complex whole from preconceptions about the meanings of its parts and their interrelationships: i.e. the movement of understanding is constantly from the whole to the part and back to the whole. According to this approach, analysis of the data focuses on interpreting and understanding the meanings revealed in the text.

On the other hand, the essential feature of GT principles is the continuous cycle of collecting and analyzing data as soon as it is collected and then moves on to compare the analysis of one set of data with another (Scott, 2009). Early data are subjected to first level coding (open coding) which helps to inform the selection and framing of further data to be collected (theoretical Sampling). This in turn helps the deeper understanding of earlier data. Ideally, these cycles continue until no new codes or categories are found in new data (Theoretical Saturation) (Glaser, 1992, Goulding, 2002, 2005; Moghaddam, 2006; Saldaña, 2013). It also requires transcriptions, note taking, coding and
memoing to be done immediately after each interview so that a constant comparison of previous data collected could be carried out during the process of further interviewing (Strauss & Corbin, 1990; Charmaz, 2000; Dey, 1993; Moghaddam, 2006). Coding involved constant comparing of each source to the previous transcripts to ensure that no information was lost and to facilitate making categories of similar codes. At the same time as coding the data, memoing was started, which involved using cards and post-it-notes to remind the researcher about the categories and any relationships to other categories. The card-memo system helped make sorting, more manageable. All the cards were placed on a large table and assembled together into groups, which represented similar ideas. This allowed the researcher to visualize the categories as well as discover relationships between categories. Categories were then written up to help build the study’s findings as will be discussed in the next section.

In exploring participants’ perceptions, both primary and secondary data collected from different data sources as explained in earlier chapters. Charmaz (2003) suggests that you ask the following questions about the data you are coding “What is going on? What are people doing? What is the person saying? What do these actions and statements take for granted? How do structure and context serve to support, maintain, impede or change these actions and statements?” (pp. 94-95).

The content of each of the data sources was analyzed and then categorized by themes. I decided not to use any computer software programmes for data analysis because I wanted to engage myself in the process of creating hierarchies of categories and then shuffle and moving them around manually, by writing headings on separate pieces of paper and moving them around physically on a large table, floor and wall.

To answer the research questions, it was necessary to explore data with words, phrases, diagrams and metaphors. I generate memos in order to capture ideas, thoughts, insights, questions, observations and reflections. Memos were an important tool in constant comparison and allow the researcher to develop and track evolving ideas (Goulding, 2002, Moghaddam, 2006).
4.9.1 Validity, reliability, and trustworthiness of the research data

The validity and reliability of qualitative data depend to a great extent on the methodological skills, sensitivity and integrity of the researcher, because in qualitative research, the researcher is the instrument (Patton, 1990). I therefore made use of the checklists proposed by Miles and Huberman (1994) for ensuring the validity and reliability of qualitative research (See also Brock-Utne, 1996). Multiple sources of data were used to increase credibility (Denzin, 1994). The grounded theory (GT) principles were also applied to develop accurate and deep sensitivity to meanings and interpretations relevant to the research setting (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). What motivate me to use GT procedures is that the findings are clearly tied to the data. The end result of the research process is a ‘theory’ inductively developed from and ‘grounded’ in the data (Glaser, 2001).

Questionnaires items and interview protocol were reviewed by peers, and were adjusted to attract and maintain respondents’ interests in the study. The chief investigator and co-investigator tested the research tools to ascertain the reliability and validity of the questionnaire and interview schedule respectively.

No statistical tests were used in this research. The researchers checked the validity by examining individual responses from participants to ascertain their relevance to the objective of the research. The questions were found to be valid because the responses spoke to the intended objective. The tool was therefore adopted in full. Validity is most strongly supported by demonstrating the grounding of findings in the data. Glaser (1978) and Goulding (2002) emphasise that in grounded theory findings are not just a reflection of the voice of participants: the meanings shared by participants provides data to generate abstract ideas which explain the experience.

The researcher made use of a critical assistant in order to manage the quality and rigour in various literatures, to enable researchers to get feedback and provide another perspective on data analysis and the generation of knowledge (Zuber-Skerrit & Fletcher, 2007). Validity and reliability
in this research was not ignored as advised by Brock-Utne (1996), and other concepts like credibility (Goulding, 2002), authenticity, criticality, integrity, and generalizability (Neuman, 2000) had been carefully considered.

4.9.2 Three-layered analysis

In this work, a three layered analysis was built beginning with content analysis of open-ended section of the questionnaires, interviews, focus group discussions and other data sources as mentioned elsewhere in this work. The level one analysis (open coding) identifies early concepts and categories which makes clear the connection between the data and the categories (identifying themes) (Goulding, 1999; Saldaña, 2013). The level two analysis was then conducted by examining the data according to the emergent themes (axial coding). The level three analysis (selective coding) provided the capstone analysis in order to address my key research question. This final part enabled the researcher to gather the emerging themes into coherent, empirically driven responses to the research question derived earlier and to make recommendations for further work.

4.9.3 Analysis of data sources

The two questionnaires were administered to English teacher educators and PTE to collect their views on ELT. Both questionnaires produce quantitative and qualitative data as shown in Chapter 5 and Chapter 6. I approached the qualitative part of the questionnaire according to the seven-step method of textual analysis described by Diekelmann, Allen & Tanner (1989). I used this method to identify the categories, relational themes, and constitutive patterns of texts.

Prior to intensive data analysis, preliminary analysis was conducted from the data collected from the teacher educators and PTE. The key words and phrases were: internal and external pressures, tensions, chaos, complexities, limited English, context of learning and teaching, passion for English, and teaching as a last resort career. The intensive analysis of the questionnaire was then
undertaken to identify strengths and weaknesses, and the theme that strongly emerge from the data was further analysed to gain a deeper understanding of the theme.

From the perspective of teacher educators and PTE, I got a glimpse of what might impede or facilitate ELT in Zanzibar. I critically examined the picture that emerged from the analysis where upon I decided that further steps needed to be taken. I identified strengths and weaknesses of ELTE programme at university level. I then categorized the strengths and weaknesses into a set of levels: individual, institutional (organizational), programme, policy and community (local /social context).

All individual interviews and FGDs were confidential and tape-recorded with consent, unless where the interviewee(s) asked not to be recorded. The data were recorded to secure an accurate account of the conversations and to avoid losing data since not everything can be written down during an interview. Recorded interviews were transcribed, numbered and labelled, coded in order to protect anonymity (See Vigouroux, 2007). No identifying information was recorded. The coding book that identified field notes with electronic transcriptions remains in a password-protected data bank, accessible to researchers only.

With documents, I reviewed lines, phrases, sentences, and paragraph segments from the documents and other sources to code the data. I constantly checked and rechecked the codes and concepts. I scrutinized and compared data with codes in order to organize ideas and pinpoint concepts that seemed to clump together. Codes were clustered into substantive categories, and these category codes were compared across interview transcripts, observational data, snippets from biographies, and data from documents. I compared coded segments by asking, ‘How is this text similar to, or different from, the preceding text?’ and ‘What kinds of ideas are mentioned in both interview statements and documents?’ Hence, I identified similarities, differences, and general patterns (Bowen, 2008, p. 144). If new categories were suggested by the new data, then the previous transcripts of interviews, together with data from field observations and documents, were re-analyzed to determine the presence of those categories. By doing so, I filled in underdeveloped
categories and narrowed excess ones. The analysis of documents was instrumental in refining ideas, identifying conceptual boundaries, and pinpointing the fit and relevance of categories (Charmaz, 2003). Only when all the evidence from the documents, interviews, and observations created a consistent picture of the way in which ELT is practiced I was satisfied that the processes of data collection and analysis were ready for Level 3 analysis.

The document and artifacts analyzed yielded excerpts, snippets and quotations, which were then organized into major themes, categories, and examples (Labuschagne, 2003). A thorough, systematic review of documentation provided background information that helped me understand the context in which ELT was practiced. Apart from providing contextual richness in the research, documents were particularly useful in interview situations. In that regard, I used data culled from documents to check interview data and vice versa. As a result, reviewed and analyzed documents augmented the interview and observational data. For example, information contained in documents supplied lead to asking additional, probing questions and suggested events or situations that needed to be observed.

With participants, the data sources were analyzed separately for each participant in the following sequence: All data sources were analyzed individually; similar ideas were placed into broad categories noting the sources of data. Categories from all data sources were refined and reorganized in a group. After all the information from the data sources were categorized by topics, a content analysis was conducted to extract similar themes and ideas within each case (Saldaña, 2013). Triangulation was used to compare the emergent themes from the different data sources (Leech and Onwuegbuzie, 2007. The triangulation of data sources increased the match between the emergent themes, which related to the central research question. The emergent themes from each category of participants were compared and contrasted to identify similarities and differences in the themes. The themes for all categories were then compared to identify overall themes.
4.10 DEVELOPING THE THEORETICAL CONTRIBUTION

Qualitative content analysis typically does not transform the content into numeric patterns. Instead, recurrent themes, and typologies and illustrations of particular issues emerged. During data analysis, I search for words to label the more abstract categories that had evolved.

4.10.1 Exploring with words and phrases

It was therefore necessary to adopt familiar words to unfamiliar contexts, because umbrella terms did not always exist. For example, I used participants words such as battle, challenges, “mvutano”[tension relations and experiences], “wezesha”[enabling], hamu ya kujua Kiingereza[passion for English], “ari ya kukimudu Kiingereza” [zeal for English] “vurumai”[confusions], and “vikwazo”[challenges], “undumila kuwili”[ambivalence and ambiguities] “migongano”[contradictions]’ in order to identify things that help or hinder the effective delivery of ELTE programmes at university level in postcolonial Zanzibar. I used a number of words: enhancers, drivers, catalysts, enabler, success factors, obstacles, barriers and inhibitors to cover strengths and weaknesses/limitations of ELTE programme in Zanzibar.67

67 For conveniences, I used drivers and inhibitors in the study
Figure 4.3. Self-Rough Notes from the Researcher’s Journal
Exploring with diagrams

Since I am a visual person, I decided to create a series of diagrams to capture what the data were telling me (Miles & Huberman, 1984; Strauss, 1987). When I decided to extend Phase 1, I wanted to understand the phenomenon of ELT practices in depth and capture the interrelationship between various categories of participants in the context of Zanzibar. Considering that Kiswahili is the native language of participants, the data shows that there is an inherent power imbalance and
competing practices in ELT sites particularly educational institutions such as schools and university. There are factors that influence the way educators teach English, and the way prospective teachers learn English. I have plotted several diagrams representing a continuum of complex issues of relationship in Phase 1.

**Inhibitors**
- lost opportunities, hostile environment
- frustration, fear, less confidence, uncertainty, tensions, few options
- L1 versus L2
- no clear commitments

**Drivers**
- Attachment to English
- Zeal for English
- Supportive Policies
- Opportunities
- Personal gains

**Under-involvement with English**

**Threats**
- Limited English
- Dilemma and leniency
- Dislike of Applied Linguistics
- Meaningless course units
- Incompatible and outdated pedagogy
- Old infrastructure
- ‘Unattractive’ learning spaces
- Low aspiration to become teacher
- Contradiction between policy and practice

**Over-involvement with English**

**Opportunities**
- Paternalistic approaches
- Expatriates and volunteers from abroad
- Projects and research
- Imported courseware
- Improved learning infrastructure
- Partnership and exchange programme
- Native speaker teachers
- Standard English (British/native)

---

Figure 4.5. Selected Strengths and Weaknesses of ELTE at University Level
4.10.3 Exploring with metaphors, proverbs and sayings

Metaphors, proverbs and Swahili sayings are an important part of Zanzibar folklore. It was methodologically important to explore teachers' metaphors and idiomatic expressions because they best describe teachers of English safari and explore ELT practices in Zanzibar (Bullough, 1991). Therefore, I used participants' words, maxims, concepts, proverbs and sayings to associate ELT and its practices in Zanzibar: “safari” [journey]; “bado tuna safari ndefu” [we still have a long journey]; English is not Lelemama” [literally, English is not as simple as it is perceived by many like

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68 I acknowledge that I translated the metaphors and saying by cross checking with the support of http://swahiliproverbs.afrst.illinois.edu/alertness.html, Centre for African Studies, University of Illinois, Urbana-Champaign.
Lelemama- a type of female dance, “ukoloni mamboleo” [neocolonialism]; “Nataka kuweka Kizungu juu ya kiganja changu” [I want to keep English on the palm of my hand]; “Kwa Zanzibar, kukimudu hicho Kizungu ni sawa na kupigwa na wimbi la bahari” [To master English in Zanzibar is like to be swept by the sea waves]; “Kizungu ni kizunguzungu” [English is giddiness]. Others phrases used by participants were the battle, the battle ground, battling with English, and challenges in learning and teaching English.

4.10.4 Exploring with photos

As described above, I focused on capturing strengths and weaknesses of ELTE in postcolonial Zanzibar. I collected images (photographs) from Zanzibar National Archives (ZNA), and other research sites. The use of still images and photography in social research has been discussed in Bateson and Mead, 1942; Byers, 1966; Collier, 1967; Ruby, 1973; Becker, 1974, Wagner, 1979; Caldarola, 1985, Collier, & Collier, 1986; Pink, 2006; Galman, 2009). Initially, I collected past photos that portray images of schooling, learning and education (Brady, 2006). The idea was to capture traces of educational practices in photographs from the past. During general and classroom observation, I also took some images to supplement the contextual data (Biklen & Bogden, 2007).

4.10.5 Theme dictionary

From the data collected, I developed theme dictionary (Stockdale, 2002). The theme dictionary contained an alphabetized listing of key words, concepts, and themes with a more thorough definition or explanation of the themes (Boyatzis, 1998), and one or two representative quotes.
4.11 ETHICAL ISSUES AND GAINING ACCESS

As with any study involving human subjects, research aims were made clear to all participants. Participation in the study was voluntary and informed consent was obtained prior to participants’ involvement (Babbie, 2008; Creswell 2007; O’reilly 2009). I used pseudonyms to protect privacy and any details that may identify the participants were left out in the report. The Monash University Human Research Ethics Committee (MUHREC), Australia and Research Body in Zanzibar approved this research. Ethic approval from Monash was obtained with the project number is CF09/3555-2009001908, and permission was granted by Zanzibar Research body to conduct research in all educational institutions and related departments (See Appendix 4, 5 and 6).

4.12 DEVELOPING THE THEORETICAL MAP

Having done all of the above, I was finally in a position to answer my research question(s). In Phase 1, I identified a number of strengths and weaknesses of ELTE programme at university level (see Chapter 5 and Chapter 6). This allowed me to extend further the phase of my research to gain a deeper understanding of strengths and weaknesses identified. As a result, my next step was to extend Phase 1 and involve other key ELT stakeholders so that I could respond to the queries that had emerged. This allowed me to explore strengths and weaknesses, and identified their impacts on ELT practices. In this regards, I was able to solidify my research question by answering the number of strengths and weaknesses identified in Phase 1, which indicated that they have an impact on ELT practices in a number of ways as illustrated in Chapter 7. I developed a theoretical map that helped me to navigate between available literature and my findings.
4.13 CHAPTER SUMMARY

The chapter has outlined the research methodology used in the study to make clear the processes followed in collecting and analyzing data. In describing the process, I have explained how the collection and compilation of data using a variety of tools assisted in generating richly detailed data that had better describe the unique aspects related to ELT practices, which in turn highlight the safari of teachers of English. I have consistently demonstrated that due to paucity of research, there is a need for more studies to create a space for continuous scholarly works in postcolonial Zanzibar.

It is important to note that Chapter 2, 3 and 4 are developmental. Chapter 2 showed that the African continent is diverse in terms of languages. The nuances of language allowed me to position ELT in postcolonial Zanzibar within the Anglophone context. In Chapter 3, I highlighted the challenges and concerns of ELT in a wider postcolonial context. In chapter 2 and 4, I positioned this research within the postcolonial contexts, which shaped the methodological approach that I develop for this research.

In the next chapter, I present a description of my analysis of the data collected from Phase 1, and then in the later chapters, I continued to describe the analysis that arose from the extended phase.
PART 2: DATA
CHAPTER 5
PHASE ONE: TEACHER EDUCATORS’ DATA

5.0 INTRODUCTION

Chapter 5 presents a description of my analysis of the data of the strengths and weaknesses of ELT in ITE at university level from Phase 1. I undertook a formal survey so that I could elicit their responses to the main research question: What are the main strengths and weaknesses of the ELTE programme at university level in postcolonial Zanzibar? The data reported herein were obtained using a questionnaire, that consisted of both closed and open-ended questions and which I hoped would capture the teacher education perceptions, views and impressions of the ELTE programme.

5.1 INTRODUCING THE TEACHER EDUCATORS

The purpose of this section is to introduce the teacher educators. I present a composite picture of these core participants in the study, giving an overview of the kinds of informants who participated. A synthesis of the demographic and contextual data is presented.

Table 5.1
Codes Used to Report the Views of Teacher Educators Group

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Core Participants (Phase 1)</th>
<th>No. of participants</th>
<th>Code(s)</th>
<th>Tool(s)</th>
<th>Objective</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teacher educators (lecturers)</td>
<td>N=11</td>
<td>L1…L2 L3…L4 L11</td>
<td>Self-designed questionnaires (closed and open ended questions)</td>
<td>To identify strengths and weaknesses of ELTE programme in ITE at university</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Data and findings generated in this part produced themes that were identified and determined to be pertinent for this study. The data explored teacher educators’
views on ELTE programme and ascertained a number of strengths and weaknesses that they have reported. Due to the nature of information I had, I used code L (L1-L11) to report on the views of this group as illustrated in Table 5.1.

5.2 BIOGRAPHICAL DETAILS OF TEACHER EDUCATORS

This section presents profiles of the teacher educators respondents in terms of their age, gender, level of teaching, job titles, qualifications, experience of ELT at university and/or institution other than university, major academic discipline, and major language spoken, country of education, TESOL training and other skills. The information of teacher educators’ background was obtained from the English teacher educators’ questionnaire, which consists of items 1-35 (See Appendix 5).
Table 5.2
Summary of the Background Information of the 11 Teacher Educators

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>VARIABLES</th>
<th>AGE RANGE</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Under 25</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>25-29</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>30-39</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>40-49</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>50-59</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>60+</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| LEVEL OF TEACHING       | 1st year undergraduate | 6        |
|                        | 2nd year undergraduate  | 4        |
|                        | 3rd year undergraduate  | 3        |
|                        | Diploma               | 3        |
|                        | Other                 | 1        |

| JOB TITLES             | Tutor                | 0        |
|                       | Senior tutor         | 2        |
|                       | Tutorial assistant   | 1        |
|                       | Assistant lecturer   | 6        |
|                       | Lecturer             | 0        |
|                       | Senior lecturer      | 0        |
|                       | (Assistant Professor/Professors) | 2 |

| HIGHEST QUALIFICATION  | Bachelor degree      | 1        |
|                       | Masters degree       | 8        |
|                       | Doctorate            | 2        |

| COUNTRY OF EDUCATION   | Africa               | 3        |
|                       | Australia            | 1        |
|                       | America              | 2        |
|                       | United Kingdom       | 3        |
|                       | Asia                 | 1        |
|                       | Europe/Scandinavian  | 1        |

| YEAR OF QUALIFICATION  | 1980s                | 3        |
|                       | 1990s                | 2        |
|                       | 2000s                | 6        |

| EXPERIENCES OF ELT(UNIVERSITY LEVEL) | Less than 5 years | 3 |
|                                      | 5-9 years          | 6 |
|                                      | 10-14 years        | 0 |
|                                      | 15 - 19 years      | 1 |
|                                      | 20+                | 1 |

| EXPERIENCES OF TEACHING ESL IN OTHER INSTITUTIONS | Primary level | 3 |
|                                                      | Secondary level | 9 |
|                                                      | High school level | 6 |
|                                                      | College | 5 |

| MAJOR LANGUAGE SPOKEN BY TEACHERS | Kiswahili | 10 |
|                                    | English | 11 |
|                                    | Arabic | 2 |
|                                    | French | 2 |

| TESOL TRAINING | TESOL/TESL/ESL Teacher Training for English Language Teaching (TTETL) | 5 |
|               | ELT | 1 |
|               | English Language Curriculum and Instruction | 1 |
|               | None | 3 |

| ADDITIONAL ELT SKILLS | Foreign Language Teacher Education (FLTE) | 2 |
|                       | ESL/EFL | 5 |
|                       | English for Academic Purposes (EAP) | 1 |
|                       | Rhetoric and Composition | 1 |
|                       | No response | 1 |
In the next section, the demographic data from Table 5.2, were utilized and broken down into smaller chunks of information to describe the background of teacher educators’ profile

### 5.2.1 Gender

The total number of respondents in the category of teacher educators was 11. Table 5.3 shows the breakdown of the participants by gender. Although more males are found in higher education and higher institutions of learning in Zanzibar (SUZA Publication, 2009)\(^{69}\), the representation by gender in this research involves six females and five males. The low number of male respondents was due to the fact there were more women English Teachers than males during the time of data collection.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Count (s)</th>
<th>Percent %*</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Percentages are presented as whole number

### 5.2.2 Age group

Table 5.4 identifies the age structure of the respondents. Overall, the majority of teacher educators were 30 years of age and above. A large number of teacher educators fall in age group of late 30s to mid-50s because of the processes and route of becoming a teacher educator.

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\(^{69}\) Refers to the State University of Zanzibar (SUZA) Facts and Figures, October 2009.
Table 5.4
Counts/Percentage Distribution of Respondents Classified By Age Group

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Count</th>
<th>Percent %*</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>under 25</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>9.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30-39</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>18.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40-49</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>27.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50-59</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>27.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>60+</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>18.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The teacher educators who belonged to the under 30 age group were mostly the beginning/novice teacher educators, who were just joining the university teaching work force as fresh graduates, and had either studied at the same university or other universities. Table 5.1 shows that most of the teacher educators started their career as school teachers (first-order teaching) and then they made the transition to became teacher educators (second-order teaching) (See also Table 5.7 and 5.8).

5.2.3 Qualifications and trainings of teacher educators

Overall, almost all respondents had attained Masters Degree as the highest level of education\textsuperscript{70}, with the exception of beginning teacher educators. Masters holders and first-degree holders mainly make up the English teacher educators’ team. These are usually assigned the role of assistant lecturers and tutorial assistants respectively.

Generally, the initial teacher education programme at SUZA is being run by few lecturers and senior lecturers (PhD holders), and a large number of Assistant lecturers who are Masters degree holders, and tutorial assistants who are first-degree holders (See Table 5.1 and 5.5).

\textsuperscript{70} This is also reflected in SUZA statistics (2008 and 2009) whereby the existing permanent academic staff for the whole university comprises of two permanent professors, one senior lecturer, and 11 lecturers, and 29 assistant lecturers
Table 5.5
Qualifications of ELT Teacher Educators

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Qualifications</th>
<th>Count</th>
<th>Percent %*</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bachelor degree</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Masters degree</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Doctorate</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Majority of teacher educators were holders of both Bachelors and Masters Degrees with teaching qualifications. Some reported to possess extra qualification in ELT, and had English language teacher training backgrounds from various institutions both locally and abroad (See Table 5.1 and 5.6).

Table 5.6
Major Academic Discipline and Specialization of Teacher Educators

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Major Academic Discipline (Specialization)</th>
<th>Count</th>
<th>Percent %*</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Linguistics</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>18.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Applied Linguistics</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>9.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>9.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TESOL</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>9.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher Education and TESOL</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>9.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English language(EL) Curriculum and Instructions</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>9.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rhetoric and Composition</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>9.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher Training for English Language Teaching(TTELT)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>9.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher Education(TE)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>9.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Philosophy in Comparative and International Education</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>9.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Based on the major field of teachers educators training reported by respondents, Table 5.6 shows that none of the teacher educators had experience of teaching English to young learners (TEYL) despite the fact that some teacher educators started their career as primary school teachers. Participants reported that for the time being, there institution has no course(s) that train TEYL to PTE group. The teacher educators
reported their experiences of teaching in university, schools, and teaching English in ESL and EFL contexts.

5.2.4 Teaching experiences in school and university

The length of teaching experiences in the field of ELT at university level and school level varied considerably. The respondents cite that their university teaching experience ranged from 5 years to more than 20 years. Of the 11 respondents, three had less than five years teaching experience. The informants had school teaching experience in different level of education (primary, secondary, high school and colleges) (Table 5.1, 5.7 and 5.8).

Table 5.7
University Teaching Experience

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Years of university teaching experience</th>
<th>Count</th>
<th>Percent %*</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>&lt; 5 years</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>27.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5-9 years</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>54.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10-14 years</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15-19 years</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>9.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20+ years</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>9.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The distribution of university teaching experience amongst teacher educators has two different modes as illustrated in Table 5.7. About 81.8% were educators with less than ten years’ experience of university teaching (0-9 years), and only 18.2 % of teacher educators have more than 15+ years of teaching experience at university. The majority have at least five years’ experience of teaching in general.
Table 5.8:
School-Teaching Experiences

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Years of school teaching experience</th>
<th>Count</th>
<th>Percent %*</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>No experience</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>18.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&lt; 5 years</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>9.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5-9 years</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>18.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10-14 years</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>36.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15-19 years</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20+ years</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>18.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5.8 shows the distribution of school teaching experience amongst teacher educators has two different modes. About 45.5% were educators with less school experience or no experience at all (0-9 years), and 54.5% of teacher educators range between 10 - 20+ years. The majority of teacher educators have a background of school teaching of at least five years’ experience. Specifically, Table 5.7 further illustrates that the majority of teacher educators had a sum of more than 10 years of ELT teaching experience in school and university. Although the figures are too small to run statistical analyses or generalize.

Table 5.8 shows that most of these teacher educators’ participants have more experiences in teaching at school level than at university level. The table further suggests that over half of the teacher educators have been teaching English for less than ten years at university level (See Table 5.9).

5.3 PROFESSIONAL CIRCUMSTANCES OF TEACHER EDUCATORS

The teachers in the study differed widely in terms of their ELT experiences, their language learning experiences, training and their responsibilities.
5.3.1 The training and education of teacher educators

Making the transition from being a school teacher to teacher educators was something that none of the respondents had deliberately planned. Most of the teacher educators reported that it was an opportunity that had arisen because the university had been established and it needed some teachers. The teacher educators with less experience reported that they got the opportunity to be university teacher educators because they obtained the highest Grading Point System (GPA) during their academic years. Table 5.9 shows that many teachers in the survey started their teaching careers as teachers of English to adult learners in secondary schools, high school and colleges. Only one teacher educator had taught in primary school.
Table 5.9
ELT Experience of Teacher Educators at University, College and School

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Bio details</th>
<th>Years of ELT Teaching</th>
<th>No. of ELT years</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Tertiary experience</td>
<td>School experience</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>University</td>
<td>College</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male (50+)</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>No experience</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Masters</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Local</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Full time</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male (50+)</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>No experience</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PhD holder</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Local</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>On contract</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male (40+)</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bachelor</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Local</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Full time</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male (50+)</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>No experience</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Masters</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Local</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Full time</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female (50+)</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Masters</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Local</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Full time</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female (60+)</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Masters</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Local</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Full time</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female (30+)</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>No experience</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PhD holder</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Foreigner</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Visiting scholar</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female (40+)</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>No experience</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Masters</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Local</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Full time</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male (40+)</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Masters</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Local</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Full time</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male (50+)</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>No experience</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Masters</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Local</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Full time</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female (&gt;25)</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The dissection of Table 5.9 indicates that there are two main routes to become a teacher educator. The first route is that of an academic with PhD who becomes a teacher educator. The second route to become a teacher educator is based on practical experience i.e. those teachers who worked in primary, secondary and high schools continue their careers as teacher educators at the university. However, no respondents mentioned that they had undertaken specific training, induction courses or been supported in any way in order to help them to make the transition from schoolteacher to university teacher.

5.3.2 Professional learning and overseas experience

As indicated in Table 5.2, some teachers had been educated in countries other than Africa. A good number of teacher educators have been trained in foreign countries. For example, out of 11 teacher educators’ participants, nine teachers have done their Masters in the field of ELT abroad in countries such as Australia, Asia, United State of America, United Kingdom and in Scandinavian countries. The remaining two have done their Masters degrees in Africa but outside Tanzania. A number of these teacher educators reported studying abroad through Educational Development Scholarships.

Almost all educators reported that they did their undergraduate studies in East Africa with the exception of teacher educators from Western countries. Some teacher educators reported to have had the experience of learning and teaching English as a second/foreign language, and some had an experience of learning a third language such as Arabic, French and Spanish. However, the majority of teacher educators reported that they had no experience of teaching English outside Africa (See Table 5.9).
5.3.3 University teaching programmes

SUZA, the university in which the teachers educators worked teach both certificate, diploma and degree programmes for English teachers, which means that some teachers are teaching a between one course to 3 course per semester and working with different syllabuses at different levels. The university system and ranking (i.e. tutor, senior tutor, tutorial assistant, assistant lecturer) dictate how teacher educators work. The system allows some teacher educators to teach both diploma and degree level, some teacher educators were teaching certificates and diploma only, some were teaching all levels, some teacher educators were assisting with tutorial/seminar in degree level, and teaching in certificate and diploma level. During the time of data collection, there was only one teacher educator who had no teaching role. The participant was previously teaching at degree level and then was assigned to manage the research unit (See Table 5.2 and 5.8).

5.3.4 Command of other languages

Out of 11 participants, nine teacher educators are from Zanzibar. They all speak Kiswahili, and have learnt English in school because it was a compulsory language in education. Among these nine teacher educators, three educators learnt Arabic, while others possess mother tongues that are not Kiswahili. These includes Goans and vernaculars from Tanzania mainland (see Da Silva, 1983; Petzell, 2012). The other two teacher educators were from Kenya (Africa) and the United State of America (USA).

The teacher educator from Kenya was classified as non-native English speaker because she had an African vernacular as a first language, Kiswahili as a second language, and English as a third language, while the teacher educator from America was classified as native speaker because English was her main language as illustrated in Table 5.1.
5.3.5 Overseas ELT/ESL teaching experiences

Out of 11 teacher educators, only three teacher educators had overseas experience of teaching both native and non-native speakers of English in university setting/context. Two of these teacher educators, were foreigners, not Tanzanian. The remaining eight teacher educators had years of experiences of teaching non-native students in different settings such as university and school locally (i.e. Tanzania). In addition to that, they had no experience of teaching English to native speakers. In general, the teacher educators profile (Item 1-10) show that the university does not have enough well trained staff as shown in Table 5.1. This has partly been caused by historical factors such as the fact that Zanzibar did not have institutions of higher learning until quite recently; for reasons explained in Chapter 2.

5.3.6 Profession expertise of teacher educators

In this thesis, Ericsson and Smith (1991) typology determined the professional expertise of educators. The typology provided a useful guideline to differentiate between respondents at different stages in their teacher education career. The criteria used to determine the professional expertise of teacher educators is that novice educators had less than three years of teaching before undertaking further qualifications, or less than six years of teaching, without further qualifications, intermediate had 3-10 years of teaching or 6-15 years of teaching without further qualifications, and highly experienced educators had more than 10 years of teaching or more than 15 years of teaching without further qualifications. The typology classified the 11 educators as novice, intermediate or highly experienced (See Table 5.10). The proportion of novice teacher educators and intermediate was higher than the highly experienced educators. The layer of highly experienced teacher educators was found to be very low.
Table 5.10
Professional Expertise of Teacher Educators

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Criteria</th>
<th>Participants’ Code</th>
<th>Count (s)</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Novice</td>
<td>L3, L4, L10, L11</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>36.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intermediate</td>
<td>L1, L5, L6, L8, L9,</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>45.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Highly experienced</td>
<td>L2, L7</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>18.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>11</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Additionally, the combination of lengths of service or experience, qualification and commitment to on-going training and professional learning indicate the level of expertise that an individual may have.

**5.4 THE TEACHING CONTEXT OF THE TEACHER EDUCATORS**

The teaching context of teacher educators in the study includes employment conditions, learning opportunities and professional development, teaching loads, class sizes and other opportunities that support the work of teacher educators.

**5.4.1 The nature of English teacher educators’ employment**

The daily activities of teacher educators, which were examined in the study varied considerably as illustrated in Table 5.11. Ten teacher educators were found to be fully involved in teaching undergraduates, diploma and certificate students, except one educator who was assigned the role of establishing a research unit to become research-active. This number was expected, since teaching is compulsory and main duty at university. Out of 11 teacher educators, only two hold highest administrative positions in the department.
Table 5.11
Everyday Activities of Teacher Educators

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item(s)</th>
<th>Responses</th>
<th>Participants code</th>
<th>Count(s)</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>University duties</td>
<td>L1, L3, L4, L5, L6, L7, L8, L9, L10, L11</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>90.1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Administration (n=11)</td>
<td>L5, L9</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>18.2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Research (n=11)</td>
<td>L2, L5, L6</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>27.3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Consultation (n=11)</td>
<td>L2, L3, L5, L8</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>36.4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other (n=11)</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>00</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As indicated in Table 5.11, research and consultation activities do not play a prominent part at university, and if carried out, the activities are conducted in a low-key manner. The number of teacher educators who were actively conducting research was very low. Out of 11 teacher educators, only three were involved in research activities, and four spent time to do consultation work. For example, L5 was the only participants who reported to be involved with teaching, research, consultation and administrative responsibilities. L5 was very articulate and made additional comments on university activities such as research, grants, publications, consultation, formal and informal spaces for educators to share ideas and exchange expertise.

Participants L1, L3, L4, L5, L6, L7, L8, L9 and L10 remarked that the university teaching context constrain their participation in other activities (see Table 5.13-5.18). They also made extra note that there are limited support and opportunities; creation of opportunities was being constrained by time, resources, expertise, capabilities, networking low expectations, university infancy, limited support and priorities.
Consultation works were listed to be a “personal hunt activity” for personal gains such as to earn extra money and expand curriculum vitae, and are not obtained through the university as illustrated in Section 5.6.

Table 5.12
Employment Condition/ Status of Teacher Educators

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item(s)</th>
<th>Employment status</th>
<th>Count</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>Full time</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>63.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Part time</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>9.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>On contract</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>18.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Other (visiting scholars)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>9.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>11</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As seen in Table 5.12, the working conditions, context and patterns of the teachers in the study varied considerably. Although the 2009 and 2010 university statistics show that there is a larger number of part-timers as university members, during the data collection, the department of language and linguistics exhibit a larger percentage (63.6%) of full-time lecturers (teacher educators) than part-timers. However, participants voiced their concern that there are many more part-timers than full-timers. The ration has been raised as a major concern during the interview sessions with teacher educators as described in Section 5.6, and in the focus group discussions with PTE (see Chapter 6). This appears to be institutionally dependent i.e. the pattern of staff might be influenced by the timing of the university (Semester 1 and 2) and needs of the university during academic year (i.e. that is whether the university employ part-timers that were needed for certain courses).
5.4.2 Opportunities for professional development

These findings suggest that opportunities for professional development and professional learning activities are very limited for teacher educators as illustrated in Table 5.13-5.15.

Table 5.13
Teacher Educators Involvement with Professional Development and Professional Learning

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item(s)</th>
<th>Responses</th>
<th>Count</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>14 Formal course enrolment</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>90.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No response</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>9.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21 Professional membership/association</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>27.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>72.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22 Recent PD attendance</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>18.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>72.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No response</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>9.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25 PD and instructional practice</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>54.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>45.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28 Organizing Formal PD Activities</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>18.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>81.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29 Professional learning Opportunities</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>18.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>81.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In Item 29, two teacher educators (L2 and L7) reported about the need to have professional learning opportunities in work place (university). For L2, being a teacher educator and at the same time given the responsibility of managing a research unit, L2 was in the process of exploring learning opportunities that have started to be organized.
for the university community, and projected available opportunities for future. On the other hand, L7 typical comments were:

“...in my home institution, there is a weekly faculty workshop (one hour long), where faculty member presents ideas and research on teaching. There are also frequent lecturers by visiting scholars and by current faculty from campus”.

Item 14, 21, 22, 25, 28, and 29 reveals that teacher educators do not have opportunities and space to share knowledge, exchanges, professional ideas and interchange between prospective teachers, university and teacher educators. The participants indicated that they attend professional development activities mostly as participants (knowledge consumers) rather than as organizers (knowledge producers). Based on Item 21, very few teacher educators (n=3) reported to have membership in professional associations. A number of teacher educators (n=8) reported not being affiliated to any professional association. Professional associations mentioned by three teacher educators were British Association for Applied Linguistics (BAAL), American Association for Applied Linguistics (AAAL), and National Council of Teachers, English College Composition and Communication, The International Writing Association. The typical qualitative written comments for those who have no access to professional association were:

...I have not been invited to any professional association, and I know none of them ... [L1].

...There are no ELT professional associations in Zanzibar, and it is costly to join the foreign ELT association... [L3]

...I have not attempted to do so...too busy... [L6]

...I am not yet exposed to these associations nor do I have any idea how to join or get involved ... [L8]

... I did not bother about it. I have been very much obsessed with teaching and administrative duties...work overload... [L9]
Table 5.14
Teacher Educators’ Participation in Professional Development Activities

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Count(s)</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>15 Relevance of PD course</td>
<td>Not at all (*)</td>
<td>(0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Slightly (*)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mostly (*)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Completely (*)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23 PD attendance course</td>
<td>University hours (*)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Out of university hours (1)</td>
<td>(1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Online (1)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Other (*)</td>
<td>(2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24 PD duration</td>
<td>One day (1)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>&gt; than one day (1)</td>
<td>(1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Other (*)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to Table 5.15, Item 15, 23 and 24 suggests that professional learning involvement is minimal. The table 5.14 indicates that the courses teacher educators attend are random picks, and at times do not directly relates to ELT, has no immediate impact on the work they do, and are chosen for a number of reasons such as personal gain, time off and escaping the heavy work load (See Section 5.6).

The teacher educators reported that the only time where they are actively involved in knowledge production is when they attend formal professional courses, conferences, seminars, or workshops. Participants reported that professional development courses (formal and informal contexts) or other learning opportunities from a peer were not very common, and are mainly overlooked for various reasons, which will be explored in Chapter 7.
Table 5.15
A Summary of PD Activities for Teacher Educators

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item 25</th>
<th>Educators as Participants</th>
<th>Educators as presenter/organizer</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The practice of teaching English</td>
<td>(L2, L5, L7, L10)</td>
<td>(L5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The use of technology in language</td>
<td>(L2, L5, L7, L11)</td>
<td>None</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>classroom</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TEYL</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>None</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assessment in classroom</td>
<td>(L2, L5, L7, L10)</td>
<td>(L5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Instructional scaffolding</td>
<td>(L5, L7)</td>
<td>None</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Classroom management</td>
<td>(L7)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teaching grammar</td>
<td>(L7)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Theories of composition</td>
<td>(L7)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rhetoric</td>
<td>(L7)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adolescent/young development</td>
<td>(L7)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mother tongue interference</td>
<td></td>
<td>(L6)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5.4.3 Teaching load, class sizes and contact hours

As illustrated in the Table 5.16, the teaching loads, class size and contact hours in the study varied considerably. Generally speaking, the class size were bigger, and the formal contact hours displayed on the university time table showed that each course has 3 contact hours (2 hours for lectures, and 1 hour for tutorial/seminar).

However, for those teacher educators with a bigger number of students, they divided the class into smaller groups for tutorials of at least 50 students per tutorial/seminars. Consequently this forced them to have extra contact hours informally, time which was not recorded in the formal block timetable (see Table 5.16).
### Table 5.16

Teacher Educators’ Teaching Loads, Class Size and Contact Hours

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ID code</th>
<th>1st year Semester 1</th>
<th>2nd year Semester 1</th>
<th>3rd year Semester 1</th>
<th>Contact hours</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2nd year Semester 2</td>
<td>Semester 2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L1</td>
<td>50+</td>
<td>Not more than 25</td>
<td>100+</td>
<td>6hrs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L2</td>
<td>.00</td>
<td>.00</td>
<td>.00</td>
<td>00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L3</td>
<td>50+</td>
<td>Not more than 25</td>
<td>.00</td>
<td>8hrs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L4</td>
<td>200+</td>
<td>150+</td>
<td>Not more than 25</td>
<td>9hrs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L5</td>
<td>200+</td>
<td>150+</td>
<td>Not more than 25</td>
<td>6hrs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L6</td>
<td>100+</td>
<td>.00</td>
<td>Not more than 25</td>
<td>9hrs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L7</td>
<td>Not more than 25</td>
<td>150+</td>
<td>150+</td>
<td>3hrs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L8</td>
<td>100+</td>
<td>50+</td>
<td>50+</td>
<td>9hrs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L9</td>
<td>100+</td>
<td>50+</td>
<td>Not more than 25</td>
<td>6hrs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L10</td>
<td>150+</td>
<td>100+</td>
<td>50+</td>
<td>9hrs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L11</td>
<td>200+</td>
<td>150+</td>
<td>150+</td>
<td>3hrs</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Some participants had no teaching duties when data were collected but shared teaching experiences with previous semester

In general, some differences have emerged between teacher educators regarding the context in which they teach which was to be expected due to the nature of teacher educators’ work and different responsibilities of the teachers educators. These include the class size, teaching workloads, the length of teaching experience, employment conditions, teacher educators’ level of expertise, access to opportunities and other levels of university responsibilities. Understanding the context was particularly important in understanding the views of ELT at university level, the subject of the next section.

### 5.4.4 Professional learning support

Table 5.17 shows that teacher educators receive limited support in professional learning. The support in terms of time, resources, collegial, administrative and financial grants varied considerably among teacher educators. Only four participants reported that they received resource support.
The data also show that having an administrative position also gave a person opportunity to have easy access to administrative support. Table 5.17 shows that time, collegial and financial grants are not common phenomenon in SUZA university culture.

Table 5.17
Type of Support from the University to Enhance Professional Learning

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item 26 Code</th>
<th>Time</th>
<th>Resources</th>
<th>Collegial</th>
<th>Administrative support</th>
<th>Financial grants</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>L1</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L2</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L3</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L4</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L5</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L6</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L7</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L8</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L9</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L10</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L11</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5.5 TEACHER EDUCATORS'PERCEPTIONS OF PTE

The data from Item 18, 19 and 20 indicates that overall the prospective teacher educators’ observe that English ability of PTE is very low, and both languages, Kiswahili and English are used in ELTE at university.
## 5.5.1 PTE group and their English language ability

Table 5.18 reveals the teacher educators’ views on the perceptions on PTE English Language Ability. As the table reveals English Language Ability was a major concern. Teacher educators used words such as mediocre, below standard, very low, low and unsatisfactory level of achievement, limited, average, low intermediate, poor and broken, and extremely weak.
On the other hand, seven teacher educators articulate very clearly that the overall quality of English Language Ability is poor, and four teacher educators’ comments that it was average. In addition to that, the usage of L1 (Kiswahili) or L2 (English) in the ELT programme and lecture/classrooms was indeed a crucial issue. Six teacher educators report use of ‘mostly English’, and three teachers inform that they use ‘both English and Kiswahili’. Only one teacher educator reported use ‘English only’, and no educator has reported using ‘mostly Kiswahili’. Overall, the teacher educators’ message was that ‘The English abilities of PTE were poor’.

5.6 QUALITATIVE ANALYSIS OF OPEN-ENDED QUESTIONS

Teacher educators questionnaire included open ended questions, in which Item 30, 31, 32, 33, 34, and 35 provided the respondents with the opportunity to describe the ELTE programme and give their views on the programme at university level. Of the 11 completed questionnaires, all 11 (100%) respondents provided comments to the open-ended questions.

5.6.1 Pressing issues in ELTE Programme

Table 5.19 summarizes the emerging themes from item 30… “What are the most pressing issues in teaching English at this level?” Content analysis of this question produced four concerns on ELTE: language-related, training or programme-related, context-related and learners-related (See Table 5.19)
Table 5.19  
Classification of Pressing Issues in ELT at University

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item 30</th>
<th>PRESSING ISSUES IN ELT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Language-related</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Counts</td>
<td>n=11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poor English ability</td>
<td>Low aspiration to be teacher</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Switching languages</td>
<td>Commitment to learning and being teachers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shaky foundation of English</td>
<td>Lack of resources and materials</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low reading ability due to low level of English</td>
<td>Lack of opportunities to practice</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poor communication skills</td>
<td>Lack of support from university</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How to motivate learner to use English all the time</td>
<td>University politics in recruitment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poor English foundation</td>
<td>Unproductive “TP” and Lack of feedback on teaching practice</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reluctant to speak English</td>
<td>Quality of university teaching/ programme</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Weak foundation – not ready to learn in English</td>
<td>Content to be taught need review</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mentality of English only</td>
<td>Quality of BTP</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No reading culture in Kiswahili and English</td>
<td>Teaching critical thinking, problem solving, are rhetoric awareness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Broken /rotten English</td>
<td>Teaching is not informed by research Focus on marks ,completion of tasks and assignments</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Limited opportunities to support English limitations</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poor academic literacy</td>
<td>External examiner fever (cover course unit on time)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Limited ability to express themselves</td>
<td>Accountability pressure to cover the course unit, Teaching to the exam/test</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plagiarism/cramming due to limited English</td>
<td>Limited opportunities to improve practice</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overuse of L1 in English classes</td>
<td>Good grades/marks please the authority and learners</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low achievement because of English</td>
<td>Language policy pressure, and confusion associated with the policy</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
5.6.1.1 Language-related

As Table 5.19 shows, teacher educators cited language-related matters as a source of pressing issues in ELTE. Within this category, all teacher educators mentioned English language ability was a major issue. The English language ability was portrayed in a number of ways: such as: poor English ability, enrolling students below the required standard when it comes to English, code-switching, shaky foundation of English, low reading ability because of low level of English, poor communication skills, motivating learners to use English all the time, poor preparation from lower classes; reluctance to speak English, weak foundation—not ready to learn in English, lack of creativity, mentality of speaking English only, lack of reading culture in Kiswahili and English, broken and rotten English, absence of academic literacy, limited ability to express themselves, plagiarism and cramming due to limited English, overuse of L1 in classes, and low achievement due to low English ability.

5.6.1.2 Training-related

Teacher educators cited training as a potential pressing issue in ELTE programme. A number of issues have been mentioned such as: low aspiration to be teachers, commitment to learning and being teachers, lack of resources and materials, opportunities to practice, lack of support from university, university politics in recruitment, unproductive Block Teaching Practice (BTP), quality of university programmes, content to be taught need review, lack of feedback on teaching practice, poor quality of practicum/BTP, teaching is not informed by research, external examiner fever (performance fever), accountability pressure to cover the course units, teaching to the exam/test or cover the syllabus, limited opportunities to improve, grade obsessions (i.e. good grades which delight the authority and in particular learners (grade obsessions), language policy pressure, and confusion associated with the policy.
5.6.1.3 **Context-related**

Teacher educators have cited the context of teaching ELT, and the context of ELTE programme as one of the significant pressing issue in quality provision of ELTE. These include: *large classes and heavy workload, enrollment, little time spent on learning English, old assessments and examination system, pressure to complete course and prepare university exam, lack of induction programmes, lack of technology in language teaching, lack of classroom research, no mentorship and limited support, limited contact hours to support students, lecturer dependent learning style, learning environment does not stand in favour of English, minimal exposure to English, low technological environment, and limited print material, influences on career choice, no career plans to be university lecturers, unpreparedness of the context, and chaotic leadership when it comes to language teaching.*

Participants also reported that ‘local teacher educators (language experts) are not fully utilized by the MoEVT and other ELT stakeholders. In many cases, foreign experts are preferred.

5.6.1.4 **Learners-related**

As revealed in Table 5.19, teacher educators express the view that learners-related issues are a major concern in ELTE. Learners-related issues are closely related to language-related issues. Teacher educators cite *low level of English, high expectations from top authority, past experience with English, poor reading culture, mark obsessions at the expense of the learning process, lack of motivation, aspiration and interest in teaching, prospective-teachers with low aspiration to be teachers, limited linguistic knowledge, teaching as a profession has low appeal, and does not motivate many students to be teachers, hence teaching is not taken seriously as an important career by learners. Learners had no initiative to improve their own English.*
Teacher educators also reported that students had English literacy ability problems (low literacy), and some were reluctant or less confident to work independently. It was also reported that the structure of ELTE programme shapes learners to learn to the test mentality. On the other hand, teacher educators reported that the readiness to become teachers among students is not there. Teacher educators also reported that learners were not comfortable with ELT practical oriented activities at university for several reasons such as some activities were being considered culturally inappropriate, childish, meaningless and un-desirable. Limited English proficiency for academic needs was also a major issue, as well as the failure to establish rapport between students and lecturers.

5.6.1.5 Overall summary

As shown in 5:19, the four concerns related to language, training, context and learners are considered to be the main pressing issues as well as de-motivators in ELTE programme and professional practice at university level.

5.6.2 Perceived drivers and inhibitors in the provision of ELT

Part of the results of this research has explored what participants perceived as drivers and inhibitors in the provision on quality ELT. Table 5.20 summarizes the emerging drivers and inhibitors from item 31: “What do you see as the main factors that support or inhibit provision of quality ELT in your university”. Typical written responses:

...English is a real battle for our student teachers, but the majority favour English, therefore it is a battle worth fighting ...you cannot blame students, no educators......unless we solve the merry-go-round of English... [L1].

...students teacher at this university have serious problem with English...and there is no difference between those with teaching experience and those who joined university straight from school... [L2].
ELT is inadequately resourced, lack support, is less researched …no opportunities to practice English, switching between Kiswahili and English is done randomly…Kiswahili is shunned in lecture rooms, but in fact, both Kiswahili and English are used in ELT classrooms… [L3]

…student teachers take English very lightly…like Lelemama or an expedition… [L4]

…many student teachers perceived ELT as an English improvement programme rather than a programme that prepare them to be teachers of English… [L5].

…ELT programme at SUZA contributed to some extent the production of effectively trained teachers of English…and improvement of English language proficiency… [L6].

…There are no formal opportunities to share ideas (though I signaled my willingness to help with the curriculum development, faculty development, faculty workshop, and lecturers this year at SUZA, I was never invited to do so formally…there is also a very little support at SUZA for faculty development to the detriment of both students and faculty… (L7)

…there is a tendency to label subjects like English, Kiswahili, History as soft subjects, and science subjects and math as hard subjects. Those called hard subjects enjoy the most university attention than the soft subjects…Complains about poor English at university are crocodile tears…we enroll student teachers who subsequently prove to be below the required standards when it comes to English ability… [L9]

The main drivers and inhibitors are listed in order of occurrence as perceived by teacher educators (n=11) are presented in Table 5.20 and 5.21

5.6.2.1 Perceived drivers

In the context of this research, drivers are the positive factors, which teachers educators consider as motivators towards quality ELT provision, which improves their professional practice. The following items are considered to be the perceived drivers in ELTE programme: English Language support programmes; training of teacher educators; passion for teaching, passion for English; selection process; course structures and contents; quality supervision of student teachers; quality teaching.
orientation, induction and career paths; quality of overall ELT programme, and flexibility in teaching time.

Table 5.20
Perceived Drivers in the Provision of Quality ELT

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Themes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>English Language support programmes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Training of teacher educators</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Passion for teaching must match passion for English</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Selection process for student teachers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Course structures and contents</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quality supervision of students</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quality teaching and delivery in lecture rooms</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Orientation and career paths</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ELT overall programme quality</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Flexibility in teaching time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Formal opportunities to share ideas</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strengthening English teaching as a subject</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5.6.2.2 Perceived inhibitors

In the context of this research, inhibitors are the negative factors which teachers’ educators consider as de-motivators and limit the provision of quality ELT which in turn may contribute in limiting their professional practice. The followings are considered to be the perceived inhibitors in ELTE programme: *students with English literacy problems; lack of passion for teaching; limited ability to initiate and motivate students interest in teaching; limited school practice experience; limited opportunities while in BTP or practicum, which is conducted in block of six or eight weeks; limited opportunities to give feedbacks (class size, time, resources); the types of assignments and assessments; limited ICT use; lack of professional learning opportunities for teacher educators; lack of support from university for ELT stakeholders; timely feedback on practice due to a number of challenges; and, the benefits of university and school collaboration are not utilized, are undervalued and often overlooked*. 
Table 5.21
Perceived Inhibitors of Quality ELT

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Themes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Students have constant battle with English</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Students limited English and literacy problems</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Confidence in Learning and using English</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low passion and enthusiasm for teaching</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack ability to initiate and motivate students interest in teaching</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bulky contents/units (university)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Limited opportunities while in teaching in the field (practicum in schools)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Limited opportunities to give feedbacks (due to class size, time, resources, priorities)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Complaints about assignments(difficult, boring and meaningless), and monotonous type of assessments due to workload</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Limited ICT use and technology phobia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of opportunities, support and resources</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Untimely feedback on BTP/Practicum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University-schools bond is not utilized as it should be (undervalued or often overlooked)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>External influences (political interference)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Context (general poor quality of education in Zanzibar)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Weak foundation in Kiswahili and English literacy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attitudes towards subjects</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unofficial grouping of subjects: Soft Subjects (English, Kiswahili, History) and Hard Subjects (Science Subjects and Math).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bulky contents, little English skills and practice</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5.6.2.3 Overall summary

As shown in Tables 5.20 and 5.21, there are a number of perceived drivers and inhibitors that enable or limit the provision of a quality ELTE programme. In the context of this research, teacher educators perceived that the drivers and inhibitors both motivate or demotivate their professional identity and professional practice at university level, as well as the professional identity and professional practices of novice and beginning teachers of English.
5.6.3 Ways of improving the provision of quality ELT at university

A number of themes emerged from item 32...“What do you think would improve the provision of quality ELT at this level?” The themes that were most commonly mentioned as a way to improve the provision of quality ELTE programme were language, university pedagogy, quality, passion for teaching, and university structure and culture (see Table 5.22).

Table 5.22
Ways of Improving the Provision of Quality ELT at University

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Major themes</th>
<th>n</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Language</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fluency, competency and mastery of English</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English language ‘screening and filter’ or ‘enroll and support’ learners’ English needs</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University Pedagogy</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relevance of the course content and relationship with other courses</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ways of teaching</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assessment of learning</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Skills development</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Improving learning spaces</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quality</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Resources availability</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher educators training and support</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quality outcomes</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Improving selection criteria</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Redefining roles of teacher educators</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Passion</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sharing the love for English in teaching</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Motivating students to value and have passion teaching profession</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University culture and structure</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attitude towards English and the real place of English department</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learners’ learning needs and opportunity to share feedback</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marks and certification system</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5.6.3.1 Language

Overall, a good number of teacher educators listed the improvement of English language to screen and filter the PTE before they join or enroll with poor English, but
providing ‘proper’ support for trainers and trainees. The following are typical representative written ‘open-ended’ responses from teacher educators:

…teacher educators need to be trained on how to teach learners who are not competent in English….our students must be prepared and taught how to teach English to second language learners with low or poor ability in English…[L1]

…More exposure to the English language …providing opportunities for upgrading ELT skills…dealing with shaky foundation of English…focus on learners English needs [L2]

…English is a major problem…then come the passion for teaching…and then we have input and output problem…we train too little but we expect too much [L6]

…Fluency in English must be one of the requirements for joining university courses conducted in English… [L4]

…Lecturers are expected to polish students’ English…to teach content… to teach methods …majority of the teacher candidate we get, have limited English …English should be given first priority before they start any teacher training…[L5]

English is everything in higher education…no English, no quality, no education, no one can understand what is taught … keeping students motivated and maintain a classroom atmosphere and infrastructure that is conducive to learning…supporting the “poor English” …. [L6]

…English is a national problem … support is needed after university enrolment in many ways…Kiswahili should be discouraged at this level …[ L8]

… content/knowledge without good English language command make us produce parrot learners, cramners and less educated being in the same way as half-baked bread… [L9]

…Higher education should be strict on English as a requirement for those who wish to join university and to be teachers be …screening and filtering is important…(L11)

5.6.3.2 University pedagogy

Teacher educators were cited talking about scholarship of teaching at university level. They mentioned that teaching ‘teachers’ is not given much attention which makes ELT in higher education a more complex entity.
... as a teacher educator… I am concerned with contents to be covered due to internal pressure (university authority) and external pressures (external examiners), the method (s) of delivery-class lectures or seminar presentations, assignments, testing, marking and grading… English is the main barrier… [L1]

... The present university course structure compels most lecturers to concentrate on disseminating what they learnt as students… [L2]

...the courses at university have to promote learning and create independent learners who will be working without relying too much on teachers… (L3)

...Students have poor English… nothing serious is done… English problem is oftentimes said to be a national problem …the teacher educators mainly focused on subject-matter (content), generic methods and information delivery in ELT and the university reflects more on the getting the job done, and accountability… learners needs are ignored…[L4]

...Generally, teaching at SUZA is under resourced, undervalued, and overlooked …with English teaching the tension is naturally high with so much at stake …ways of teaching, teaching methods, textbooks, technology, access to internet, manageable class size, assessment, quality lecturers, quality teaching and other opportunities to do meaningful work … limited hand-on experience…[L8]

... lack of resources, limited support …lecturers are poorly equipped… B.A. Education at SUZA is rather bulky …given the time constraints and the quality of students we receive…we should largely focus on methodology…the bulkiness of the course forces teachers to be transferring knowledge to their students-like stage performers… [L9]

5.6.3.3 Quality

The open-ended questions also revealed that teacher educators are partly happy about their teaching effort, but also worried about the ‘quality’ of teaching and learning at university. Representative responses were:

...there is no effective teaching, no proper learning at this university, no meaningful teaching/learning. For example: when SUZA started undergraduate students used to do projects at the end of their 3rd year, now they no longer do any for many reasons: some student teachers could not do meaningful research, some were incapable of working
independently, poor written academic English, quality of work was very poor and questionable, limited number of lecturers to supervise projects, no resources, no support...the university curriculum need to be revisited… [L1]

…No proper professional development and on-going training …trainings are not happening in a timely manner….They are either done on flippant or improvised basis or not done at all… [L2].

…exam-based teaching and learning should be changed to material or knowledge based… (L3)

…the system is challenging, tense and chaotic…but so far the university is doing, well…we have graduates who are in different universities in the world, and some rejoined SUZA to be teachers… [L5]

…more microteaching or practical for those preparing to teach English - not just wait for the teaching practice… (L6)

…at SUZA, more faculty development opportunities are needed- sharing ideas is free of cost but it is not utilized at all… (L7)

…effective evaluation and assessment of students competency, training programme for both lecturers/tutors… (L8)

… Adequate furnishing of SUZA libraries/facilities. …Update the library with current list for wider access of literature. Enrollment of qualified applicants in English regardless of quantity…I can sense political influence in the selection and assessment of students…Improve selection criteria… beside A-level qualifications, the university should have another form/mechanism for screening entrants… [L9]

…Number of students taking English should be reduced to give opportunities to those who are able to write and communicate in English. Provision of sufficient and up-to-date reference books…English language labs should be re-introduced… (L10)

…references and resources should be increased, shortage of teaching and learning needs at this level creates inimical environment… [L11]

Further comments were made concerning the quality of the ELTE programme, which included the relevance of course contents, and what students’ teachers need to know about language and language teaching, and admission criteria.
...good linguists are not necessarily good language teachers...linguistics and language learning and teaching are different matters... (L2)

The need to revisit the course contents ...currency and relevance are key words ... [L3]

... Politics in everything...political influence at university...politics in what to teach...the politics in students’ selection...politics in language policy... politics in marking ... all weaken quality teaching and learning... [L9]

... Poor selection of students is a major problem [L10]

... Admission criteria should be revised and make English as a compulsory requirement...apart from Matriculation examinations... [L11]

5.6.3.4 Passion for teaching

Teacher educators also reported that the greatest challenge is how to motivate prospective teacher to maintain the equal passion for both English and teaching.

...English is a major problem for students...students want English but they don’t value the teaching career....teaching career has no appeal... some student teachers are here because they escape the workplace irritants and other responsibilities...[L1]

...passion for teaching is something of the past in Zanzibar...in my time teaching was among the most prestigious job... [L2]

...the main problem is the system...Zanzibar is not serious in boosting teaching as a career...that is why student teachers join university with playful attitudes...the ‘Lelemama’ type ...[L3]

...Some students love teaching, but majority chooses teaching by accident because there is not much choice at SUZA [university]...some consider teaching as a second career ...or a stepping-stone... [L5]

...students have little English ...they do not like teaching because most students have less confidence using English... [L6]

...majority don’t have the aspiration to be teachers ...they are after the degree (i.e. certificate and new salary scale)...they are not very keen to be teachers...good teachers [L9]
5.6.3.5 University culture and structure

Teacher educators reported both negative and positive university culture and their impacts on professional practices at university level.

…the university is supportive of English to be used as a means of communication…Teaching, learning, consultation and research is oftentimes highlighted …the challenge is to value teaching and research equally…the university must have means of assessing internal quality…meetings, discussions, personal professional learning on English language teaching… [L1]

…Strengthening of English language section/department…the university talk about the problems of English, no actions …students marks don’t help, the need to show case their works as ELT professionals to be…doing research [L2]

Unification of ELT instructors…to offer supportive culture, joining online courses, networking, sharing ELT field ideas and mentoring, going to other countries for teaching experiences of ESL…[L3]

…no opportunities to share ideas between student teachers, teacher educators and the faculty[L4]

…Meeting (regularly) for ELT is important to share ideas about ELT, ESL and ELF teaching. (L5)

…Supportive culture is needed at university…SUZA is a less active, so do academicians and students…sharing ideas about tutoring/lecturing in both formal and informal opportunities within and outside the university [L6]

…The culture in this institution does not encourage sharing of ideas…the faculty from all academic departments must share ideas about teaching…sharing ideas is free of cost …at SUZA there are minimal opportunities to share ideas…staff members have knowledge and different experiences…teacher educators should be given formal opportunities for on-going learning and enrichment to share with fellow SUZA faculty members… [L7]

…for decades the problems of English are acknowledged …university and the ministry of education do not seem to take durable actions…they are banded ,demented and lelemama approaches…[L8]
In theory, English is highly supported in all levels of education...at SUZA, most non-academics (administrations), and academics from other fields of study have the attitude that English is an art subject or soft subject...[L9].

5.6.4 The need to review courses and structure of ELTE

Almost all teacher educators (n=9) agreed that the university curriculum needs to be reviewed, updated regularly and reflect the needs of students. Table 5.23 summarizes the emerging themes from item 33...“Do you think there is a need to review the content(s) and structure(s) of ELT?”

Table 5.23
The Need to Review the Contents and Structure of ELTE Programme at University

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teacher educators’ responses</th>
<th>Reasons for review (commentaries)</th>
<th>Count(s)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes (n=8)</td>
<td>Commentaries</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes responses</td>
<td>The need to be up to date with current developments on ELT issues globally</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Evaluate the contents( heavy, bulky, context, relevance and students’ needs)</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Match what is taught at university and what is taught in schools (O level and A level)</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Unbalanced course contents (contents, skills and language itself)</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Give rooms to Zanzibar curriculum reforms in university courses/programme</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Introduce ELT methodology courses at diploma level</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Review Grammar oriented parts in language</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Comprehensive review of teaching courses needed, not a mundane routine reviews (sketchy reviews)</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Update reading lists periodically</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>BTP needs to be revisited to be practical</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No( n= 2)</td>
<td>Reasons</td>
<td>Count(s)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No responses</td>
<td>Already Reviewed</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No comment (s)</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other (n=1)</td>
<td>Reasons</td>
<td>Count(s)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other responses</td>
<td>*Not relevant response</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* The participant refers to the diploma course content and structure need to reviewed to incorporate English Teaching Methods
5.6.5 Other aspect(s) of ELT curriculum that need to be improved at university

Table 5.24 summarizes the emerging themes from item 34…”What other aspect(s) of the provision of ELT would you like to change in your university? “A number of themes emerged as shown in table 5.22. Comments from most teacher educators contain words, phrases and sentences such as professional learning, English support and improvement, relevance and practicality, teaching practices, support and opportunities to share ideas and technology.

Teacher educators (n=11) perceived themselves as primary resource and that professional learning and development of teacher educators should come first. Supporting English language needs of PTE group has been cited as next in order of priority (n=10). Other issues listed were quality in ELT (n=9), practices (n=6), opportunities and support (n=4), resources and technology (n=3) (See Table 5.22).
Table 5.24
Recommendations for Changes in University ELT Curriculum/Provision

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item 34</th>
<th>Other Aspects of ELT</th>
<th>n=11 Counts</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Professional Learning:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Professional learning courses for teacher educators</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Supporting teacher educators and rigorous training</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Supportive teaching and learning environment</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>English Support :</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Introduce English improvement language courses/units before and after the students joined university</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Supporting student teachers of English</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Visibility of English support unit(s)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>High quality training :</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Relevance and practicality in ELT contents/courses, pedagogy and skills</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Revisit the whole University pedagogy (methods, assessments, textbooks)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Raise current level of English language skills</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Quality in everything ‘teaching, teachers, training, support’</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Improve the School-University interactions</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Admission:</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Admission to university should be reconsidered (right teachers candidates, good grades, English, and admit students with passion to become teachers</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Practices :</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Abandoning traditional teaching practices and assessment-driven approaches</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Local prepared teaching /learning books /textbooks</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Re- introduce English-only policy everywhere</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Make BTP /Practicum more useful and meaningful experience</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Opportunities:</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Formal and Informal opportunities to share ideas</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Resources and support</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Resources and Technology:</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Resources and materials</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Integrating technology in ELT learning and teaching</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Standard</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
5.6.6 Views of teacher educators about the provision of ELT at university

Item 35 identifies the Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities and Threats to present an overall picture of the ELTE programme. All teacher educators (n=11) provided a detailed explanation of issues and concerns about ELT at university level. A number of issues emerged from teacher educators’ responses. The themes focused on the following key areas: teaching and learning, levels of English, policy, university programme and research.

5.6.6.1 Drivers

The results of the study revealed a number of key drivers that enhance ELTE programme at university level. The major drivers identified were personal attachment to English, strong desire to teach and make learners master English, the existence of policies that support language education, and opportunities for research avenues that will change the ELT practices or improve ELT in all levels of education.

5.6.6.1.1 Teaching and learning

All participants (n=11) shows they have a strong desire to teach PTE how to teach English, and master the language. The desire and passion to teach English was supported by a number of issues: internal drive, social, personal and professional demands to teach English. The desire to teach English also emerged from three sources of pressures: first, the subtle pressure from colonial past, second, the local visible pressure, and third, the external pressures and global influences and the last is the ongoing pressure that allow participants to long for better life and opportunities. They also perceived that quality could be easily achieved by rigorous university training, encouraging learners, who have the passion for English to raise their passion for teaching, and get the pedagogic approach right.
5.6.6.1.2 Levels of English

Most teacher educators agree that the teaching of English at university is playing a certain role in promoting second language education, and support to improve the level of English at both university, and subsequently in schools in Zanzibar.

5.6.6.1.3 Policy

Almost all participants cite that the existence of language education policy and the existence of bilingual policy in education have had an important impact in language teaching and learning in a number of ways such as exposing prospective teachers and students in schools to English.

5.6.6.1.4 Programme

Most teacher educators agree that the ELTE programme play a vital role in the implementation of language policies, and also encourage second language learning and allow the learners to practically gain the maximum benefit of learning a second language.

5.6.6.1.5 Research

Teacher educators (n=11) perceived that ELTE programme at university is a new research territory, and has a particularly important role in making original contribution in the field of ELT, and eventually contribute to quality ELTE programme.

5.6.6.2 Inhibitors

The results of the study revealed a number of inhibitors that limits the ELTE programme such as lost opportunities, lack of resources and support, hostile teaching and learning environment, frustration, fear to learn English, confidence, uncertainty, tensions in practice, lack of clear commitment, few options to explore (courses and specializations to choose from), selective in certain subjects/units; low reading culture,
limited technology, limited choices in courses/units. The inhibitors identified were mainly related to teaching and learning, levels of English, policy, programme and research.

5.6.6.2.1 Teaching and learning

Most teacher educators perceived that teaching English is a complicated endeavor, and most of them painted a grim picture of teachers’ preparations. Comments such: *preparing teachers of English is a difficult journey; with a numbers of tensions* were a common underlying theme in the responses. The comments also suggest the teacher educators view quality teaching and the quality of the ELTE programme from different perspectives. Most of them described preparing the teachers of English using words and phrases like *a complex arduous journey, “bado tuna safari ndefu”* [we still have a long journey], dead-end journey, “…*ni kama hadithi na ndoto za mchana Ali Nacha kutaka yasokuwepo”*[Tales and dreams of Ali Nacha to day-dreams and long for what is not there, and what is not readily available], “*ukweli tunaufumbia macho”*[turning blind eyes to realities], English barriers force us to make *rooms for leniency, mercy and clemency in practice, “mahna, zahma, mshindo”*[chaos, tensions and confusion in teaching and learning], “*burn-out, stressed and frustrated”* lectures due to levels of students’ English, *lack of proper support from university, lack of recognitions of teacher educators’ work and effort due to challenging teaching conditions, and resources-starved context.*

Some teacher educators were divided on technology use. Some expressed the phobia of technology and some perceived technology use as luxury or ‘just add-on’, while some view technology use as necessary in teaching and learning process at university, and in this century.
Other external issues that inhibit teaching and learning were cited to general quality of education in Zanzibar, which is considered to be poor and below the standards, entry qualifications (low and politicized), university decisions and funds being politicized from higher government authority, limited time to practice and university teaching focused on theory than practice.

5.6.6.2.2 Levels of English

As table 5.23 shows teacher educators perceived that the level of English is sufficiently low to make any meaningful teaching difficult, quality delivery or have desirable quality outcome. Words and phrases like: “Learning English as Lelemama” [easy], “teaching English is Lelemama”, lack of academic rigour, low, mediocre, poor, rotten, broken English, low quality, reluctant learners, poor English foundation as young learners, “wanafunzi wabovu [rotten learners], poor English background from O and A level, tinkering with English problems, lack of inspiration and passion for teaching were mentioned repeatedly.

5.6.6.2.3 Policy

Teacher educators viewed the language policy as “idealistic”. The educators’ comments suggest that the policy does not ruminate on the problematic nature of teaching and learning, context, challenges, inhibitors, realities and consequently ignore the teaching quality and the quality of the programme. Teacher educators mentioned that for the most part language policy contributes to the confusion, misconceptions, and ambivalent feelings in language education, which is extended to ELT. Typical participants’ responses included phrases like: ...English only, unbalanced bilingual education policy, poor language learning foundation, poor reading culture in Kiswahili and English, shaky academic foundation due to poor English, low literacy and academic underachievement and lack of postgraduate studies in the areas of ELT, lack of research and poor teaching and learning infrastructure.
Another underlying common theme raised was the fact that teacher-training institutions have plans, strategies and policies, but in many cases, they hardly ever known by teacher educators and their students. They reported that they are the last people to know about changes and reforms. Participants highlighted the mismatch between curriculum reforms in Zanzibar (schools/education system) and what is taught in initial teacher education programme at university to be a common phenomenon. The power struggles over who makes the final decision about the best programmes and practice for educating university students in initial teacher education programme was mentioned by teacher educators.

5.6.6.2.4 Programme

Teacher educators questioned the relevance and impracticality of ELTE programme. A number of teacher educators perceive that encouraging and motivating prospective teachers to engage fully in ELT field is important if quality is to be achieved. The following comments were evident in participants responses: being passionate about teaching, boost the reputation of teaching profession, active participation by reducing English barriers, identifying students’ needs, having interests in students experiences and having a less intimidating arena for communication and interaction, lack of language specialists, qualified staff, wider course options and specialties, lack of specialized programme and lack of career guidance, the beliefs that foreign instructors may do better jobs than the local educators, the programme focus on university coursework than on teaching practice.

5.6.6.2.5 Research

The lack of clear direction in research, and lack of a conducive environment for quality research outcome were other themes that emerged. Comments with the following underlying themes were common: lack of research in the field of ELT, and the consequences of the dearth of research were weak and unclear language policies,
myths and confusions between language of learning and language learning, attitudes to language education, obliviousness of language reforms and previous research, and the lack of database of ELT research.

5.6.6.3 **Opportunities**

The results of the study revealed a number of opportunities of ELTE programme at university level. The opportunities identified are related to teaching and learning, level of English, policy, programme, and research.

5.6.6.3.1 **Teaching and learning**

Despite the negative perceptions, the majority of teacher educators believed that both teacher educators and their students are able to develop and create more opportunities for language learning and research on ELT. Words like collaborate with other universities for online courses, effective teaching and learning and research to improve practice were used.

5.6.6.3.2 **Levels of English**

The majority of teacher educators perceived that the professional, personal and social demands for English might generate more interests in improving the level of English, and the ways English is taught and practiced. Words and phrases like opportunity to improve the levels of English, effective ELT, research to clear the myths about language teaching and learning.

5.6.6.3.3 **Policy**

The majority of teacher educators perceived that the professional, personal and social demands for English might generate more interests in improving the level of English, and the ways English is taught and practiced. Words and phrases like
opportunity to improve the levels of English, effective ELT, research to clear the myths about language teaching and learning.

5.6.3.4 Programme

In regard to the quality of ELTE programme at university, most teacher educators perceived an opportunity to improve the quality of ELTE programme and improving the ELT in Zanzibar, if a number of issues and concerns need to be considered. Along with previously identified issues, teacher educators’ written responses indicated that ELTE programme have a whole of opportunities to improve. Typical words and phrases used by participants were ELTE programme need to come first, the needs for massive attention, improving and supporting students English, a priority, unexploited research areas in ELT, unused research findings, and opportunities to train educators with lack of TESOL pedagogical skills or L2 pedagogical skills for non-TESOL/ELT educators members.

5.6.3.5 Research

Teacher educators perceived that the current status of education, teaching career and the English language, give the University the advantage for collaboration with other universities, and developing more ELT courses and programmes, supporting local ELT stakeholders on ELT issues in Zanzibar and collaborate with other university to do research about ELT in Zanzibar.

5.6.4 Threats

The results of the study revealed a number of threats of ELTE programme at university. The threats identified are related to teaching and learning, level of English, policy, programme, and research.
5.6.6.4.1 Teaching and learning

Resources and support such as mentoring, library services, administrative and technical facilities were seen as critical by teacher educators in overall achievement of quality in the delivery of ELTE programme. Despite the perceived importance of resources and support, teacher educators perceived the lack of opportunities, traditional teaching methods, teaching contents versus dealing with English learners, heavy workload, inadequate support, ‘lack of everything’ and being blamed for not doing enough to be the main threat point. Teacher perceptions about the ELTE programme were also cited. Representative words and phrases like resentment burn out, frustrated, incompatible activities, outdated pedagogy, technology language teaching, poor teaching and learning infrastructure and restricted learning spaces, and low aspiration to become teachers and general university work culture.

5.6.6.4.2 Levels of English

In regards to the quality of the programme, the obvious threat was language, and the levels of English were perceived to be very low. Comments regarding English tended to be negative, and implied ‘a journey in a holed boat’. Words and phrases from participants were: poor, rotten, weak, broken, low level, problematic, underinvestment, lack of support and resources, inadequate, impractical, problematic, very low, English below what is expected, daydream of better English, honesty in the levels of English, English proficiency and abilities, native-speakers syndrome, incompatibility between English needs and resources and support, low level of support from university administration and higher authority, cultural difficulties, lower standard, lack of qualified staff, lack of everything and other deficits.

These were common themes in their texts. As the data, revealed teacher educators clearly expressed that:
…we are fully aware of prospective teacher limited English abilities and proficiency, however, teacher educators have no time to treat and cure …student-teachers English… taking care of contents, skills, pedagogy, and at the same time taking care of their own pedagogy-related issues…such as limited trainings and opportunities…[L1]

5.6.6.4.3 Policy

A number of teacher educators perceived that the main threat of ELTE programme is the lack of policies related to ELT at university, beliefs that foreign language instructors are better than local instructors, reliance on expatriates and volunteers from abroad, research funds tends to bring in paternalistic hangover, weak and unclear government language and education policies, adhoc and shambolic reforms in the area of ELT, which for the most part ignore research findings and evidence.

5.6.6.4.4 Programme

Comments regarding the programme also tended to be negative and the perceptions were that more university administrative support is minimal with limited focus in the area of ELT. Words and phrases such as irrelevance and impracticality of ELTE programme, inadequate support, leniency, frustration, tension coupled with heavy work load, lack of training, limited focus, soften and watering down of standards, inconsistencies between part-timers and full time lecturers or between foreign and local staffs, lack of role model, relying on courseware and other learning infrastructure from abroad, balance between L1 and L2, professional development and lack of career guidance for PTE and educators.

5.6.6.4.5 Research

Teacher educators agreed that lack of research in the field of ELT at university level, and the general lack of research capacity across the university to be the main threat. Research support, lack of follow-up research for university graduate, lack of
research database, reading resources for research works, research skills of teacher educators and inabilitys to handle large-scale research and using leading edge research was seen as part of the threats in ELTE. Lack of postgraduate courses and studies, which imply that there is no research in the area of ELT, was mentioned as a threat of ELT programme.

5.6.6.5 Overall summary

Overall, there were negative and positive perceptions regarding the ELTE programme. The teacher educators’ comments, concerns and issues raised show that ELTE programme at university level have both positive and inhibiting effects. In general, the data presented reveals that ELTE programme is loaded with more weaknesses than strengths. The teacher educators predict that ELTE is most susceptible to threats than it enjoys the strengths or takes advantage of the opportunities available.

5.7 SUMMARY OF THE KEY FINDINGS: TEACHER EDUCATORS

In this chapter, I have presented an overall picture of the results collected from Phase 1 of this study. Phase 1 involved data collected from teacher educators. The data collected from teacher educators involved a questionnaire that consisted of closed and open-ended questionnaire. Out of 15 active teacher educators at university, 11 completed questionnaires were received from teacher educators. The study sample comprised of 11 teacher educators (5 males and 6 females).

The 11 teacher educators who participated in Phase 1 of the study involved 10 native speakers of Kiswahili, and one native English-speaker. All teacher educators were engaged in teaching English courses in undergraduate, diploma and certificate level, and other short intensive courses in a non-English speaking environment.
Two of them had an extra experience of teaching English in an English-speaking environment. With the exception of the NSE, all ten teacher educators were classified as TESL/TEFL teachers because they were teaching English to PTE group for whom English was considered as their second language after Kiswahili, and a foreign language because it is only used in education context.

All teacher educators (n=11) who took part in the study were experienced English language teacher educators with at least three years of full-time experience teaching in English language classrooms. All the teachers were tertiary educated and all had specialist English language teaching qualifications in various fields of TESOL.

All the teacher educators had a full working life in ELT teaching backgrounds ranging from primary, secondary, college or university level. The teacher educators in the study differed widely in terms of their ages, their life experiences, their personalities, their priorities and their ultimate goals, teaching contexts, and the working conditions of the teachers. In 2010 (during data collection), seven teacher educators were permanently employed, two had long-term contracts, one was on exchange-visit programme and one was employed on a part-time basis.

Generally speaking, the 11 teachers educators profile in the study varied considerably, and appeared to be linked to a range of complex factors such as: the cultures of the university or institution within which they are working or had worked, the size of their classrooms, their age, opportunities and support received from university, previous training received, exposure to English, the learning infrastructure available, the nature of the training that they had received; the breadth of their language teaching experience; their personal priorities and commitments; their beliefs about language teaching and learning; their own personal language learning
experiences; their general level of commitment to teaching; the opportunities they had with fellow experienced teacher educators and other language teaching professionals.

The first level of analysis of teacher educators’ data addressing the main research question is summarized below: What are the main strengths and weaknesses of English language teacher education (ELTE) at university level in Zanzibar? The responses from completed questionnaires identify strengths and weaknesses of ELTE at university level.

5.7.1 Main strengths

The study identified ELTE strengths from the perspectives of teacher educators. The following paragraphs present the drivers, which were evident in the analysis, and were more consistently emerging in a number of ways. The study identified three strong drivers in the ELTE programme at university level. The drivers were perceived to have positive impact on effective and meaningful teaching:

First, the attitude towards English plays a key role in the ELTE programme. Teacher educators reveal that they have a strong desire to train prospective teachers to master the language and be successful teachers of English. Most participants have perceived that their passion and source of motivation, desire and energy to teach English emerged from internal and external pressures.

Second, the existences of policies that support language education in Zanzibar play a vital role in successful language education, and language-in-education. This was perceived to contribute to quality programme regardless of the constraints.

Third, the desire to ameliorate devastating legacies of poor teacher training. This was identified to have positive impact on ELTE programme, ELT practitioners and effective training of other teacher educators, who use English to teach subjects like social sciences, humanities and pure science subjects.
5.7.2 Main limitations

The study identified ELTE weaknesses from the perspective of teacher educators. The following paragraphs present the weaknesses, which were evident in the analysis, and were more consistently emerging in a number of ways. The study identified three overarching weaknesses in the ELTE programme at university level. The inhibitors were perceived to have negative impact on effective teaching and meaningful learning. The data also reveals that due to a number of negative impacts, ELTE programme at university is driven by experiences of tensions in practice. Anxiety, failure, negative attitudes and negative images seem to have powerful influential factors in how ELT is taught and practiced.

First, learning a second language is taken-for-granted to the detriment of quality education. This analysis indicates that the ELTE programme at university for the most part, focused on delivery of content, and not language learning. It ignores the basic pedagogy and principles of teaching and learning a second language. It was mainly guided by the hegemony of English, and possessed by the symbolic power of English, which in turn seem to affect ELT practices (see also Mazrui, 2003). The mixed feeling about English “as a soft subject” and as a “very important global language” had inhibiting effects.

Second, ELTE programme at university is mainly perceived by PTE to be ‘an English improvement programme’ rather than a programme that prepares has to prepare them to be effective teachers of English. Consequently, more time and efforts are committed to English than teaching.

Third, the main struggle for most teacher educators was not what to teach, but about issues with inhibiting effects such as prospective teachers’ level of English, low aspiration, motivation and interests toward teaching, general societal negative image of
teaching, limited commitment to learning, general English language ability and competences, lack of confidence in English use, instances of tensions emerged from teacher educators, educators’ attitudes toward teaching, ways and modes of teaching, and personal experiences and beliefs about teaching. The PTE ‘weak’ English poor foundation and lack of inspiration to be teachers were also found to have inhibiting effect on ELTE (see Mullock, 2009).

Fourth, ‘lack of everything’ culture had inhibiting effect on ELTE. For example, limited use of technology, lack of resources and opportunities for training, lack of qualified teacher educators (i.e. language teaching personnel and linguists). Most teacher educators confirm that there is a lack of significant pedagogical training.

Fifth, ‘negative mental’ images of ELT in Zanzibar, in general and particularly at university. Most teacher educators perceived teaching and learning English in ELTE programme as taking ‘safari in a scuttled ship’, or ‘safari in a holed-boat’. The negative societal perceptions on the teaching profession was said to affect PTE motivation for the ELT profession. The quality of candidates attracted to the teaching profession with no real motives to become teachers emerged to be a key theme.

The lack of strong language (ELT) leadership at university was another inhibiting factor. University administrators were mentioned as showing little interests in improving ELT and language education at university. Considering English as a ‘soft subject’ creates a number of tensions and poor relationship between language academicians and administrators at university.

Other weaknesses were the lack of support to help teacher educators to make smooth transition to teachers’ new identities (from school teacher to teacher educators), lack of consistent institutional policies, absence of good role models, lack of informal
and formal professional learning opportunities, limited opportunities to share good practices.

On the one hand, teacher educators do not have the opportunity or possibility to negotiate partnership. They do not have the competences or capabilities to participate due to lack of training. This tendency has been cited to be a contributing factor in making the ELTE programme at university as invisible (invisibility of initial teacher education). There is also a lack of clear consensus or standard for initial teacher education (entry, competence, professional expertise), which is potential for more slipping standards.

Next, the education and language policies from MoEVT are formulated with good intentions to improve ELT in Zanzibar. However, the reality highlighted by empirical data is quite different. The policies are too prescriptive, and are not backed up by clear commitments. Education and language policy reforms are hardly known by the main stakeholders. This clearly indicates the low priority attached, to language policies. There is clear evidence that there are a number of myths about the ELT, which also affect ELTE programme at university.

In addition to that, the political influence in ELTE programme was among the underlying themes. The data collected showed that there is an element of politics in university decisions, language and education policies, assessments, selection of students, best practices, curriculum reforms, and contents.

5.7.3 Impact theme

In this chapter, I have shown that the key emerging themes from the main strengths and limitations in ELTE programme warrant further investigation to find out how these strengths and weaknesses impact on how English is taught and practiced in
Zanzibar. I therefore set to extend Phase 1, by identifying the other key stakeholders in the field of ELT so that I could explore the key theme “impact”. The nature, context of teacher educators and themes that were discussed in this chapter guided the framing of interview questions in the extension phase of this research.

5.8 CHAPTER SUMMARY

In chapter 5, I have presented details of the teachers’ questionnaire data obtained from the first phase of this research. I conducted this phase to identify strengths and weaknesses of ELTE at university level. I have given details of participants’ responses to show how I identified drivers and inhibitors in qualitative terms. I quantify responses where viable only. The emerging themes in the analysis of data warranted a deeper understanding of drivers and inhibitors in the context of ELT in postcolonial Zanzibar. The next chapter presents data from the perspectives of PTE from Phase 1 of data collection.
CHAPTER 6
PHASE ONE: PRESENTATION OF PTE DATA

6.0 INTRODUCTION

Chapter 6 presents a description of my analysis of the data of the strengths and weaknesses of ELT in ITE at university level from Phase 1. I undertook a formal survey so that I could elicit their responses to the main research question: What are the main strengths and weaknesses of the ELTE programme at university level in Zanzibar. The data reported herein were obtained using the questionnaire, which consisted of both closed and open-ended questions and which I hoped would capture the Prospective Teachers of English (PTE) perceptions, views and impressions of ELTE programme.

6.1 INTRODUCING THE PROSPECTIVE TEACHERS OF ENGLISH

The purpose of this section is to introduce the PTE group. I present a composite picture of these core participants in the study, giving an overview of the kinds of respondents who participated in the study. In this section, a synthesis of the demographic and conceptual data is presented. Data and findings generated in this part produced themes, which were identified and determined to be pertinent for this study.

The data explored PTE views on ELTE programme and ascertained the range of strengths and weaknesses that they have reported. Due to the nature of the information I had, I used code PTE (PTE 1- PTE 40) to report on the views of this group as illustrated in Table 6.1.

71 As described earlier, in this study, the prospective teachers of English (PTE) are the students teachers in the initial teacher education (ITE) programme(see glossary of terms).
### Table 6.1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Core Participants (Phase 1)</th>
<th>No. of participants</th>
<th>Code</th>
<th>Tool(s)</th>
<th>Objective</th>
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<td>PTE</td>
<td>n= 40</td>
<td>PT 1…</td>
<td>Self-designed questionnaires (closed and open ended questions)</td>
<td>To identify strengths and weaknesses of university-based teacher education programme in the field of ELT</td>
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<td></td>
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<td>PT4…</td>
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<td></td>
<td>P40</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 6.2 BIOGRAPHICAL DETAILS OF PROSPECTIVE TEACHERS OF ENGLISH

This section presents profile of the PTE group as they emerged from Items 1-12 of the PTE questionnaire. The bibliographic details describe the age, gender, year of study, previous geographical settings of PTE learning contexts, number and type of languages spoken, self-rated level of English, education, qualifications and prior experience before joining ELTE programme at university to pursue the teaching job.

In Chapter 6, the overall information of PTE group was obtained from the PTE’s questionnaire, consists of items 1-31 (see Appendix 6). Table 6.2 is a summary of bibliographical details of 40 PTE group, which covers participants’ background information.
Table 6.2
The Profile of the Prospective Teachers of English (PTE)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>VARIABLES</th>
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<th>19-29</th>
<th>30-39</th>
<th>40-49</th>
<th>50+</th>
<th>50+以上</th>
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<td>4</td>
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<td>YEAR OF STUDY</td>
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<td>Rural</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>Unguja</td>
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<td>Pemba</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Mainland</td>
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<td>NUMBER(S) OF LANGUAGE AND VERNACULARS SPOKEN</td>
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<td>Three</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>Four</td>
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<td>TYPES LANGUAGE/VERNACULARS SPOKEN BY PTE TEACHERS</td>
<td>Kiswahili</td>
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<td>English</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>Arabic</td>
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<td>Spanish</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Portuguese</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Vernaculars</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SELF-RATE LEVEL OF ENGLISH</td>
<td>Elementary</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>Intermediate</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>Advanced</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Near-native speaker’s competence</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HIGHEST ACADEMIC QUALIFICATION</td>
<td>A level</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>Certificate of Education</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Diploma of Education</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ENGLISH-HEAD START</td>
<td>4-9</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>10-14</td>
<td>14</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SCHOOLING and EDUCATION SYSTEM</td>
<td>Public</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>Private</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>Public-Private</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EXPERIENCES OF TEACHING ENGLISH OTHER THAN UNIVERSITY BLOCK TEACHING PRACTICE (BTP)</td>
<td>1-5yrs</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6-10 yrs</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>11-15 yrs</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EXPERIENCES OF TEACHING DIFFERENT SUBJECTS OTHER THAN THE SUBJECTS TAUGHT DURING UNIVERSITY BLOCK TEACHING PRACTICE (BTP)</td>
<td>Science</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>Language(s)</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>Religion</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Humanities</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>None</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FORMAL AND INFORMAL CAREER(S) BEFORE JOINING THE UNIVERSITY FOR TEACHING CAREER</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>17</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
6.2.1 Gender

Table 6.3 shows the breakdown of the participants by gender (n=17 males and 23 females). With the 57.5% female and 42.5% male, representation by gender was not evenly distributed. The issue of gender roles is not a new phenomenon, and is central to the discussion of careers in most countries (Stockman, Bonney, & Xuewen, 1995; Drew & Emerek, 1998; Greenhaus & Parasuraman, 1999). The distribution reflects a wide assumption that teaching career is traditionally female-dominated field (Mullock, 2009) in other words suitable career for female especially if the target population are prepared to become teachers in primary or secondary school) as illustrated in Table 6.3.

Table 6.3
Counts and Percentage Distribution of Respondents Classified by Gender
(N=40)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Count(s)</th>
<th>Percent %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>57.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>42.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

6.2.2 Enrollement status

All participants (n=40) were enrolled on a full-time basis because the university does not have the system of part-time studies. All participants (100%) were third year undergraduate students i.e. finalists on the last (sixth) semesters of their three years of university programme.

6.2.3 Age group

Table 6.3 identifies the age grouping of the respondents to be between 19-40 years. Overall, the overwhelming majority (55%) was between 19-29 years of age. A further 35% were between 30-39 years of age. Very few (10%) were 40-49 years of age.
No participant was found to be under 18 or over 50 years of age. During the time of data collection, there was no national or university database to compare the distribution of age. However, it is possible that participants joined university late due to education system of Zanzibar, and route to career pathways in teaching (some joined university direct from high school, while some join university after spending a number of years in school teaching after obtaining their certificate or diploma in teaching).

Table 6.4
Counts and Percentage Distribution of Respondents Classified by Age Group

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Count</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>under 18</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>None</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19-29</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30-39</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40-49</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50+</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>None</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

6.2.4 Teaching subjects (majors)

Generally speaking, all participants (n=40) in this study were taking Bachelor of Arts with Education degree, which means that they were all taking compulsory education courses and two majors (i.e. two core-teaching subjects of their choices). As mentioned previously, the PTE groups were involved because all participants (n=40) were taking English as a core teaching subject. The second core-teaching subject taken by participants depended on their interests. In this group, some participants were taking English and Geography, English and History, English and Kiswahili, or English and Arabic. The unpublished university statistics (2010) show that many students choose Kiswahili and Arabic subjects, and about three-quarter of the participants were taking Kiswahili or Arabic as a second major. Within the core-teaching subjects(majors), PTE group are required to choose core-course (compulsory) and electives (optional courses). They had the option to pick elective courses as long as the courses are offered...
by the university during the semester, and this help the students to increase the number of units as per university requirement.

**6.2.5 Geographical composition of PTE group**

Although the study was conducted in Zanzibar specifically Unguja, the PTE group in the study come from the three geographical settings that form the United Republic of Tanzania. The study consisted of PTE from Tanzania (islands): Unguja (n = 25), Pemba (n = 11), and Tanzania mainland (n=4). The PTE group was made up of respondents originated or studied in schools located in urban areas (n=21), and rural area (n=19) of Unguja, Pemba and mainland (Item 4 and 5).

**6.2.6 Qualifications**

The PTE in this study differ widely in terms of their formal schooling and qualifications (See Item 8 and 9).

**6.2.6.1 Formal schooling and qualifications**

As indicated in Table 6.5 and Table 6.6, the PTE who took part in the study had all formal schooling and A-level qualifications. Some PTE are tertiary educated. As illustrated in Table 6.5, the majority of PTE (75%) have completed formal schooling in 2000s, 20% in 1990s, and few PTE (5%) have completed in 1980s.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item 9</th>
<th>Years of Completed A-Level</th>
<th>Count</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1980s</td>
<td></td>
<td>2 (5%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1990s</td>
<td></td>
<td>8 (20%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2000s</td>
<td></td>
<td>30 (75%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>40 (100%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Of all the 40 PTE, three (7.5%) respondents hold certificates in teaching and 15 (37.5%) PTE had diploma in teaching (See Table 6.6).
Table 6.6
PTE Previous Qualifications

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item 8</th>
<th>Qualifications</th>
<th>Count (n=40)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A-Level</td>
<td>40 (100%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Certificates in Teaching</td>
<td>3 (7.5%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diploma in Teaching</td>
<td>15 (37.5%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

6.2.6.2 Type of formal schooling attended

Table 6.7 shows that the PTE have spent formal schooling in public, private and public-private schools (See Item 10a) for a number of reasons: an open-ended question (Item 10c) required PTE to list reasons for being enrolled in public-private or both schools.

A number of reasons were cited in order of frequency such as quality education, English mastery, improving English proficiency, fear, tension and pressures that emerged from poor English or acquiring poor English as shown in Table 6.7.
Table 6.7
Public-Private Schooling and Perceived Benefits from the Perspectives of PTE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item 10a and 10c</th>
<th>Multiple Reasons provided by PTE respondents*</th>
<th>Count(s)</th>
<th>Ranking</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Public 28 (70%)</td>
<td>Free/Compulsory education</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Poverty and low income to afford to join private schools</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No choices/options</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Public schools were easily accessible</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Private schools were not very common (not familiar)</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No private school(s) where they used to live</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No idea</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Private schools were few and very far from their homes (distance)</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Private 6 (15%)</td>
<td>Quality education (parents beliefs)</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>English medium</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><em>Kuwa mchawi wa Kiingereza [becoming English wizard ]</em></td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Improving the level of English and good education (parents’ beliefs)</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Fear (to learn poor English, fail national examinations and fear of derogatory labels “Maimuna”)</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Influences/pressure from other parents, family members and siblings, who are in private schools</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Speak and hear English frequently</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Interact with foreigners, who are fluent in English, and best teachers of English</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public-Private</td>
<td>Quality education</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 (15%)</td>
<td>Failed the national examinations in public schools</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Previous poor performance (in public school)</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Expelled from public/government schools</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Multiple response question
6.2.6.2.1 Public schooling

About 28 (70%), those who attended the public (government) schools only, some had no idea, whole some listed free and compulsory education, no private school(s) where they used to live, poverty and low income to afford to join private schools, public school were easily accessible, and had no choice due to a number of circumstances.

6.2.6.2 Private schooling

The most important reasons given by PTE 6 (15%) for studying in private schools where the LoI is English, improving the quality of their English, getting quality education, and opportunity to be taught by non-Zanzibari teachers such as Ugandans and Kenyans (believed to be the best teachers), and exposure to (non-stop) English, quality education, culture of fear (parents’ fear that children may learn poor English, fear of poor performance, fear of communication and fear of failure in the national examinations, and the fear to be labelled as “Maimuna”72, influences and pressures (internal and external) from other family members and siblings, who send their children to private schools.

6.2.6.2.3 A mix of public-private schooling

About 6 (15%), those who at different times attended both public and private schools reported poor performance and failing their national examinations in public schools, quality education, parents fear that their children may not master “Kimombo”73 and being expelled from public schools for other reasons (not language related).

72 This is a common derogatory label for people who cannot speak any English.
73 This is a common term used to refer to English.
6.2.6.3 Overall summary

In summary, the data suggests that PTE group have been enrolled in public, private and public-private schooling system. The PTE in private-schooling system reported that they joined the system out of the desire to master English under parents’ directives because of pressure from parents, parents beliefs (quality education, failure and English abilities), PTE feelings driven by fear and the shame associated with poor mastery of English, while those who remains in public schools seem to have had no choice and little options to attend private schools due to distance or social status. This trend is also prevalent around the world whereby the pressure to start learning a foreign language early comes from parents, who are keen for children to get quality education and progress (Garton et al., 2011; Emery, 2012; Hsu & Austin, 2012).

6.2.7 Experiences

As indicated in Table 6.8 below, the PTE differ widely in terms of their experiences, career pathways and qualifications (Item 11a and b). Some of the PTE came from teaching backgrounds, and had teaching experience and trained teachers (with certificates and diplomas), while some were untrained teachers (without certificates or diplomas). Other PTE reported having worked in other fields of endeavour before joining university for ITE

6.2.7.1 Previous field of interests and experiences of PTE group

The PTE group reported that they joined university with a range of teaching and non-teaching experiences, acquired through formal and informal route as illustrated in Table 6.8. The experiences of PTE range from direct students from high school with no teaching experiences, and experienced teachers (from one to fourteen years of experience). About 60% PTE reported to have teaching experiences, which was obtained from teaching in primary to lower-secondary schools in Zanzibar. Some
reported to having worked in other fields of personal interests before joining university, such as civil servant, Immigration officer, freelancer, secretary, cashier and home-tutors. Employers were both formal organisation and informal organisations and family business. Of all the 40 PTE, only 15 (37.5%) had a full working life in English and ELT before joining the university.

Table 6.8
Teaching and Non-Teaching Experiences

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item 11</th>
<th>Count(s)</th>
<th>Career before university</th>
<th>Count(S)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>TEACHING EXPERIENCES</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teaching English subject (formal employment)</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Teaching jobs/subjects</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>24 (60%)</td>
<td>English</td>
<td>5 (37.5%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>15</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teaching non-English subjects</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>Geography</td>
<td>2 (5%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Mathematics</td>
<td>2 (5%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Kiswahili</td>
<td>2 (5%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Spanish</td>
<td>1 (2.5%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Portuguese</td>
<td>1 (2.5%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Civics</td>
<td>1. (2.5%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NON-TEACHING EXPERIENCES</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Non-teaching jobs</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Government Employment</td>
<td>7 (17.5%)</td>
<td>Civil servant</td>
<td>1 (2.5%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Immigration officer</td>
<td>1 (2.5%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-governmental Employment</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>Freelancer</td>
<td>1 (2.5%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Secretary</td>
<td>1 (2.5%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Cashier</td>
<td>1 (2.5%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Home tutors</td>
<td>2. (5%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OTHER(s)</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No career</td>
<td>9 (22.5%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>9 (22.5%)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>40 (100%)</td>
<td>40 (100%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

6.2.7.2 Career pathways and routes

The PTE joined the university via three pathways: those with direct entry (direct from high school with A level qualifications), certificate holders who were trained to
teach pre-primary and primary school students; diploma holders who were prepared to teach in secondary schools but may also requested to teach in primary schools when need arose. As Table 6.9 shows 22 (55%) of PTE joined university as direct entry students (i.e. with A-level qualifications only), followed by 15 (37.5%) diploma holders and only three (7.5%). Both certificate and diploma holders had A-level qualifications (See Table 6.6).

Table 6.9
Teacher Education Routes and Individual Pathways

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item 8</th>
<th>(n=40)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teacher education pathways</td>
<td>Count(s)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A level (Direct entry from school)</td>
<td>22 (55.0%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A-level qualifications and Certificate in Teaching</td>
<td>3 (7.5%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A-level qualifications and Diploma in Teaching</td>
<td>15 (37.5%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>40 (100)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

6.2.8 English proficiency and abilities in other languages

The data on self-assessment of the English language ability, and other languages showed that there is a range of abilities and competences.

6.2.8.1 Self-assessments of English language ability

Many respondents in the survey rated their English abilities higher than the way teacher educators categorize “weak, poor, rotten or below average”. The majority of PTE assessed their English to be between intermediate 45% and Advanced 50%. Two PTE (5%) assessed their English to be close to native speakers’ competence (See ACTFL, 2012). No PTE has underestimated their English ability or rated their English as being in elementary level.
Table 6.10
Self-Assessment on English Skills Levels

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item 7</th>
<th>Count(s)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Elementary</td>
<td>None</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intermediate</td>
<td>18 (45%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Advanced</td>
<td>20 (50%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Near-native speakers competence</td>
<td>2 (5%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

6.2.8.2 Range of proficiency and competencies in English

As shown in Table 6.7 (Item 10 a, 10 b and 10 c), there is a range of proficiency in English at SUZA ranging from people fluent in both spoken and written discourse. There is also a noticeable disparity in the access for English for the PTE group. Participants mentioned different educational circumstances and early access to English which lead to differences in language abilities, competencies and proficiency. These are geographical location (Unguja/Pemba), area studied (urban/rural), school system studied (private/public/both public and private); age started learning English, career pathways or experience (teaching/non-teaching experience). For example, about 15% respondents reported that regardless of their social class (poor/middle/well to do families) often the pressure to start learning English or be in English-medium schools comes from parents because most of them strongly felt that knowledge of English would be beneficial for their children as shown in previous Table 6.7. Another 15% reported that their parents enrolled them in private schools\textsuperscript{74} because they believe that those schools offer the best education than the public (government) schools.

\textsuperscript{74} In Zanzibar, these are school commonly known as English-medium school or international schools.
6.2.8.3 Exposure to English

Table 6.11 shows that 65% of the respondents were exposed to English at a (very) young age (4-9), while 35% were exposed to English at the age of ten and older (10-14). This reflects the global trends of learning English at a (very) young age (See Garton, et al., 2011; Emery, 2012; Howard, 2012).

Table 6.11
Exposure to English by Age

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item 10b</th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Count (s)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4-9</td>
<td>26 (65%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>10-14</td>
<td>14 (35%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

6.2.8.4 Exposure to language(S) Other than English (LOTE)

As Table 6.12 suggests majority of the respondents reported to speak Kiswahili as their first language, and English was learnt as a second language. Some participants reported to possess extra languages such as Arabic, Spanish, French, Portuguese and local dialects.

Table 6.12
Exposure to Languages Other than English (LOTE)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item 6</th>
<th>Languages other than English</th>
<th>Count(s)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Vernaculars languages</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Kinyaturu, Kizigua, Kidigo, Kidengereko</td>
<td>4 (10%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Kiswahili</td>
<td>40 (100%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Arabic</td>
<td>8 (20%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>French</td>
<td>2 (5%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Spanish</td>
<td>3(7.5%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Portuguese</td>
<td>1 (2.5%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

These three vernaculars are of Bantu origin, and the first languages of the PTE, who participated in this study. The participants are from Tanzania mainland, but chose to join the university in Zanzibar.
The number of vernaculars (dialect of Kiswahili) reported were mainly dependent on respondents’ original geographical location. In this case, the four PTE respondents were from certain parts of Tanzania mainland (Dar-es-salaam, Arusha, Tanga and Morogoro).

Other PTE were exposed to other foreign languages for different reasons; personal interests/reasons and government policy on some selected schools. For example, those who studied in selected schools were required to learn French, those who were selected to be in Institute of Language learnt (Arabic, Spanish, French and Portuguese), and those PTE who reported to have exposure to Arabic have acquired it because it is a formal subject in most schools of Zanzibar due to Islamic religious influences in the island, whereby most muslim students had to take the subject while in primary school, and majority feel obligated to take the subject because it is the language of their religion and their prophet (Bakari, 2001).

6.2.9 Overall summary

The biographical information collected in this study provided a general description of PTE group. The data revealed that by far the composition of PTE group is varied considerably, and has a number of characteristics, which might have an impact on the quality of Initial Teacher Education (ITE) at university.

6.3 RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES

Teacher educators and their students are coming from a variety of backgrounds, and with varied experiences. Therefore, it was important to determine the impact of certain variables such as gender, age, geographical origin, years of exposure to English and experience. The main objective of this descriptive analysis was to gain a better understanding of the above demographic characteristics of the PTE group enrolled in
the ELTE programme, a part of Bachelor of Arts with Education (B.A.Ed.). Therefore, relationships among enrolment status and other demographic variables are presented in this section.

6.3.1 Gender and geographical composition of PTE

Table 6.13 shows the breakdown of the PTE respondents classified by gender and geographical composition. As mentioned earlier in Table 6.3, the majority of PTE group are from Unguja (62.5%), with Pemba (27.5%) and mainland (10%).

There was little difference from PTE from urban (52.5%) and rural (47.5%) areas. With regard to gender, more than half of the sample (57.5%) was female, and 42.5% was male. This is in keeping with the studies around the world that indicated that the teaching profession especially in lower levels of education (primary and secondary) is registered to be a female-dominated profession as illustrated in Section 6.2.1.

Table 6.13
Gender and Geographical Composition of PTE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Geographical Composition of PTE</th>
<th>Total Count (s)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Unguja</td>
<td>Pemba</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Urban</td>
<td>Rural</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(20%)</td>
<td>(7.5%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(22.5%)</td>
<td>(7.5%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(42.5%)</td>
<td>(20%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grand total</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
6.3.2 Age group and geographical composition of PTE

Table 6.14 presents the frequency and the percentage frequency distribution of PTE respondents classified by age group and geographical composition. There was a little difference between the PTE from urban (52.5%) and rural areas (47.5%) taking ELTE at university. In terms of age group, the majority (55%) were in the 19-29 age group, with 35% in the age of 30-39, and (10%) in the 40-49 age group. The data suggests that direct and mature entry is common in teaching profession; however, the route might not be suitable for mature entry.

Table 6.14
Age and Geographical Composition of PTE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Geographical Composition of PTE</th>
<th>Total Count (s)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Urban</td>
<td>Rural</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>under 18</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>None</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19-29</td>
<td>11(27.5)</td>
<td>11(27.5%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30-39</td>
<td>8(20%)</td>
<td>6(15%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40-49</td>
<td>2(5%)</td>
<td>2(5%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50+</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>None</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>21(52.5%)</td>
<td>19(47.5%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

6.3.3 Experience and geographical composition of PTE

Table 6.15 illustrates that the majority of PTE (52%) respondents from urban area had both career in teaching (40%) and non-teaching profession (12.5%), while half of the PTE (20%) from rural areas had teaching career, with 5% in non-teaching career, and 22.5% had no teaching career, and other working experience. The data suggests that the urban dwellers had opportunity to engage in formal and non-formal teaching activities and other endeavor of their interests.
Table 6.15
Experience and Geographical Composition of PTE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Experience(s)</th>
<th>Geographical composition of PTE</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Urban</td>
<td>Rural</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teaching English</td>
<td>11 (27.5%)</td>
<td>4 (10%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teaching other subjects</td>
<td>5 (12.5%)</td>
<td>4 (10%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-teaching career</td>
<td>5 (12.5%)</td>
<td>2 (5%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No career</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>9 (22.5%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>21 (52.5%)</td>
<td>19 (47.5%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

6.3.4 Self-assessments on English and geographical composition of PTE

In regard to self-assessments on English, Table 6.16 shows that there was a little difference between the PTE from urban and rural areas. Majority of PTE, both urban-rural based self-rated their English as Intermediate (45%) and Advance English (5%).

Table 6.16
English Abilities and Geographical Composition of PTE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English</th>
<th>Geographical composition of PTE</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Urban</td>
<td>Rural</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elementary</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>None</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intermediate</td>
<td>8 (20%)</td>
<td>10 (25%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Advanced</td>
<td>11(27.5%)</td>
<td>9 (22.5%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Near-native speakers competence</td>
<td>2 (5%)</td>
<td>None</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>21 (52.5%)</td>
<td>19 (47.5%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Only (5%) of PTE from urban areas categorized themselves as having a near-native speakers competence. No PTE (urban and rural) has self-rated their English as elementary. This suggests that PTE were fairly confident with their English abilities, however, in response to language use in the ELT sessions, a major concern was English abilities (see Table 6.26, 6.27, 6.29, 6.30 and 6.32)
6.3.5 Access/exposure to English and geographical composition of PTE

The majority of PTE group (65%) started English at a younger age from 4-9, while 35% were introduced to English at an older age 10-14. There was a significant difference between urban (42.5%) and rural (22.5%) participants in terms of the age of starting to learn English. The data suggests there might be inequality of access to English from the foundational level or early age in Zanzibar. This situation has been highlighted in other countries (see Garton et al., 2011).

Table 6.17
Access to English and Geographical Composition of PTE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age exposed to English</th>
<th>Geographical composition of PTE</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Urban</td>
<td>Rural</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4-9</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10-14</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

6.3.6 Overall summary

In summary, PTE respondents from urban and rural areas were equally represented. However, there were significant differences of the ages of learners in terms of exposure and access to English, working experiences in the teaching profession and some minor difference in English abilities. In addition to that, the PTE English abilities self-assessment did not match teacher educators’ assessment of PTE English. As shown in Chapter 5, PTE group were described to have inadequate English language proficiency, one among an important ingredient in the preparation to teachers of English. This trend was found to be prevalent in most countries (see Enever, Moon, & Raman, 2009, Graddol, 2006; Emery, 2012 for review).
6.4 TRAINING CIRCUMSTANCES OF PTE

The PTE in this study varied widely not only in terms of their educational backgrounds, experiences, and English language abilities, but also in terms of the current training and teacher preparations. As the study progressed, it became evident that PTE entered their ELTE programme with certain expectations.

6.4.1 Teacher preparation: aspects of trainings and preparedness

As shown in Table 6.18, a number of themes emerged in the aspects of teacher preparation of PTE. Most frequently mentioned were language teaching methodologies (100%), lesson planning (92.5%), Language learning and teaching theory (87.5%), Language learning principles (75%), Designing ELT materials (57.5%) and literacy skills (55%). The data also suggest that only 42.5% mentioned that they were prepared to handle bigger class and 40% cite the preparation of supplementary materials and worksheets while in ITE.

The less frequently mentioned themes were improvement of own levels of English (27.5%). Evidence gathered suggest that the area of technology is not prominent in the course contents of the ELT programme. Only 12.5% specifically addresses the issues of technology in training. Other less mentioned themes were working with school challenges (10%), and coping with resource challenges (7.5%).
Table 6.18
Summary of the Aspects of Trainings and Preparation in the Programme

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item 12</th>
<th>n=40</th>
<th>Topic(s) *</th>
<th>Count (s)</th>
<th>Ranking</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Language Teaching Methodologies</td>
<td></td>
<td>40 (100%)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Planning your own lesson</td>
<td></td>
<td>37 (92.5%)</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Language learning and teaching theory</td>
<td></td>
<td>35 (87.5%)</td>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How do people learn a new language</td>
<td></td>
<td>30 (75%)</td>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Designing ELT materials</td>
<td></td>
<td>23 (57.5%)</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Literacy skills</td>
<td></td>
<td>22 (55%)</td>
<td>6</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dealing with big classes</td>
<td></td>
<td>17 (42.5%)</td>
<td>7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Preparing supplementary materials and worksheets</td>
<td></td>
<td>16 (40%)</td>
<td>8</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Improvement of own level of English</td>
<td></td>
<td>11 (27.5 %)</td>
<td>9</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English teaching and technology</td>
<td></td>
<td>5 (12.5 %)</td>
<td>10</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others topics:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Working with school challenges</td>
<td></td>
<td>4 (10 %)</td>
<td>11</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cope in context with resource challenges</td>
<td></td>
<td>3 (7.5%)</td>
<td>12</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Multiple responses question

6.4.2 Overall summary

Overall, as part of ITE, the analysis revealed that PTE felt professionally prepared. However, from the data, it was not clear whether they received any instruction in appropriate methodologies to teach ESL or young learners or specific instructions to teach learners with L2 difficulties. The data shows that most PTE have mentioned the aspect of teaching methodologies, lesson planning and language learning theories to be well covered in the programme. However, it is interesting to note that three issues were mentioned to be major concerns among PTE. These are English Language ability, working with challenges and the use of technology. The data further reveals that there is clearly a need for English improvement.
6.5 THE LEARNING CONTEXT(S)

6.5.1 Availability of opportunities

The analysis of Table 6.19 shows that the availability of opportunities for direct observation and peer learning are restricted. Of all the respondents, about 60% reported that they do not get the opportunity to observe ELT lessons taught by other people. 40% reported that they get opportunity to observe ELT lessons taught by other people. 22.5% mentioned course lecturer(s), 5% experienced teachers, 7.5% peer teaching and 5% other guest speakers as illustrated below:

Table 6.19
Opportunity to Observe ELT Lessons during University Sessions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item 13 and 14</th>
<th>Count</th>
<th>n=40</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Opportunity to observe ELT lessons at university</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>16 (40%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No</td>
<td>24 (60%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Opportunity to observe:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a) experienced teachers</td>
<td>2 (5%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b) course lecturer(s)</td>
<td>9 (22.5%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c) peer teaching</td>
<td>3 (7.5%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d) others (guest speakers)</td>
<td>2 (5%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

6.5.2 Opportunities for block teaching practice (BTP)/or practicum

Table 6.20 shows that the majority of PTE find Block Teaching Practice (BTP) or practicum to be helpful. Out of 40 participants, 23 (57.5%) find BTP to be helpful, and the 12 (30%) participants find it very useful. Only a small number of students (12.5%) found it to be somewhat helpful.
Table 6.20  
PTE Perceptions on the Usefulness of Block Teaching Practice (BTP)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item 16</th>
<th>n=40</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>BTP/ Practicum</td>
<td>Count(s)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not at all helpful</td>
<td>No response</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Somewhat helpful</td>
<td>5 (12.5%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Helpful</td>
<td>23 (57.5%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very helpful</td>
<td>12 (30%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

6.5.3 Opportunity to learn and practice English teaching from the programme

40 PTE in this study were asked to indicate the extent to which their ELTE program had given them the opportunity to learn professional knowledge and professional practice and engagement in terms of four key dimensions namely content knowledge, teaching skills, feedback from lecturers, and assessment of student learning. Opportunity to learn refers to both the form and the substance of learning experiences in teacher education programs. The ‘Opportunity to learn’ (OTL) scales used in this study was adopted and modified from ACER research on teacher education and professional development programs (Ingvarson, Meiers & Beavis, 2003) (see similar studies for review)\(^76\)

In their study, student teachers rated their ELT programme in terms of opportunity to learn how to teach along four key dimensions namely content knowledge, teaching skills, feedback from lecturers, and assessment of student learning. A set of studies conducted by Ingvarson and others used factor analysis due to a larger sample size; however, my current study has analyzed each item qualitatively, because

---

the sample size was very small (see Morse, 1994, 1995, 2000). All 40 PTE responded 15 items in each scale as shown below:

### 6.5.3.1 Content knowledge: know students and how they learn

The PTE were asked about the extent to which their ELTE initial or pre-service teacher education program gave them the opportunity to know students and learn how they learn (content knowledge).

#### Table 6.21
Opportunity to Learn about Planning Lessons

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item 15</th>
<th>Not at all</th>
<th>To a minor extent</th>
<th>To a moderate extent</th>
<th>To a major extent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>view national curriculum/ syllabus and their guidelines from the ministry</td>
<td>8(20%)</td>
<td>16(40%)</td>
<td>13(32.%)</td>
<td>37.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>prepare scheme of work</td>
<td>2(5%)</td>
<td>5(12.5%)</td>
<td>7(17.5%)</td>
<td>26(65%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>plan and prepare lessons collaboratively</td>
<td>3(7.5%)</td>
<td>5(12.5%)</td>
<td>15(37.5%)</td>
<td>17(42.5%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As illustrated in Table 6.21, a large proportion of PTE respondents agree that they get the opportunity to prepare and plan lessons using knowledge of student learning while at ELTE programme at university. However, the PTE respondents also reported that they do not get the opportunity to view national curriculum/ syllabus and their guidelines from the ministry. This data suggests that there are limited opportunities to learn the content responsive to the local/national community and guidelines.
6.5.3.2. **Content knowledge and subject specific methods**

The PTE were asked about the extent to which their initial teacher education program gave them the opportunity to learn a content knowledge and pedagogy. As Table 6.22 illustrates the majority of PTE confirm that they have the opportunity to learn content knowledge and learn how to teach their specialized subjects.

Table 6.22

Opportunity to Learn a Content Knowledge and Pedagogy

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item 15</th>
<th>n = 40</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>gain a deep understanding of the content knowledge you were expected to teach</td>
<td>4(10%) 3(7.5%) 20(50%) 13(32.5%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>make clear links between content or subject matter, and units about how to teach the content</td>
<td>3(7.5%) 9(22.5) 22(55%) 6(15%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>make clear links between theoretical and practical aspects of teaching</td>
<td>1(2.5%) 12(30%) 23(57.5%) 4(10%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>develop a sound understanding of how students learn the specific content that you were expected to teach</td>
<td>1(2.5%) 12(30%) 20(50%) 7(17.5%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>learn how to probe students’ prior understandings of content you were about to teach</td>
<td>2(5%) 10(25%) 19(47.5%) 9(22.5%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>learn how to present content in ways that build on students’ existing understanding</td>
<td>2(5%) 3(7.5%) 20(50%) 15(37.5%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>learn methods of teaching specific to the content you were expected to teach</td>
<td>2(5%) 4(10%) 15(37.5%) 19(47.5%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>how student learn and develop</td>
<td>2(5%) 6(15%) 20(50%) 12(30%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
6.5.3.3  Feedback

PTE were asked about the extent to which their initial teacher education program provides the opportunity to learn via feedback by assessing their own learning and providing timely and appropriate feedback to them about their learning.

Table 6.23  
Opportunity to Learn Via Feedback

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item 15</th>
<th>Not at all</th>
<th>To a minor extent</th>
<th>To a moderate extent</th>
<th>To a major extent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>practice new teaching skills, with feedback from your tutor/lecturer</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>receive useful feedback about your teaching from your university tutor/lecturer</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>n = 40</td>
<td>3(7.5%)</td>
<td>0(75%)</td>
<td>2(5%)</td>
<td>5(12.5%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3(7.5 %)</td>
<td>20(50%)</td>
<td>10(25%)</td>
<td>7(17.5%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As the table 6.23 reveals the respondents reported that there are very limited opportunity to learn via feedback. The reasons for limited opportunity to learn via feedback are explored in focus group discussion (FGDs) in Chapter 7.

6.5.3.4  Assessment as a teaching and learning tool

PTE respondents were asked about the extent to which their initial teacher education program provided the opportunity to learn about assessment and report on student learning:
Table 6.24

Opportunity to Learn about Assessments

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item 15</th>
<th>Not at all</th>
<th>To a minor extent</th>
<th>To a moderate extent</th>
<th>To a major extent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>analyse your teaching practice in relation to standards for good teaching practice</td>
<td>14 (35%)</td>
<td>9 (22.5%)</td>
<td>3 (7.5%)</td>
<td>4 (10%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>examine student work in relation to standards for student learning</td>
<td>7 (17.5%)</td>
<td>27 (67.5%)</td>
<td>2 (5%)</td>
<td>4 (10%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>use findings from research to improve your knowledge and practice</td>
<td>19 (47.5%)</td>
<td>16 (40%)</td>
<td>4 (10%)</td>
<td>1 (2.5%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>work collaboratively with other teachers</td>
<td>3 (7.5%)</td>
<td>5 (12.5%)</td>
<td>8 (20%)</td>
<td>24 (60%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>use student data to develop an action plan for future improvement of your teaching practices</td>
<td>13 (32.5%)</td>
<td>14 (37.5%)</td>
<td>11 (27.5%)</td>
<td>2 (5%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>use assessment to give effective feedback to parents or guardians</td>
<td>9 (22%)</td>
<td>19 (47.5%)</td>
<td>7 (17.5%)</td>
<td>5 (12.5%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The table 6.24 shows that the assessment literacy is lacking. A good number of PTE reported that the opportunity to learn about assessment and feedback is lacking in the ELTE programme, however almost 80% PTE respondents stated that they got some opportunities to collaborate with other teachers.

6.5.3.5 Effective teaching and learning

The table 6.25 shows that PTE reported missing the opportunities to engage in reflective practices while at university. The data reveals that although the PTE are
learning sufficient content knowledge and methods (See Table 6.21 and 6.22 ), there are a number of PTE about (55%) who do not have the opportunity to reflect upon the effectiveness of their own teaching, and about 10% had no opportunities to express their learning needs.

Table 6.25
Opportunity to Plan and Implement Effective Teaching and Learning

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Not at all</th>
<th>To a minor extent</th>
<th>To a moderate extent</th>
<th>To a major extent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>reflect upon the effectiveness of your own teaching</td>
<td>6(15%)</td>
<td>22(55%)</td>
<td>10(25%)</td>
<td>2(5%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>identify your learning needs</td>
<td>31(75%)</td>
<td>4(10%)</td>
<td>3(7.5%)</td>
<td>2(5%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>use computers to aid your English teaching</td>
<td>21(52.5%)</td>
<td>11(27.5%)</td>
<td>7(17.5%)</td>
<td>1(2.5%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>correct your students (eg. pronunciation, grammar, spelling, vocabulary, handwritings )</td>
<td>2(5%)</td>
<td>6(15%)</td>
<td>20(50%)</td>
<td>12(30%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

6.5.4 Overall summary

As illustrated in Table 6.21- 6.25, overall analysis shows that most PTE respondents reported that they have enough opportunity to learn about teaching. However, the learning context of PTE might have an impact on the pedagogical experiences in other words the opportunities to practice the professional knowledge and engagement could be lacking.
6.6 PROFILING THE “ENGLISH ASPECT” OF BEING A PTE

Item 21 and 22 inquired about the language used by PTE and teacher educators in ELTE programme. Most PTE reported that a mix of English and Kiswahili is used in ELTE.

6.6.1 PTE perceptions on language used in the ELTE programme

PTE reported that about 50% of teacher educators and 65% of PTE use a mix of Kiswahili and English in lessons, tutorials, and ELT seminars at university (See Table 6.26). Yet, the remaining 35% of the PTE reported that they use English only, while 50% confirmed that their teacher educators use English only. None of the PTE mentioned the use of Kiswahili only in ELTE programme.

Table 6.26
Language Used in ELTE Programme

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item(s) 21 and 22</th>
<th>Kiswahili only</th>
<th>English only</th>
<th>A mix of two</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>LoI used in ELT lessons/classes by PTE</td>
<td>(None )</td>
<td>14 (35%)</td>
<td>26 (65%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LoI used in ELT lectures/tutorials/seminars by teacher educators</td>
<td>(None)</td>
<td>20 (50%)</td>
<td>20(50%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The differences in perceptions also appear in PTE observations in reporting the common language used in ELTE programme. PTE acknowledged that “Kiswahili only” is rarely used (32.5%) and never used (32.5%). “English only” is sometimes used (35%) and about 45% reported that “English only” is often used. However, it was clearly reported that Kiswahili (L1) is a resident in L2 classes and lesson, both English and Kiswahili are sometimes used (55%) and (30%) often used. As illustrated in Table 6.26 and 6.27, it appears that LoI policy does not reflect on the realities of ELTE programmes, and/or teaching and learning process at university.
Table 6.27
PTE Observation on the Language Uses in the ELTE Sessions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item 23</th>
<th>Never</th>
<th>Rarely</th>
<th>Sometimes</th>
<th>Often</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Kiswahili only (n=40)</td>
<td>13 (32.5%)</td>
<td>13 (32.5%)</td>
<td>11 (27.5%)</td>
<td>3 (7.5%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English only (n=40)</td>
<td>4 (10%)</td>
<td>4 (10%)</td>
<td>14 (35%)</td>
<td>18 (45%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Both Kiswahili and English (n=40)</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>6 (15%)</td>
<td>22 (55%)</td>
<td>12 (30%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

6.6.2 PTE perceptions on ELTE as a programme

Apart from the positive and negative aspects of the ELTE programme, the PTE responses on the preparedness, effectiveness of ELTE programme at university and the PTE self-assessments of their own English abilities, the data suggests that PTE perceptions of the programme is positive as illustrated in Table 6.28. However, based on PTE responses, ‘subject of intense inner conflicts, tensions, and ambivalence were major concerns arising from this research. This theme has raised a number of concerns and questions in relation to English abilities, which warrant a follow up session as illustrated in Table 6.10, 6.27(see 6.29, 6.30 and 6.32).

6.6.2.1 ELT preparedness

Out of 40 PTE respondents, about 90% agreed that they would recommend a person interested in becoming an English teacher to take ELTE programme at their university. Only 10% respondents reported that they would not recommend their colleagues to join the ELT programme as illustrated in 6.28.

Table 6.28
Recommending the ELTE Programme to Others

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>n=40</th>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Item 25</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recommending others to join university ELTE programme</td>
<td>36 (90%)</td>
<td>4 (10%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
6.6.2.2 ELT professionalism and proficiency

Table 6.29 illustrates how most PTE perceived themselves as not proficient in English, but felt confident about their ELTE/teacher training preparation. About 67.5% participants state that they are professionally prepared but not proficient in English. About 12.5% reported that they are neither proficient nor professionally prepared. None of the PTE accepted that they are proficient in English but not professionally prepared.

Table 6.29
Proficiency and Professionalism

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item 26</th>
<th>Count (s)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Proficient in English and professionally prepared</td>
<td>8 (20%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professionally prepared but not proficient in English</td>
<td>27 (67.5%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Proficient in English but not professionally prepared</td>
<td>No response</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neither proficient nor professionally prepared</td>
<td>5 (12.5%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

These data suggests that the majority feel professionally prepared to be English teachers, but most of them reported that they are not proficient in English. These views match with teacher educators’ views as illustrated in Table 5.18.

Table 6.30
Proficiency versus Professionalism

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>n = 40</th>
<th>Count(s)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Preparedness (n = 40)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Proficient in English</td>
<td>8 (20%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not-proficient in English</td>
<td>32 (80%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Proficiency (n = 40)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professionally prepared</td>
<td>35 (87.5%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not-Professionally prepared</td>
<td>5 (5%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

These findings do not reflect PTE self-assessment on English language abilities responses given previously (See Table 6.10). PTE rated their English abilities as ‘fairly good’, which range from intermediate to near-native abilities.

As illustrated earlier in Table 6.10, most PTE self-rated their English as intermediate (45%), advanced (50%) and near-native speakers’ competence (5%). No
respondents rated to have elementary English. The findings indicates that the weaknesses that act as inhibitors in ELTE programmes at university as identified in this study may be due to limited English abilities and proficiency, which highlights that the teacher educators and PTE might be focusing more on English abilities, skills, proficiency of PTE than teaching abilities, skills and preparation while in initial teacher education programme.

### 6.6.3 Effectiveness of ELTE programme at university

The results of Table 6:31 raised a question as to the effectiveness of the ELTE programme at university level. Out of 40 PTE, a large number (65%) felt that the ELTE programme was somewhat effective; another 27.5% reported that the programme was effective, and only 7.5% respondents believed that the ELTE programme was very effective.

Table 6:31
Effectiveness of ELT programme

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item 27</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Not at all effective</td>
<td>None</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Somewhat effective</td>
<td>26 (65%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Effective</td>
<td>11 (27.5%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very effective</td>
<td>3 (7.5%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I don’t know</td>
<td>No response</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 6.6.4 Overall summary

Overall, although most PTE respondents (90%) reported that they could recommend ELTE programme to colleagues as illustrated in Table 6.28, the results from Table 6.31 suggests that the effectiveness of ELTE programme need some consideration.
6.7 QUALITATIVE ANALYSIS OF OPEN-ENDED QUESTIONS

The PTE group questionnaire included open-ended questions. In this section, Item 11 (b) 17, 18, 19, 20, 28, 29, 30 and 31 provided the respondents with the opportunity to describe the ELTE programme at university and give their perception and views on the ELTE programme. Out of 63 third-year PTE enrolled at university during the data collection, only 40 PTE completed the questionnaires. Of the 40 (100%) completed usable questionnaires, all PTE provided comments to the open-ended questions with varying degree of answers.

6.7.1 BTP/Practicum commentaries

Table 6.32 summarizes the emerging themes from Item 17 that require the information on the improvement of the BTP, a supervised Teaching Practice element, where teachers are scored on their performance and receive post-teaching evaluation. A number of themes emerged from the PTE group. As illustrated, the most frequent themes mentioned were Quality Supervision (100%), relevant subject teachers as supervisors (100%), limited English of students they have to teach (in schools) (100%), and meaningful feedback (100%). Another 92.5% were opportunity to use school (national) curriculum/syllabus prior to BTP, English (language) support (87.5%), academic support (82.5%), and quality teaching (67.5%). A further analysis of the data indicates that as other school issues such as class size and resources (77.5%), effective practice initiatives (57.5%), a balance between course contents and methods (teaching), and English skills (52.5%), enough practice at university before the real BTP (50%), relevance and applicability of the contents (50%). Specific skills such as working with challenges (47.5%), confidence in teaching (40%), and confidence in using English (fluently) to teach (25%) were expected to a lesser extent.
Table 6:32
Classification of Comments Regarding the BTP /Practicum

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item 17</th>
<th>Count(s)</th>
<th>Ranking</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Block Teaching Practice (BTP) or Practicum</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quality Supervision</td>
<td>40 (100%)</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relevant subject teachers as supervisors</td>
<td>40 (100%)</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Limited English of students they have to teach (in schools)</td>
<td>40 (100%)</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Meaningful Feedback</td>
<td>40 (100%)</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Opportunity to use school Curriculum/syllabus prior to BTP</td>
<td>37 (92.5%)</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English (language) support</td>
<td>35 (87.5%)</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Academic support</td>
<td>33 (82.5%)</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quality teaching</td>
<td>27 (67.5%)</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other school issues (number of students, lack of print materials and</td>
<td>31 (77.5%)</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>other resources )</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Effective Practices</td>
<td>23 (57.5%)</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A balance between course contents and methods (teaching), and English</td>
<td>21 (52.5%)</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>skills</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enough practice at university before real BTP</td>
<td>20 (50%)</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relevance and applicability of the contents (topics learnt not relevant,</td>
<td>20 (50%)</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>inability to neutralize content learnt at university to students level)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Specific skills such as working with challenges</td>
<td>17 (47.5%)</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Confidence in teaching</td>
<td>16 (40%)</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Confidence in using English (fluently ) to teach</td>
<td>10 (25%)</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Multiple responses question

Overall, the PTE report that the practicum is the most important component in their initial teacher training (see Blunden, 2000).

6.7.2 PTE General views on ELTE programme at university

Table 6.33 summarizes the emerging themes from Item 18, 19 and 20, which inquire about: What is particularly helpful in your language lecturers /lessons? What are the things that you really like about English lessons/classes in your university? and What are the things that you do not like about English lesson/classes in your university.
### 6.7.2.1 Helpful

As illustrated in Table 6.33, a number of themes emerged from Item 18. Most frequently mentioned were approachable lecturers (50%) and motivating students (17.5%). Language support (12.5%), and lecture high expectations (10%) were also identified as a helpful item in ELTE programme.

#### Table 6.33
Perceived Useful Aspects of the ELTE Programme

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item 18</th>
<th>Count(s)</th>
<th>Ranking</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Helpful items in ELTE at university</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Approachable lecturers</td>
<td>20 (50%)</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Motivating students</td>
<td>7 (17.5%)</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Language support from lecturers</td>
<td>5 (12.5%)</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lecturers’ high expectations of their students</td>
<td>4 (10%)</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>General</td>
<td>2 (5%)</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not relevant to question</td>
<td>2(5%)</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Multiple response questions

### 6.7.2.2 Preferences

A number of themes emerged from Item 19. Most frequently mentioned were strengthening English policy to improve English, supporting learners with limited proficiency (52.5%), and positive professional relationship with students (20%). About 5% of PTE prefer sharing information, availability of opportunities, resources, wider options and assistance with education concerns in ELTE programme. Good marks were the least identified item in ELTE programme as identified in Table 6.34.

#### Table 6.34
Perceived Likes and Preferences of the ELTE Programme

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item 19</th>
<th>Counts</th>
<th>Ranking</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Likes and Preferences in ELTE programme at university</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strengthening the “English only” policy to improve English proficiency, and supporting students with English language barrier</td>
<td>21(52.5%)</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Positive professional relationships between lecturers and students 8(20%) 2
Sharing information/knowledge about teaching in an informal environment or relaxed context 2(5%) 3
Opportunity to practice and reflect about what is learnt 2(5%) 3
Wide options to choose courses 2(5%) 3
Language resources that may assist learning and teaching(e.g. technology) 2(5%) 3
Assistance with education concerns including English language barrier 2(5%) 3
Good marks and variety of interesting assignments to motivate students 1(2.5%) 4

*Multiple response question

6.7.2.3 Dislikes

A number of themes emerged from Item 20. Most frequently mentioned were fear, tensions and hostile teaching-learning environment in ELTE in the programme. PTE reported to dislike some courses like applied linguistics and historical linguistics. Limited proficiency and its related problems were also mentioned. PTE dislike the limitations in resources, lack of support, students-teachers relationship, context of teaching and learning, ‘un-Islamic’ teaching methods as illustrated in Table 6:35.
Table 6.35
Perceived Negative Aspects of the ELTE programme

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item 20</th>
<th>Count(s)</th>
<th>Ranking</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Dislikes and other negative aspects</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fear, tensions and hostile teaching and</td>
<td>23 (57.5%)</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>learning environment</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Applied Linguistics, and Historical</td>
<td>22 (55%)</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>linguistics</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Un-Islamic teaching and learning methods</td>
<td>20 (50%)</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Negative perceptions about English abilities</td>
<td>17 (42.5%)</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>and skills</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of resources, opportunities and</td>
<td>15 (37.5%)</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Support</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assessments, relevance of the programme</td>
<td>4 (10%)</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>contents, and the real context of schools</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The need for improvement</td>
<td>2 (5%)</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not relevant to the question</td>
<td>1 (5%)</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Multiple response question

6.7.2.4 Overall summary

The data suggests that PTE desire the ELTE programme to be centered on positive professional relationship, fear and tension-free context, skills development, academic support, quality teaching, resources, quality of assessments, relevant course content, English language support and opportunity to practice essential skills.

6.7.3 Overall rating of the effectiveness of ELT programme and reasoning

Item 27 and 28 probe further on the view of ELTE programme at university. Item 27 was discussed in detail in the previous section (See Table 6.31). Item 28 was extended to reveal the major reasons given by PTE respondents. Table 6.36 illustrates the major themes as shown below:
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>n=40</th>
<th>Not at all effective</th>
<th>Somewhat effective 26 (65%)</th>
<th>Effective 11(27.5%)</th>
<th>Very Effective 3 (7.5%)</th>
<th>I don’t know</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>No comments</td>
<td>Little Exposure to English, and English barriers (5)</td>
<td>Quality training and professional practice (4)</td>
<td>Quality teaching (2)</td>
<td>No comments</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inability/slow to read textbooks due to poor English (5)</td>
<td>Some Help with English (3)</td>
<td>Some opportunity to use technology (1)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Meaningless assignments</td>
<td>Allowed the opportunities to mix languages in lessons (2)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Useless contents (such as Useless contents in Applied linguistic, historical linguistic, and some theories of languages) (4)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Boring lessons and lecturers (3)</td>
<td>Supervised Teaching Practice (2)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hostile teaching and learning contexts (3)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Minimal feedbacks which are helpful or no feedback at all (2)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Little time to practice/reflect (1)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feedbacks focused on English than contents (1)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Initial expectations and dreams were not met (1)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No supporting materials and notes from lecturers (1)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Multiple responses question*
The PTE (65%) who perceive the ELTE programme was somewhat effective cite language barrier, teaching methods, support, expectation and motivation as the main factor. The 27.5% reported the programme to be effective mentioned quality training, language aspect, and supervised BTP. A further 7.5% PTE respondents perceived that the programme was very effective. Most frequently, mention in this case were quality teacher training and technology. Overall, the majority (65%) report that the ELTE programme is somewhat effective.

### 6.7.4 The need to improve the ELTE programme

Item 29 related to the recommendations to improve ELTE programme from the perspective of PTE. The themes are presented in Table 6.35. Over half of the respondents (62.5%) made general comments on the need to have English language support. Further comments were made on relevance of the contents and ELT methods (15%), quality outcome (10%), resources and opportunity availability (7.5%), and academic support (5%).

Table 6.37
Recommendations to Improve the Quality of ELT Programme

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item 29</th>
<th>Count(s)</th>
<th>Ranking</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The need for improvement of ELTE programme</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More help or support with English (native speakers as teachers to learn proper standard English)</td>
<td>25 (62.5%)</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relevance of the contents and ELT methods</td>
<td>6 (15%)</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quality outcome</td>
<td>4 (10%)</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Resource and opportunity availability</td>
<td>3 (7.5%)</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Academic support with language use (English)</td>
<td>2 (5%)</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
6.7.5 Views of PTE about the provision of ELT at university

Item 30 and 31 identify the strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats to present an overall picture of the ELTE program. Almost all PTE (n=40) provided explanation of issues and concerns about ELT at university level. A number of issues emerged from the PTE responses. The themes focused on teaching and learning, perception of English and the programme.

6.7.5.1 Drivers

The results of the study revealed a number of key drivers that enhance ELTE programme at university level. The major drivers identified were personal attachment to English, strong desire to learn and master English, the existence of policies that support language education and opportunities for improving ELT teaching practices.

6.7.5.1.1 Teaching and learning

All PTE (n=40) reported to have a strong desire to learn to teach English, and master the English language. The desire and passion to teach/learn English was contributed by a number of issues: internal drive, social, personal and professional demands to teach English. The desire to teach English also emerged from three sources of pressures: first, the subtle pressure from colonial past, second, the visible locally generated pressure, external pressures and global influences and the last is the on-going pressures that allow participants to long for better life and opportunities. PTE also perceived that they could be good teachers by improving their ‘Englishes’.

6.7.5.1.2 Perception of English

The analysis of data reveals that individual learners were confident about their English language. PTE data have given the highest priority to English as well as they were positive about having native speakers as teachers. This demonstrated the PTE were
enthusiastic about English, but it was not clear from the data if they had the same enthusiasm with teaching. This highlights the need to do follow up on this matter.

6.7.5.1.3 Programme

Most PTE agree that the rewards for English, and the ELTE programme played itself played a certain role in improving the level of their own English, and it motivates the PTE to take the subject despite the difficulties it poses in learning their subjects.

6.7.5.2 Inhibitors

The results revealed a number of inhibitors that limits or act as a barrier to ELTE programme such as limited English proficiencies and poor English language abilities, lost opportunities, lack of resources, support, hostile teaching and learning environment, frustration, fear, less confidence, low reading culture due to limited English abilities and limited technology to mention few.

6.7.5.2.1 Teaching and learning

In general, PTE data reveal that they were positive about the programme contents however, they were negative about some aspects of the programme such as teaching (boring) personnel, lack of feedback from practicum/BTP, irrelevance of some course contents in subject such as Applied Linguistics and Historical Linguistics. The negative and positive aspect reinforce the need for more research in initial teacher education to assess their needs, and need to link the course contents and the contexts of school or other teacher domains.

6.7.5.2.2 Perception of English

The PTE responses about English abilities and proficiency were not consistent and did not match with other findings. This suggests that there is a need to improve the English proficiency among PTE. English proficiency is considered the most important
aspect for ELT teachers, but it is not the only aspect that makes good teachers of English. Other aspects like resources, quality teaching, support, opportunities need to be considered. This might also indicate that PTE believe that being taught by native speakers may produce good results.

6.7.5.2.3 Programme

Most PTE (90%) were of the view that they can recommend ELTE programme to other people as illustrated in Table 6.28, as well as majority felt well prepared over proficiency of English. On the contrary, when PTE were invited to respond to other aspects of their ELTE programme, PTE comments were mainly portrayed negative images of the programme in particular the fear pedagogy. It should be noted however, this might not be a reflection of poor teaching, but it might be the anxiety of learning a foreign language on the part of PTE.

6.7.5.3 Opportunities

The results of the study revealed a number of opportunities of ELTE programme at university level. The opportunities identified are related to teaching and learning, level of English, policy, and programme

6.7.5.3.1 Teaching and learning

Despite the negative perceptions, the majority of PTE were positive about the ELTE programme, and in particular the improvement of the level of their English.

6.7.5.3.2 Perception of English

The majority of PTE believed that it is English which attracts them to join the teaching. The love for English may generate more interests in improving the level of English, and might also improve the preparation of teachers of English.
6.7.5.3.3 Programme

The PTE data highlights a number of important issues that the ELTE programme might consider addressing in order to adequately prepare good teachers of English. Most PTE perceived an opportunity to improve the English levels, and be good English teachers. Since PTE pay less attention on teaching the language than improving their own English language ability, there is an opportunity to prepare effective teachers of English if emphasis will be place on teaching and English. Perhaps, this needs to be addressed in choosing a career.

6.7.5.4 Threats

The results of the study revealed a number of threats of ELTE programme at university. The threats identified are related to teaching and learning, poor level of English, policy, programme, and opportunity to do projects related to ELT and teacher education, preparation and development in Zanzibar.

6.7.5.4.1 Teaching and learning

The cause of great concern from PTE data was aspect about teaching English was not mentioned by participants. The only aspect that was mentioned very often was English, self-perception about English language ability and the language ideology that guide this perception.

6.7.5.4.2 Perception of English

The findings suggest that English proficiency is most valued among PTE followed by language skills and then content knowledge. Participants low rating on certain items or over mentioning certain aspects in the training: bulky contents, fear, boring teachers, irrelevant contents, inability to comprehend about the importance of some course content, confidence in teaching English, assessment, the belief that native-speakers are better teachers, tensions and indecisiveness in rating the ability of their
own English, technology, dissatisfaction with the practicum, reflect the current structure and design of the ELTE programme in Zanzibar. More research are therefore needed to redesign ELTE programme

6.7.5.4.3 Programme

The ELTE programme was perceived to be an English improvement programme rather than a programme that prepare teacher of English to be effective teachers. On the other hand, PTE views the aspects of teaching as loaded and heavy, but the preparation to master the language i.e. all four English skills and improve proficiency is viewed as being not very practical. The pressure to use English without enough support, resources and proper opportunities may be contributing to some tensions and ambivalence among PTE.

6.7.5.5 Overall summary

Overall, there were negative and positive perceptions regarding the ELTE programme. The PTE comments, concerns and issues raised show that ELTE programme at university level have both drivers and inhibiting effects. In general, the data presented reveals that ELTE programme is characterized by more weaknesses than strengths. As illustrated earlier, the PTE descriptions of ELTE at university was very contradictory in many aspects in particular their self-perception about English language ability.

On the other hand, it was not clear if the love and passion for English was equally the same with the love and passion for teaching. In addition to that, they felt that they have enough English to survive in the ELT programme, and at the same time, they report struggling with the language, which contribute to their performance and understanding of ELTE practices. On the other hand, PTE respondents express clearly
the desire for English, something which drive them to choose English as a teaching subject, however it was not clear if they have the same passion for teaching or not.

6.8 SUMMARY OF THE KEY FINDINGS: PTE

In this chapter, I have presented an overall picture of the results collected from Phase 1 of this study. Phase 1 involved data collected from core participants, PTE group. The data collected from self-designed questionnaire consisted of closed and open-ended questionnaire. Out of the 62 active PTE enrolled in English courses at the university, 40 completed questionnaires were received from PTE group. The study sample comprised of 40 students (17 males and 23 females) in their third year (finalists) aged from 19s to 40s, taking Bachelor of Arts with Education (Bachelor of Arts with Education) degree majoring in two teaching subjects of their choices.

All 40 students were taking English as a core teaching subject, and each participant specializes in one of these subjects: Geography, History, Kiswahili, or Arabic. About three-quarter of the participants were taking Kiswahili and Arabic as a teaching subject. The PTE working experiences range from novice (fresh from high school) with no career, experienced teachers with a variety of teaching experience (from one to fourteen years of experience), and career with non-teaching experience. Those with teaching background had acquired their experience from various level of teaching in (primary to lower-secondary schools). Before joining the university, all participants have been exposed to English at various levels of education (primary and secondary in privately and government owned. For those who had diploma and certificates in teaching had been exposed to extra English while studying at colleges of education. All PTE were over the age of 18 and were defined as adult learners of English.

The first level of analysis of PTE data addressed the main research question: “What are the main strengths and limitations of English language teacher education
(ELTE) at university level in Zanzibar? is summarized below. The responses from completed questionnaire identify the strengths and weaknesses of ELTE at university level.

### 6.8.1 Main strengths

The study identified ELTE strengths from the perspectives of PTE. The following paragraphs present the strengths, which were evident in the analysis, and the overarching drivers, which are consistently emerging in a number of ways. The study identified a number of strengths drivers in the ELTE programme at university level. The drivers were perceived to have positive impact on teaching and learning at university. Although to some extent, it was not certain that the teaching is effective and meaningful. The PTE indicated that they are willing to learn English, and they have the strong desire to master the language at any cost. The main concerns that emerge from the responses of PTE were English than teaching. Although the research was about ELTE programme, the data suggests that the PTE were giving much weight on mastering the English. The data clearly indicated the mindsets of most PTE was on ‘English only’, the focus was the more they master English, the greater the possibilities of them getting the opportunities that are tagged with English such as further studies, career development and advancement, and other opportunities. Most PTE chose to take English as a teaching subject because they believed being in ELTE programme at university might help them to improve their own English. Most PTE spoke about having ‘English only’ policy as a solution to save them from ‘poor and broken’ English.

### 6.8.2 Main limitations

The study identified ELTE weaknesses from the perspective of PTE. The following paragraphs present the weaknesses, which were evident in the analysis, and were consistently emerging, in a number of ways. The study identified a number of
weaknesses in the ELTE programme at university level. The inhibitors were perceived to have negative impact on effective teaching and meaningful learning. The data also reveals that due to a number of negative impacts, ELTE programme at university is driven by experiences of tensions in practice, anxiety, deficit thinking and models, negative attitudes and negative images and experiences seem to have powerful influential factors in how ELT is practiced. The overarching limitations that became evident in the analysis were:

First, PTE believed that English is made to be a difficult subject. According to PTE responses, the significant factors that make English difficult are teachers’ techniques and approaches, teaching methods, comments and feedbacks, lectures’ low expectations, fear pedagogy, hostile teaching and learning environment, boring and inapplicable courses contents and units such as Applied Linguistic and Historical linguistics, types of lecturers and types of assessments.

Second, some PTE reported that they were not motivated to be teachers, and have no plan to stay in teaching for a long time. Many suggested that if better opportunities presented themselves later in life, they would take the opportunities and leave teaching career.

Third, on one hand, the PTE self-evaluated themselves as English-able but at the same time, they describe themselves as having limited English, which causes unexplained fear, and make them less confident when it comes to their own English competence.

Similarly, some PTE reported that their academic literacy is weak because of language barrier and lack of support from the university, while some were very conscious about their inability to speak English. On the other hand, prospective teachers believed that lack of opportunities in ELT contributes to their ignorance, inability to
speak English, proficiency illiteracy, academic achievement and confidence. Some PTE view their ELTE programme as a clumsy tool but which is still important and needed (i.e. issues of prestige sand image are still alive). Also almost all PTE were not convinced that their LI in education is necessary. Most of the PTE seems to be not well informed when it comes to language issues or language reforms. There is a lack of awareness in language issues that emerge while at university and what happen in schools. In addition, most PTE mentioned that classroom activities, methods and approaches, delivery, learning and teaching infrastructure, study workload, lack of practice as major concern. Their responses were closely associated with expression of conflicting attitudes, contradictions and conflicts in ELT classroom, which in turn ignore the learners’ needs. Most PTE express that they do not get the opportunity to fully explore the pedagogic potential of ICT in teaching and learning English.

6.8.3 Impact theme

In this chapter, I have shown that the key emerging themes from the main strengths and limitations in ELTE programme warrant further investigation to find out how these strengths and weaknesses have impact on English practices in Zanzibar. I therefore set to extend Phase 1, by the identifying the other key stakeholders in the field of ELT so that I can explore the key theme “impact”. The nature, context of teacher educators and themes that were discussed in this chapter guided the framing of further investigation in the extension phase of this research as shown in Chapter 7.

6.9 CHAPTER SUMMARY

In this chapter, I have presented details of the prospective teachers’ questionnaire data obtained from the first phase of this research. I conducted this phase to identify strengths and weaknesses of ELTE at university level. I have given details of participants’ responses to show how I identified drivers and inhibitors in qualitative
terms and quantify responses where viable only. The next section brings together the overall analysis of Chapter 5 and 6.

6.10 SYNTHESIS OF CHAPTER 5 AND 6

The research question addressed in Chapter 5 and Chapter 6 is: ‘What are the strengths and weaknesses of ELTE programme at university level in postcolonial language? The results in Chapter 6 should be viewed in conjunction with Chapter 5. I build on the findings of Chapter 5 and 6 in order to explore the issues that have emerged in this study. Phase 1 of this study dealt with the existence of strengths and weaknesses of ELTE programme and its sources. With reference to Chapter 5 and Chapter 6, I have presented the findings drawn from the questionnaire data obtained from teacher educators and PTE in Phase 1. This phase identify strengths and weaknesses of ELTE at university level. I have display details of the strengths and weaknesses from the perspective of teacher educators and PTE in qualitative terms. The analysis of the questionnaire data revealed that ELTE programme has many more weaknesses than strengths. The findings of the initial analysis highlighted the need for more in-depth research. The analysis provided the basis on which to undertake Level 2 analysis.

The Level 2 analysis refined the categories from the Level 1 and identified properties and dimensions of these categories (duration, intensity, frequency, affect, impact, timing, and importance). In Level 2 analysis, the researcher worked to identify more general and abstract categories identified in Level 1. The significant confusion that characterized this level has been identified as ‘a healthy state for a grounded theorist’ (Scott, 2009). At this level, strengths and weaknesses identified in Phase 1, for both teacher educators and PTE group were organized into five substantive (core) themes. The core themes were found to emerge different level and from a number of sources as shown in Table 6.38.
Table 6.38
Levels and Sources of Strengths and Weaknesses in ELTE Programme.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Levels</th>
<th>Source(s)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Individual level</td>
<td>Personal beliefs /individual factors</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Programme level</td>
<td>Teacher education programme impact</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Institutional level</td>
<td>Context</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Policy level</td>
<td>Policy decisions and national policies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Local /Community level</td>
<td>Attitudes, beliefs and preference</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Within all the levels of analysis, the common theme from the strengths-weaknesses framework was ‘English’. Positive views and negative views were used to describe the strengths and weaknesses of ELTE programme. The importance of English proficiency, English abilities, self-perceptions of English use, and the ideology that guide the English use dominated the ELTE programme. The analysis appeared to show that strengths-weaknesses framework of ELTE programme has impact on ELT practices. Preliminary conclusion drawn from this analysis forms that the ELTE programme is viewed as an English improvement programme than a programme that prepare effective teachers of English. Consequently, the impact theme is further explored in extension phase. The findings enabled me to identify key informants and guided the framing of the extension phase. In the next chapter, I present the result of extended phase in order to peg down the impacts of strengths-weaknesses framework on ELT practices.
CHAPTER 7
EXTENDED PHASE: UNPACKING IMPACT THEME

7.0 INTRODUCTION

In the previous chapter, I presented and analysed the data obtained from the first phase of this research which guided me in identifying key informants among ELT stakeholders. This chapter pegs on the strengths and weaknesses of ELTE programme identified in Phase 1 by focusing on the impact on ELT practices in postcolonial Zanzibar. The chapter presents the results of the extended phase thematically, where only significant examples from participants are presented to represent the themes. The presentation from the extended phase represents the views of all key ELT stakeholders in Zanzibar, within and outside the university. The results presented in this chapter form the basis of the discussion in Chapter 8 and subsequent conclusions and recommendations in Chapter 9.

7.1 QUALITATIVE DATA FROM ELT STAKEHOLDERS

To verify the accuracy of the analysis, triangulation of the data included the comparison of different data sources (initial interviews, focus group discussion, observations, language-learning biographies, which record thought and reflect on language learning experiences, field notes, and follow-up interviews to verify themes across all sources (Guba & Lincoln, 1981). The content of each of the data sources were analyzed for each case individually and then categorized by themes (Table 7.1).

This qualitative study produced a vast amount of information for each participants and theme. The responses were analysed thematically, based on the similarity and the contrast principle (Spradley, 1979), where a list of categories was generated, forming a
coding frame. Due to the nature of this report the items that most strongly supported the themes were presented identifying the participants such as teacher educators, PTE, graduates, university officials, and ministry officials, foreign and local informed experts using participants’ codes and the data sources where necessary as illustrated in Table 7.1.

Table 7.1
Chain of Evidence Matrix showing major themes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Overall Themes:</th>
<th>KEY ELT STAKEHOLDERS AND DATA SOURCES</th>
<th>ARTIFACTS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Participants Codes</td>
<td>ELT Practitioners</td>
<td>Officials</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Motivation</td>
<td>L</td>
<td>PTE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FGD</td>
<td>B</td>
<td>FN</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Approaches</td>
<td>I</td>
<td>FGD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>FN</td>
<td>I</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Model</td>
<td>I</td>
<td>FGD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Outcomes</td>
<td>I</td>
<td>FGD</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

General Observation(GO)

KEY:

I = Interview; FGD = Focus Group Discussion; O = Observation
B= Biography; A= Artifacts; FN = Field Notes

An assessment of all data sources explore the ways ‘being and becoming a teacher of English’ was conceptualized as ‘safari’. The overall theme identified four substantive themes as illustrated in Table 7.1, which guide the presentation of the results. The chapter explores four aspects of the ‘safari’ taken by Zanzibari teachers as part of the process of being and becoming teachers of English. These are: motivation (the reasons for the safari);
the model (the map or architecture of the safari); approaches and techniques (the preparation for the safari); and finally the outcomes (the experiences of the safari). As mentioned earlier in this chapter, all the data sources provided the researcher with the opportunity to get further in-depth information on the impact theme. Each theme describe the resulting dilemmas and tensions that characterized the process of ‘being and becoming’ a teacher of English. For brevity, excerpts and vignettes are presented to represent the positive and negative impacts.

7.2 ‘ON BEING AND BECOMING’ A TEACHER OF ENGLISH

In the present work, the metaphor safari emerged in many forms: similes, words, phrases, maxims, photos and proverbs (see Chapter 4). A metaphor ‘safari’ has become the umbrella term to explore the journey travelled by teachers of English in Zanzibar because the word ‘safari’ has been used in numerous ways within this research. The etymology of the word ‘safari’ has been thoroughly explained in Chapter 1, and it is one of the few words in my language that has made its way into English, although its real meaning has been lost in translation. In the process of recording and analyzing core participants data (i.e. teacher educators, PTE and graduates), I found striking similarities and differences between the core participants and other key ELT stakeholders. To clarify the understanding of the safari metaphor, participants illustrates how ‘being and becoming a teacher of English’ is related to the metaphor of ‘safari’.

7.2.1 Teaching English as ‘safari’ (journey)

All participants used a number of conceptual metaphors to describe the process of ‘being and becoming’ teacher of English in university and school contexts in postcolonial
Zanzibar. The first theme identified from this analysis was that of ‘safari’, ‘Being and becoming’ a teacher of English’ was perceived as *safari, a long safari, a journey, trip, voyage and an exploration.*

Some described the process more symbolically as ‘*safari iliyokwenda skuli*’ [a trip that has gone to school*77*], while some participants describe the process as being similar to the ‘*The Seven Voyages of Sinbad the Sailor*’*78*.

Most ELT stakeholders perceived teaching as *safari*. Some ELT stakeholders elaborated on the concept of ‘*safari*’. Most ELT stakeholders’ perceptions on ‘*safari*’ were not aligned with teachers’ perception of safari. They were of the view that the existence of the programme was the first key important step than dealing with the *safari* deficit.

Examples of comments are:

…*Safari ni hatua* [A journey is a series of steps)... [M4]

…*msafiri ni aliye pwani* [The traveller is the one who is on the shore ... [M7]

### 7.2.2 Teachers of English as ‘*wasafiri*  *(travelers)*

Most participants perceived teachers of English as explorers. The word ‘*wasafiri*’ (travelers) was a common underlying theme in the responses. The common themes from the responses were:

…*whether it happens in school or university, teaching is teaching ...we are in the same boat ...* [L1]

*77* It refers to something of high standard.

*78* The voyages of Sindbad the Sailor, an old storybook contains the stories of seven voyages.
...Teaching in any form [a teacher or a teacher educator...use any name teacher, lecturer, tutor...teaching English is a voyage...and the teachers of English are travellers ... [L3]

... it is the same journey...teaching in school or teaching at university...we do the same job ...sote ni wasafiri [we are all travellers]...[L6]

7.2.3 Teacher education as usafiri (journeying)

The teacher education was considered important to the safari teachers of English. Comments about teacher education tended to be negative and positive, and words and phrases such as ‘usafiri’ (journeying), ‘chombo’ (vessel); and boat were evident as expressed by teacher educators:

…it is interesting when we are in the boat ready to travel...for example some sit on first, second, third or economy class or the commonly in Zanzibar the deck...Well! While on the trip we receive distinguished services...when disaster strike ... in the same boat [L5]

7.2.4 ‘On being a teacher educator and a teacher’ as two safari

One important common ground shared by all core participants in this study was being teachers of English. The difference lies in entry point into the profession: initial teacher education as (PTE), teachers of teachers as (teacher educators), and school teaching as (graduates in their early years).

Participants’ opinion varied widely on the process of being and becoming teachers of English. As a result, the number of themes emerged from core participants and ELT stakeholders’ data reveals different perceptions of teaching and learning in school and university.
In general, the processes of ‘being and becoming a teacher’ and ‘being and becoming a teacher educator’ were markedly identified. Words and phrases such as two journeys, different journeys were evident to distinguish the status of being a teacher and being a teacher educator.

... It is not the same journey ... captains of two different boats ......these are two journeys...

[L2]

...there is a difference between teaching in school, and teaching student teachers at university ... ...when I joined this university I went straight to the class ... all I know is here I am expected to lecture, conduct seminar presentation, do test, take home essay and time assignments, and university examinations... nobody taught me... I copied the routines from my lecturer and the university system... [L3]

...many assume teaching in school and teaching at university is the same ... even new teacher candidates... when they joined university they expect to be taught as they were in secondary school... something need to be done...[L4]

However, some participants were not aware of the differences between school teachers (first-order practitioners and practices) and teacher educators (second-order practitioners and practice). Words such as teachers, lecturers, tutor, instructors, teacher educators, student teachers in teacher education, students and teacher in schools were portrayed as synonym for teaching and learning regardless of the space or place.

Another issue that was evident was the descriptions of these two journeys. Some were of the opinion that the transition or moving from teaching in a school context to teaching in teacher education context (or university) is simple, while some were of the opinion that the transition is a complex process. Comments about the journeys while
moving from teacher to teacher education tended to be negative, rocky, nonentity. Phrases such as simple, normal, a growth and a ladder were used.

…I love my job...the boring part is my expectations are not met...I wanted to be a lecturer [teacher educator-my insertion for emphasis]...because of the status of being in higher institutions of learning...doing research and consultancy jobs...unfortunately, it seems the formulae is still the same...teaching ...teaching ...in school or at university to teach is given... [L 9]

Commonalities were also evident in the pathways of being and becoming a teacher. The important theme that emerge from the narratives of the participants was similarities in the experiences of teachers and teacher educators a journey associated with inner frustrations, challenges, conflicts, tensions, ambivalences and complexities. Phrases such as: problematic, lack of support, lack of resources, lack of opportunities, deficits in other areas such as classroom size, teaching practice, poor English ability among students, professional learning, mentoring, induction and frictions between administrators and academics.

7.2.5 Overall summary

As illustrated above, safari was a public and a personal phenomenon to core participants and ELT stakeholders. Most participants used the metaphor ‘safari’ as the most important theme to describe the process of being and becoming a teacher of English in postcolonial Zanzibar. Other conceptual metaphors were used to explore positive and negative perceptions and issues that surround ELT practices and describe the images of ‘safari’ in postcolonial Zanzibar.
7.3 CURRENT IMAGES OF SAFARI

A strong theme from the data collected from core participants and ELT providers have metaphorically described the ‘safari’. The safari was described in a cluster of metaphors of the ‘perilous journey on a stormy sea’. Core participants (teacher educators and PTE), and ELT stakeholders describe the safari to be rewarding but also very challenging in the context of Zanzibar.

Generally, most practitioners and ELT stakeholders perceived ‘being and becoming a teacher of English as

…ndoto…safari… [a dream]…

‘…ni kama nyimbo ya taifa ... ni maisha yetu kila siku’ [like a national anthem…is part of dailiness]

…we are not doing justice to the profession…English is not taught as it is supposed to …this is what teachers of English faced throughout their life …

…Which comes first? I think Zanzibar better start with teaching English first ,then using it as a medium of instruction should be a piece of cake…the reality is that we are turning blind eyes to realities…this is what to expect …when you choose to be a teacher of English

…mzizi wa tatizo tunaujua uduo uwahi umaji’ [We know the source of the problem …we have to use or work with the clay while it is still wet]…

... sometimes no real teaching is taking place...but no one is listening to teachers of English …student teachers join this university as fragile packages …they are very weak with language skills …listening , reading ,writing ,speaking ...

they say ‘Samaki mkunjie angali mbichi’ [Bend the fish while it is still fresh]...something need to be done in primary schools…those foundational years are not considered....teach English effectively…build language skills of both languages .Kiswahili and English
The university and the MoEVT know that this is not an easy journey, you reap what you sow or he who sows haphazardly, reaps haphazardly.... There are many challenges in the teaching journey... teaching is like a trip or safari, unfortunately this safari is not valued... it is taken at face value...

Specifically, individual participants perceived ‘being and becoming a teacher of English as:

...Teaching is a godforsaken profession in Zanzibar...we don’t want to admit that teaching English requires extra efforts... ‘tunabaki kuoneana haya’, [we end up playing leniency] or we remain on the sea or we throw ourselves at crossroads.[L4].

...Being a teacher... an English teacher is a long journey... in a long journey even a stick become heavy... hapa Zanzibar tunataka mambo hatuyawezi, na tuna muhali’ [In Zanzibar, we want some of the things but we can’t afford them, we have mercy and clemency][LIE 1]

...We start this safari wrongly... we don’t have good English teachers because we set our journey on somebody’s else donkey... at the end of the day we find the journey challenging... ‘ni mahna, zahma, mikiki, misukosuko, utata, na vishindo vingi ‘ [a lot of chaos, tensions, frustrations, confusions, ambivalences and ambiguities][L1]

...a voyage has adventures, fun side, trials and ordeal... imagine a teacher of English in Zanzibar under the band of heavy workload... ’[L2]

...I am still in my early years as teacher educator... based on my teachers’ experience, and so far this little experience I have... being a teacher of English in this context is as same as being in a rocky journey... [L3]

...Kuwa mwalimu Zanzibar si kibarua chepesi... sikhambii kuwa mwalimu wa kiingereza... ni safari ngumu... wazee wamesema “Msafiri Kafiri... [To be a teacher in Zanzibar is not an easy job... let alone being an English teacher... it is a hard job... older people say “A traveller is as bad as an unbeliever]...[G5]

79 The context was dilemma, tensions and ambivalence.

80 In this thesis, the unbeliever in relation to Islamic faith.
‘Hii ni kazi ya wito lakini ina mambo na vijambo, si safari nyepesi … [This job is a special calling, it has big issues and small issues in it …it is not an easy safari [G3]

‘…Ni safari ndefu, na kama ilivyo safari hutokea mambo yakuvutia, yakukirihisha, ya kushangaza, yenye kutia moyo na yenye kavunja moyo…” [It is a long journey, and like any journey there are good and bad things, adventures, surprises and gratification and disappointment … [LIE 1]

…as much as I want English, I am still far from the shore… [PTE 19].

‘I like English …I enjoyed to learn English …the problem is learning is not as easy as most of us think. For me, it is like going to Mecca to perform Hajj [Pilgrimage]. You need faith, plan, saving, matured mind, physical capability and financial stability to travel and perform the pilgrimage rites. … Most students take English lightly …like lelemama…In Zanzibar …..Being or becoming an English teacher requires patience [PTE 7]

…We are reminded by lecturers… English is not Lelemama’… so imagine being a teacher of English …is a rock and roll journey … [PTE 4]

..Being where I am … it took me almost my life time … it is like a very long trip … I started as an untrained teacher with O-level education…I attended some basic trainings then after sometime I did my certificate in teaching for two years …then I did my diploma for three years …then I did my first degree for 3 years… With all these years of training, it has been a troubled journey …English was my battle, and is still a battle [G10]

The metaphor ‘safari’ has been cited by other participants to show that the being and becoming a teacher of English could be both a positive as well as a negative experience in postcolonial Zanzibar. Below are the views of informed experts (local and foreigners)

…Kwa maoni yangu…kwa jinsi Kiingereza kinavyofundishwa sasa…vyuoni wala maskuli…tuna kazi kubwa mbele yetu …tuna safari ndefu sana …wakale wanesema…Safari ni hatua …tukilizingatia hili utajua kuwa safari ni safari …iwe ya nchi kavu, angani au ya bahrini…ukitumia chombo chochote …meli, gari, punda, ndege… safari zina mambo mengi…mazuri na mabaya…changamoto zinaweza kutokea…maamuzi ni ya msafiri ama kuendelea safari au kurudi…With English, do you think…kuna...
kurudi!...unimaginable...nini kifanyike?...nashauri vyuo vya ualimu lazima vifanye mapinduzi iwafundishe walimu chipukizi na wakongwe kuzikabili changamoto zote mbili...za kuwa mwali mu na kufundisha hicho Kizungu. Being a teacher is like being in a journey. We are in the island surrounded by sea; we know that travelling by sea can be dangerous, extra skills are needed... [LIE 1]

The literally English translation of the local informed expert is illustrated:

...In my view. the way we teach English now...in university or schools...there is much to be done...we have a long journey to make...the elders says...Safari is step...if we reflect on this...we will know that...a journey is a journey - be it on land, air or a sea safari...using whatever means...ship, car, donkey or a plane...journeys are full of adventure – good and bad...challenges may exists...the traveller have a choice to keep going or to turn back and return...With English, do you think...there is turning back point! Unimaginable...what can be done? I suggest teacher training institutions must do a revolution...train teachers (novice and experienced) to work with both challenges...to be a teacher and teaching English...

Everything in this world is a journey...Being a teacher is also like being in a journey... [LIE 3]

...honestly...no real teaching of English is happening in class...being a teacher of English in Zanzibar is like making a trip to the emperor to inform him that he has no clothes...you either survive or you head will be chopped off...really that need courage [ FIE 1]

Based on this description of ‘safari’ to be or become a teacher of English, a number of aspects have been identified in the safari. These are motivation, models, approaches and learning outcomes. The four themes that emerged build the images of the safari, which will then be used to explain their impact on the ELT practices.
7.3.1 Motivation: aspects of the safari

The positive and negative aspects of the safari emerged from the data collected from teachers of English and their students within the contexts of initial teacher education (ITE), and confirmed by ELT stakeholders. The participants describe the negative and positive aspects of the safari, and its impacts on ELT in postcolonial Zanzibar.

7.3.1.1 The positive aspects in the safari

7.3.1.1.1 Passion for English in the safari

Further to the notion of safari metaphor, and seeking to understand it from the perspectives of participants. I used participants’ phrases, words, and sentences to begin to understand the metaphor “safari” in teaching English. Most ELT practitioners interviewed were passionate about being teachers of English despite the challenges that they face on their daily practices of ELT. The teachers in this study used words such as love, passion, rewarding, and craving when describing their feeling towards being teachers of English.

7.3.1.1.2 The ‘bird in the hand’: personal attachment to English

Another emerging point was personal attachment to English. Despite the feeling of disappointment with the system and the challenges of ELT in their safari, the overwhelming majority of teachers of English, and ELT stakeholders indicated that they are closely attached to English. The ELT practitioners and stakeholders reported that:

\[ \text{We can’t afford to ignore English … [L2]} \]

\[ \text{What can you do without knowing English nowadays… [PTE 7]} \]

\[ \text{Without English, our students cannot compete in the world… [U4]} \]
...teachers and students are weak in English...there are number of challenges...some students are doing very well under the same system...that means at least something is happening in our education system...little.[M6]

...kukiwacha Kiingereza itakuwa kama tunarudi nyuma...[ignoring English will be like going backward...] [LIE 1]

...I understand people want English so much...I can see how much attached they are...but honestly nothing is happening in the classroom setting...the love for English create a sort of veil...illusion of learning a foreign language... [FIE 2]

The safari further demonstrates the process of being and becoming a teacher of English was strongly influenced by the desire to master English. The general positive attitude towards English, and the desire for English was validated in many ways by participants, and from many sources such as language policies in place, which reminds us that it is English- only in schools. Posters and school displays remind people to speak English, radio and television advertisements that use sarcasm about English Speaking Ability, the mushrooming of the International English Medium Schools and external and internal pressure to master English from the family, educational institutions, society and the quest to study abroad. Importantly, the curious bright minds of these young aspiring teachers are in a quest to master English at any cost, so that they can get more future opportunities in their future career.

In this part, I also used participants’ words to demonstrate and describe the strong desire for English. Despite the challenging English teaching and learning experiences, the participants identified themselves positively and emotionally with the English language. The participants ‘English-want’ was expressed very strongly in a number of ways:
Both teacher and students should strictly stick to English as the sole medium of instruction and a language of communication. At university level, we can shun Kiswahili at least while in class...teachers and their students should not be uncomfortable with English. If they are...then something is wrong with how English is taught... (L2)

I have been trained by a native speaker of English [name deleted], she was a British woman. She was very tough on us... and she made sure that we master English as British... (L5)

When I started my teaching career I worked with a native speaker... a British... she was in charge here. I spent the whole year observing her, until when she felt I was ready to go to the classroom on my own.... (L6)

Despite the daily challenges of using English and the little exposure to English, the PTE group was in favour English for a number of reasons:

- English only policy is important because there are not many opportunities to practice the English... it is like you were trained to be English teacher but deep down you don’t really feel confident...at the end of the course you get certificate but....most students have poor English... little improvement... there is too much pressure to pass, and complete assignments...or at least getting the ‘gentlemen grades (‘karai’)...you only want to survive... PTE 1)

- English is the most potent tool in my life right now. No matter what I need it for knowledge, job, status, educational opportunities – you name it. Without English...it is hard...it’s like a broken winged crow... actually joining the university has helped me to improve my English a bit, but there are times I feel my course has not prepared me well...(PTE 2).

81 Karai is a Kiswahili word for a large metal basin for deep frying food. In the context of this thesis ‘Karai’ represents ‘C’ grade.
...My English ability is a barrier to learn what I wish to learn. I understand more in Kiswahili but I prefer the lecturer to use English as a language of teaching because I have to improve my English. Without English, the future is going to be uncertain...it's a battle... (PTE 4).

...Before coming to university, I was a science teacher. When I applied to join the university, I decided to drop my science subjects and take English as one of my teaching subject...not because science is not important. Teaching science is a saleable commodity, but now “Kiingereza kimeshika hatamu” [English has a martingale and is on the lead]....As far as I am concerned, I want English in the palm of my hand, because in the past I struggled to understand what I was taught because of English. I guess I was never a good science teacher because the teaching methods I learnt were not helpful without a proper knowledge. With English in my hand nothing will stop me from being a good teacher, but as much as I want English, I am still far to the shore... (PTE 19).

Since I started learning and teaching English...my battle remains the same - ENGLISH...ni wimbo wa taifa [it is a national anthem]...hiki ni kilio cha wengi [this is a mass cry]...(PTE 7)

On the other hand, almost all ELT practitioners express the view that English is the important “tool” in today’s world and their everyday life, which increased the demand to learn it and to teach it. Views expressed by all participants reveal the central theme underlying the responses of most participants seemed to be strongly influenced by the desire to choose, improve and master English. Participants express the view that at some knowledge of English is necessary to get ahead in life. It brings high status to the individual socially, as well as extending job opportunities. They give an example, like a graduate of English language can easily obtain jobs in tourism, open private tuitions, get jobs in private

82 The word ‘Hatamu’ is a Kiswahili word literally ‘a strap’ such as the horse's harness or coat straps
83 My insertion – literal translation
84 My insertion – literal translation
companies and gain respect from peers and other members of the community by virtue of their knowledge of English, and not by teaching skills or knowledge.

7.3.1.1.3 A sense of personal growth along safari

It is clear from all the sources of data collected the teachers of English, and ELT stakeholders wanted to make ELT meaningful for teachers’ candidates.

I love the fact that I joined university with ‘poor’ English, but my English has improved … [PTE 6]

This job is hard …teaching these student teachers with ‘poor…broken’… rotten English …but what is rewarding is the experience of helping these aspiring teachers to achieve their goals… from the religious perspectives…at least I help people achieve their dreams[L3]

So far, so good …in any institutions …the challenges are not going away…I like the fact that it is almost going to be ten years since this university was established …and we have achieved the best …our students have joined big universities in the world …the best is yet to come..[U1]

I absolutely love to support English teachers …the support we give teachers is too little compared to their needs, and we expect them to deliver more than what we offer… [M4]

7.3.1.1.4 Perceptions of professional identity

Most participants tend to think of their professional identity in many ways. When describing their identity, they viewed ‘teachers of English’, ‘teaching English’, being and ‘becoming a teacher of English’, and the ‘English teacher education’ as ‘kipusa’ [valuable] in a unique way. Most participants did not only focus on the educational side, but also other areas of life.

…as an English teacher …it is important for my personal and professional life [L4]
...I enjoy seeing myself supporting learners with little English...to make them skillful and competent teachers... [L3]

...being an English teacher is a life-time opportunity...confidence, respect, promotion, good life, and study opportunities...like a saving account... [PTE 5]

...I provide an important outlet to succeed... [G17]

...Although I work in the ministry, I have been an English teacher before...I never ceased to see myself in their shoes... [M3]

7.3.1.2 The negative aspects in the safari

7.3.1.2.1 Safari without destination

The phrase is also used metaphorically by Swahili speakers to describe safari that leads to nowhere or the safari that never arrives at any destination which satisfies teachers of English and their students. It is also referred to as an impasse or the attitude of being in the journey while being fully-aware of the dangers ahead and yet continues with the journey, relying on mere luck to arrive safely or the hope that the commuters may obtain the treasure on the journey. All in all, the metaphor ‘safari’ is also reported in a number of contexts:

...We are doing our best when it comes to English...we are trying to invest what we have, and we have asked all potential donors to help us with books, teaching resource, teachers, and anything that might help improve English...unfortunately we don’t get the results we want...its always like a trip to nowhere!!...Where do we go wrong? I believe you are in a good position to tell us... [M 6]

...I understand the need to teach English in Zanzibar...but what I have seen in most school...no real teaching is happening...I think the Ministry of Education is not being honest and realistic...Take an example, if you have to go on a trip with family members...and you know it is not safe out there...will you put your family at risk...This is
the case in Zanzibar. Teachers and students are exposed to this big risk …that is the way I see it... [FIE 2]

…I don’t think there is any language teaching in schools in Zanzibar. Kids pick English by chance from textbooks …meaningful instruction is a problem…no scaffolding practices…it is a mystery to me why students have to learn all subjects in English…students are defeated because they are forced to use English, when they are not ready yet to do so, and their teachers are not competent too …I tell you if Zanzibar continue to teach English this way, they won’t get anywhere …believe me this is like embarking on a journey without knowing the destination... [FIE 1]

7.3.1.2.2  Safari in a scuttled ship

In the context of this research, the metaphor “scuttling” was also used by both core participants and ELT stakeholders to describe the context and experiences of teaching and learning English, the general working culture, attitudes toward challenges, and how the amalgamation of these factors, negatively affect the ELT in postcolonial Zanzibar. I built on the previous narrative of participants to show the connection between the words ‘safari’, ‘scuttling’ and ‘sinking’. The image of being and becoming a teacher was then created, crafted and reflected to describe the journey of teachers of English.

[Nalitote tugawane mbao]…literally as “let the ship scuttle so that we can divide the sunken wrecks of (ancient) wooden ship”[L1]

[...Jahazi inazama]…literally as ‘sinking dhow’ [L2]

The phrases conjure the metaphor of scuttling, which invoke the mental image of a sea journey in a ‘holed-boat’ or ‘sinking dhow’. The ‘safari in a scuttled ship or sinking dhow’ also revealed complex and extensive frustrations, conflicts and tensions in describing ELT and ELT practitioners.
7.3.1.2.3  Safari with excess baggage

The safari of teachers of English seems to be driven by external and internal pressure. Despite the unbalanced story of strengths and weaknesses of ELTE programme at university level, All ELT practitioners, and ELT stakeholders agreed that English is a ‘kipusa’ literally as a very important valuable toolbox}. The participants recount in different way how English still hold the status of ‘kipusa’ literally as ‘important toolbox’. The data also show that there is a heavy investment in, and insistence on English at different scales from programme, organizational, policy and community level.

On the face value, one may argue that the teaching of English in Zanzibar education system is seen as an advantage in the sense that English is a world language that facilitates communication with the outside world. However, building and maintaining this English supremacy has a cost, both direct and indirect. The costs associated with the importance of English bring to the surface the unbalanced scale as evidence from the data collected demonstrates. In the light of this, it is deducible that there are consequences of the unbalanced scale as far as ELT is concerned which will be discussed in Chapter 9.

From the data, it seems that being or becoming a teacher of English, ELT practitioners must possess tool than learning to use the tool in other words English is considered the most important tool to have while in the safari than the teaching knowledge, skills, dispositions, motivation and personal commitment to teaching.

7.3.1.2.4  Safari with apathy and hostility

Sometimes teachers of English were not identifying themselves as good teachers. Often times, they had mixed feelings about their contribution, because the community and administrators tend to see the ELT profession as important in ‘words’, but not in ‘action’.
They also express the view that most ELT stakeholders, and non-ELT tend to see their ELT teaching skills and practices as sub-standard, and of poor quality.

...everyone expects a lot from teachers...they want English to be taught well and effectively...but they do very little to support teachers... [L8]

We have input and output problem ...there is very little input...no enough support, no books...no opportunities ...no enough professional trainings...however the expectations does not match what is invested in English language teaching ... [L10]

...the teacher education programme does not prepare student teachers/graduates to in problematic contexts ...large class, assessment, literacy, balancing the use of L1 and L2... [L9]

7.3.1.3 ‘The lack of everything regime’ in the safari of teachers

7.3.1.3.1 Safari with resource challenges

Teaching large classes, inadequate provision of teaching and learning materials, the lack of investment in improving teaching and learning infrastructure were some of the major barriers to teacher motivations in ELT education. In a number of settings, teachers of English express how they were discouraged by a number of demands of large classes with limited English ability. They also express their opinion that the “lack of everything”, is a regime that challenge their everyday practices in teaching and learning ELT. They also reported that when the resources are available oftentimes the resources are either limited, or outdated, or not relevant for teaching at the level of university, or the English used would be complex for the Zanzibar students to understand. Most ELT practitioners were aware that most books or the limited resources available are either from abroad, especially prepared for native speakers of English, or for ESL learners, who are studying in a pure second language environment.
It is common in this country to hear...no money...no resources...no...no...what is interesting though...at times the university or even the Ministry holds big functions and spends lots of money on ‘stupid’ projects [Excuse my language]. Stupid in the sense that what are the priorities... [FIE]

basically...the lack of everything is the main challenge...both local resources, and resources from abroad... [L3]

the university teacher education programme does not prepare the student teachers to face the challenges...or to work with challenges... [L6]

Poor and inadequate support from university was a common theme. Norms and traditions within the university culture, and the context of teaching and learning environment in Zanzibar were cited as potential sources of inhibiting factors. The participants’ comments indicate a negative university culture existed, guided by what is considered the university norms. Some participants stated that:

But there are so many problems..... those which rules us...first and foremost the level of English of our students...this is the source of all evils .... The beginning of all the problems I mean... (L1)

we do what we have to do ...for example ...this university have so many administrators than academicians....the teaching camp is completely forgotten because these administrators have no experience working at university level... they run university as if it is a school...they don’t support us ...inadequate support [L2]

Our graduates and teachers-to-be ...are frustrated by limited supports...especially ongoing professional learning, training, English training... [L3]

Teaching English is challenging ... challenges are on top of us .... There is no culture to share ideas or engage in professional learning, there are very limited opportunities, no time to assess your own teaching... only experienced lecturers here will survive because of our teaching background and experiences... we use it to our advantage, but these fresh new
lecturers who just join the university based on their grades won’t last long in this profession (L5)

There are many challenges … but I believe there are no institutions with no challenges… now the big challenge is how to go around these challenges … the university has not given us this capability to do so… The university set ambitious goals … publish or perish, use English in lecture rooms, do research and consultations… the university has to build the capacity, give lecturers the tools to go around challenges then from there they can sit down and blame the lecturers that they don’t have the qualities to be lecturers [L6]

… In this university, it is a norm since we joined that teaching, assessments, and evaluations be completed on time… what matters most is working toward a deadline… with completed coursework… the key task to train teachers of English… is normally overlooked … and these learners normally have no English… no aspiration to become teachers… in a way, this affect the way you want to work… or the way you are prepared to work… [L8]

7.3.1.3.2 Safari with Poverty of Aspirations and Passion in Teaching

Another emerging point that demonstrates the process of being and becoming a teacher was the needs and aspirations to be teachers, which was impacted by the negative societal perceptions toward teaching profession.

Zein (PTE): male in his late 20s in his third year… He speaks Kiswahili and English. Direct from school with no teaching experience. Before joining university, he was a civil servant. He was an immigration officer when he joined B.A Education undergraduate programme. He commented… “I worked with immigration department. This course has nothing to do with my current job. I believe in double career especially English”. English is marketable now. I will be back to immigration department but I am saving my English studies for “a rainy day” “but in general, I don’t want to be a teacher. I better stay this way … one leg in, and one out … in teaching…

This is one example that shows individual aspirations and motivation to become teacher was very low among participants, despite the fact that most of these participants
had the strong desire to learn and master English as shown. The teaching passion was very weak.

… They say the best students normally become the best teachers … if Zanzibar wants to improve education, especially English teaching, university entry qualifications must go up, like other professions… [L5]

… The university politics in recruitment is a contributing factor for low aspirants candidates … admission process should be our focus… [L2]

… Teaching was the last thing on my mind… [PTE 8]

… When I graduate, I will not go into teaching. I already have a government job before joining the university… but my job has nothing to do with education. I only joined the university because… with my first degree, my salary will increase … I am not really interested in teaching … I will keep it as plan B in my life … or I will teach on my spare time to get extra income.. [PTE18]

I came to university because I need to rest from daily routine at work… a B.A with Education is my stepping stone to politics… most politicians in Tanzania started as teachers. I have no plans to stay in teaching… [PTE 20]

The data also reveals that the value prescribed to teaching was very low. General speaking, negative societal attitudes toward the teaching profession was clearly evident among participants:

… When I completed my B.A (Education), my wish was to get a another job … not teaching … unfortunately, it was not easy to get other jobs, some jobs, you need a godfather … so I came back to the teaching job … it is not bad as I initially thought … but I am not expecting exciting life if I remain in teaching… the only way out is to take my Masters in public policy or educational administration… you have to be clever though … if you want to change profession sometimes the Ministry of Education (employer) will not grant you permission to go and study what you want … so you either have to quit or stuck in teaching … [G6]
honestly many students who joined at SUZA do not want to be teachers for real...or for life...most of us want the degree [it is about qualification]...some of my friends...get their degrees in teaching then joined other field...one for Civil Aviation Training...one joined Immigration Department...one is a Tour guide...he can speak little French and English...and those who remained in teaching...some chose privately-owned schools...you get good money compared to government schools... [G15]

teaching is treated as ‘gari la mwisho’ [last car]...yes, last car mentality...it is no joke when you know there will be no other car or no daladala...you have to catch the last one...it is either catch it or spend the night somewhere or walk home...that panic you get...ushanielewa nadhani [...] I think you know what I mean...this ‘gari ya mwisho’ mentality in teaching needs to change... [M1]

actually nowadays you hear parents suggesting to their children why don’t you join teaching?...they are not suggesting because it is the best option...but because teaching is treated as last resort...when all other options are exhausted.... [M3]

I used to admire my teachers...I helped them carry students books home so that they can be marked...we get into teaching because we saw the qualities in our teachers, and we were very passionate...yawapi ya kale [where are those old days...sikuhizi wachache wanataka ualimu, wengi wanaingia kwa kuwa hawana budi...au hawakuchaguliwa kujunga na masomo waliyoyataka [nowadays, very few want to be teachers, most of them join teaching because they have no options... or because they have not been chosen to join anywhere]...[LIE1]

nowadays in teaching, there are no positive role models anymore...[LIE 2]

teaching was a thumbs-up job...back then everyone wanted to be a teacher[ LIE 3]

tofauti ya zamani na sasa ni kwa ualimu walikuwa wakiipenda kazi yao, la pili ualimu walikuwa wana hamsa ya kufundisha...na la tatu walikuwa wakiipenda kujieneleza walikuwa hawasubiri kusukumwa... siku hizi ni nadra sana kuona mwalimu

85 There are types of public car/ buses for daily commuters in the cities of Zanzibar
The translation of the above excerpt is:

…the difference between now and then is… first, teachers were proud of their jobs…second, teachers were very passionate and committed to teaching …and third, they took responsibility for their own learning and professional growth. They were not waiting to be pushed for their own learning…Nowadays it is very rare to see teachers advance themselves …there are few who choose to grow professionally…but for the most part, once you see some teachers advance themselves…then they either looking for opportunities or they want to quit teaching …[LIE 4]

Although the Zanzibar National Archive (ZNA) archival documents and historical documents show that teaching profession had the highest status in 1950s, it seems that the passion for teaching has generally eroded, and continue to erode.

…in our times teaching was the best profession…actually we were inspired by our teachers …nowadays …the teaching profession is not respectable at all in Zanzibar… Those who are weak …weak academically are the one who goes in teaching (very interesting )…those who cannot fit anywhere are expected to join teaching …there are no tough competitions to get into teaching…it is not like medicine…[LIE 2]

…very few people want to be teachers …my family have this type of attitudes and thinking …Initially, I joined teaching without training because my husband believe that teaching job is the suitable and respectable for women…I grew to love the job…most of the students I taught had to be teachers because they are not good at anything… [G17]

…in our times, we used to have the best-trained teachers…and most of them were from overseas or local teachers who were well trained by foreigners or abroad… [U2]
….wakati ule …ualimu ndiyo ulikuwa katika kazi zenye hadhi kubwa kabisa sio sasa
… [in those times teaching was among those jobs with the highest prestige… [LIE1]

…colleges and universities enroll student teachers who have low grades or failed several times and the English they have is below standard … [LIE 2]

… Teaching is taken as a last resort …students join teaching after they have been rejected in many institutions, or in their first choices [LIE 2]

There was a lack of empirical evidence in the literature to substantiate the claims being made about negative societal perception of teaching profession. However, archival data show that the teaching profession is losing its vitality compared to 1950 and early 1960s.

The context is clearly illustrated in the Future Policy and Staffing of Teacher Training College, Beit El Ras, 15 November 1958 (ZNA AD14/27), and Notes on the visit to Zanzibar Training Colleges and School, June 4 -11th, 1955 written by Professor E. Lucas (AD14/27). Below is an example to show how teaching training policy was organized. Figure. 7.1. captures instructions related to English preparation.
Academic Work:

With school certificated students we shall be able to devote less time to academic work. My experience of ex-secondary school students of the college is that what they need is consolidation rather than more advanced academic teaching. It is proposed, therefore, that the syllabus should be on the following lines:

English.

To improve their spoken language the students will be given systematic practice in oral composition:

a) Descriptive oral composition. Describing objects, pictures, events etc.

b) Lecturelettes. Students will be required to give lecturelettes of 15 minutes or so on selected topics, from notes.

c) Debates. Speakers to speak from notes.

d) Reproduction of passages or stories set for them to read.

e) Oral work to drive home common usages with a view to forming good linguistic habits. Practice in the proper use of common English phrases and idioms. The proper use of prepositions. Precision in the use of vocabulary.

f) Seminars or Forums. One or more speakers introduce a subject followed by an open discussion.

To improve their written language the students will do:

a) Regular essay writing.

b) Descriptive written composition.

c) Written reproduction of stories read out to them in class.
Furthermore, the teacher educators reported that most students joined university with no passions for teaching, no aspirations to become teachers or have no teaching attributes.

…..Most join university either to upgrade from diploma to degree so that they can get more salary, or they are tired to be in their schools… they consider university as “chaka la wachovu” [literally they treat university as a “forest of lethargic bodies”]… some are here because they are lazy, particularly students who joined university with school teaching experiences. Some are not coming here because they want to increase knowledge or improve their teaching skills…They are here because they are required to upgrade their certificates, tired to teach …some wants to elevate their salary and some are looking for an escape route…I am not sure but I think Zanzibar is the only place which grant you permission to go and study, and still pay you salary…so the lazy ones have got nothing to lose… [L4]

…if I take you in my lecture room, and ask my students …why they chose to be teachers…I am sure that you will not hear much about the passion for teaching…unfortunately it is the end of the semester… [L10]

7.3.1.4 Overall summary

Overall, the core participants and ELT stakeholders’ positive and negative viewpoints have a big influence of their motivation in the safari. Teacher educators, informed experts and other ELT stakeholders noted that lack of passion in teaching negatively impact on other aspects of teaching, while the PTE group and graduates perceived that presence of passion in English language positively impact on other aspects of the journey. This attract-repel situation in ELTE/ITE negatively and positively impact on the safari of teachers if English. These aspects may need to be addressed by the university as a key provider of teacher education in order to redirect the safari.
7.3.2 Model: map and provisions of safari

A number of areas cause a lot of concern: practicum, assessment, professional knowledge and skills, methods, delivery and practices. Most PTE reported wanting to know how to teach English, most were not happy with the course structure, course content, skills, and professional knowledge of ELTE in initial teacher education. In general, all participants were concerned about the preparations of teachers of English. All participants mentioned that being a teacher educator involved a deep kind of modelling in several senses. They also agreed that it is important for teachers’ candidates (PTE and graduates) to be grounded within the realities of the teaching and learning context.

A list of core and optional courses for B. A. Ed. students taking English as a teaching subjects revealed that the English courses offered at university are limited, and learners have limited option to choose from. Those few core courses available have content, which either overlap, and have not been updated, and the topics/unit do not go hand in hand with current issues in language learning and teaching in the immediate context of learners. The observation of university courses has identified that a number of courses are focusing more on teaching language as “system” rather than teaching courses that also inform learners on language as a social practice. As shown in Chapter 5, the PTE group reported that most courses provide foreign examples rather than local ones. Even prescribed lists of books for learners to read are more foreign written by foreigners than locals, and have not been updated. Similarly, teacher educators have also raised their concern that course review process is done haphazardly, and is conducted as routine. It does not focus on the needs of the learners, or teachers of English. There is a pattern within showing imbalance between content and the transfer of effective teaching skills in ITE. This is supported by the findings.
in the teacher educators and PTE questionnaire, which clearly shows that the curricula focus is on the transfer of knowledge/understanding rather than skills. For example, out of the core subjects taught, only few are concerned with pedagogy and teaching practice. Similarly, the contents of optional courses offered within the programs do not match skills required. If one examines the models used to guide course, it would look like a course map in any ‘Western’ university, taught in English to native speakers. The following is an example of course structure.

Table 7.2

Core and Optional Courses for Prospective Teachers of English (PTE)

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<tr>
<th>LANGUAGE COURSES</th>
<th>First year</th>
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<td>Core</td>
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<tr>
<td>EL 100 - Introductory Language (Phonology) (core)</td>
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<td>CL 100 - Communication Skills I (core)</td>
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<td>EL 102 - Historical linguistics and history of English language (core)</td>
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<td>CL 101 - Communication Skills II (core)</td>
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<td>Optional</td>
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<tr>
<td>EL 206 - Applied linguistics (core)</td>
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<td>EL 201 - English Structure I (core)</td>
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<td>EL 207 - Morphology (core)</td>
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<td>EL 203 - English Structure II (core)</td>
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<td>EL 209 - English for Specific purposes (optional)</td>
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<tr>
<td>EL 204 - Sociolinguistics (optional)</td>
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<tr>
<td>EL 205 - Lexicography I (optional)</td>
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| Second year                                                                    |                                                                           |
| Core                                                                            |                                                                           |
| EL 206 - Applied linguistics (core)                                             |                                                                           |
| EL 201 - English Structure I (core)                                             |                                                                           |
| EL 207 - Morphology (core)                                                      |                                                                           |
| EL 203 - English Structure II (core)                                            |                                                                           |
| EL 209 - English for Specific purposes (optional)                               |                                                                           |
| EL 204 - Sociolinguistics (optional)                                           |                                                                           |
| EL 205 - Lexicography I (optional)                                            |                                                                           |

| Third Year                                                                     |                                                                           |
| Core                                                                            |                                                                           |
| EL 305 - Creative writing (core)                                                |                                                                           |
| EL 308 - English usage I (core)                                                 |                                                                           |
| EL 304 - Pragmatics (optional)                                                  |                                                                           |
| EL 302 - English usage II (core)                                                |                                                                           |
| EL 307 - Semantics (core)                                                       |                                                                           |
| EL 306 - Discourse Analysis (optional)                                         |                                                                           |

| Education Courses                                                             |                                                                           |
| ED 105 - Introduction to teaching                                             |                                                                           |
| ED 205 - English teaching Methods (core)                                      |                                                                           |
| ED 201 - Educational Resources, Media and Technology                          |                                                                           |
| TP100 - Teaching Practice                                                     |                                                                           |
| TP200 - Teaching Practice                                                     |                                                                           |

| Computer Skills                                                                |                                                                           |
| Computer Skills I (Year 1, Semester 1)                                         | 0 credit                                                                  |
| Computer Skills II (Year 2, Semester 1)                                        | 3 credits                                                                 |
| Information Technology in Education (IT) (Year 3, Semester 1)                  | 3 credits                                                                 |

Source: SUZA Prospectus, 2011
The importance of the practicum to ITE to teacher candidates came out very strongly and was rated very highly from all participants.

...The only thing that I find very useful was teaching practice ... (G1)

... Traditionally teaching practice is very important in initial teacher training education... and should be given more support while in the field... [M3]

Although the pedagogical knowledge and skills emerged strongly as being an important area, English skills and proficiency was perceived to be the area of concern:

...EL 300: GENERAL LINGUISTICS: This was a well-set paper, which, again tended to show a blend of semantics and discourse analysis. The examination was quite fair. As a language related subject, I think some attention needs to be focused on students’ language expression... [External Examiner Report, 2005]

...EL 101: HISTORY AND DEVELOPMENT OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE: The candidates had poor expressions, which invariably marred understanding of a point.... [External Examiner Report, 2005]

...DE 102: ENGLISH: It is disappointing to note that the students' performance was generally not satisfactory. Most of the candidates had poor English expressions and some could not understand the rubrics of the questions. Most of the candidates performed badly in Section B (Morphology) which mostly required them to derive words from the original (word derivation). The words were not difficult and the students’ poor performance may be attributed largely to their poor grasp of vocabulary ... [External Examiner Report, 2005]

7.3.2.1 The need for a foundation stone

The data show the government of Zanzibar invests and supports teachers in primary level, and trainings are provided whenever possible, stakeholders believes that early foundations years are not given proper attention in the education system of Zanzibar.
“...Early years teaching is really important everywhere, what is lacking in Zanzibar is the strong foundation in early years teaching ... Good teachers are needed right at the beginning... for example there are no teachers with degree in primary or early education teaching...most have certificates and diploma...[FIE 1]

“...strong foundation in early years of education are really important...literacy in LI is not given a priority ...I don’t see students reading ...”  [FIE 2]

“...Good teachers are needed right at the beginning...primary ...I don’t understand why primary teachers in Zanzibar don't have degrees...”  [FIE 1]

...early learning experiences play a vital role in education for children...because some become teachers ... [LIE 2]

...most students have a shaky foundation of English ... (L2)

7.3.2.2 The need for role models

Most ELT stakeholders were of the view that the teacher or teacher educator has a major role to play in the class. Almost all stakeholders agree that learners are relying on teachers to give directions and follow what the teacher do because the teacher educator is knowledgeable, expert and well trained.

The data collected also exhibit that practitioners used a large number and wide variety of activities and approaches in their classes/lecturers and a number of ‘traditional’ pedagogies were popular and were mentioned to be the most common practices. There were dilemmas and tensions for the practitioners from the way they were giving instruction.

Below are accumulating evidences from the accounts of practice as narrated by practitioners. Based on the fact that practitioners had different levels of teaching experience (ranging from 1-20 years) and have been trained in different countries prompted the challenges.

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...no book has been written by any of our lecturers [teacher educators –my insertion]...or walimu wažawa [locals teacher educators or indigenous scholars]... " (PTE 12)

In many countries there are several training pathways open to teachers of English and a variety of qualifications are deemed acceptable to employers. In respect of qualifications, Zanzibar show that majority of teachers of English are not qualified specifically to teach English. As shown in Chapter 3, 5 and 6, the figures are worrying given the trend in most first and third world countries because most teachers are not adequately qualified to continue teaching English effectively or for the teaching of English, they are currently undertaking.

The Zanzibar picture begins to emerge from the data illustrated in Chapters 5 and 6, showing that the strengths and weaknesses in ELTE programme at university has impact on how ELT is practiced. There was a clear difference between those teachers of English who are taught by well-qualified and well-trained teachers, and those who are not. As shown in Chapter 6, PTE mentioned that some had started teaching English without undertaking standard teacher training. They started teaching without teaching qualifications, and some have qualifications but they had not attended any professional learning courses.

Some university graduates, had to be interviewed in Kiswahili as they had insufficient English language to be interviewed otherwise. All these teachers had English as a major subject while at university. PTE also reported that their Initial Teacher Education had included a specific focus on ELT, and were designated to teach English as a subject in their school. As PTE reported limited English proficiency was the main barrier in grasping the contents of ITE at university.
Similarly, some ministry officials and informed local experts requested to be interviewed in Kiswahili. While some claimed they would contribute better in a native language, some explicitly commented that they are not very confident when it comes to English: Common statements were:

...English is a national problem ... [M1]

...our national anthem ...English ...English ...English ...English ... [LIE1]

Some university officials and teacher educators opine that the MoEVT does not involve them in language-education issues, the MoEVT also claim that teacher educators in Zanzibar have no capacity to do some works for the ministry to the extent that they have to employ experts.

We had this ELT reforms ... making English the medium of instruction in upper primary... we have contacted the educators from the SUZA to help with preparing materials for primary school teachers...but it seems our educators in Zanzibar are still not capable...actually the capacity was an issue ....that is the reason we have to consult experts from the University of Dar-es-salaam... [M5]

7.3.2.3 The ‘Educators’ learning spaces

The data also note that since the inception of formal school in Zanzibar, it has been observed that there are a number of enduring resemblances in terms of the practices of ‘educators learning spaces (context, methods, material, resources, teaching and learning infrastructure). As the following photos show ancient (old) learning spaces from Zanzibar National Archives AV26.12.6 from collection of rare photos (n.d).

Figure 7.1 illustrates (undated) teaching-learning spaces and infrastructures in Zanzibar. Although the photos were undated, they portrayed the teaching and learning spaces in old times in Zanzibar.
Figure 7.2. Teaching and Learning Spaces in Zanzibar from Rare Photo Collections, ZNA AV26 (undated)

During classroom observation, it has been observed that the teaching and learning spaces, classroom arrangement, context, methods, approaches and other learning infrastructures have not changed much.
With very few exceptions, the undated photos, from a rare collection of ZNA illustrated the teaching and learning spaces has the same outlook as the teaching and learning spaces in the 2010.

Figure 7.3. Teaching and Learning Spaces in Zanzibar, 2010

### 7.3.2.4 The need for a ‘Good Fit’ with local culture

There was evidence that indicated chaotic contexts, which breed competing practices and discourse, and display instances of symbolic violence. For example, although it is common to find two languages in bilingual society. Figure 7.3 and 7.4 display instances of subtle symbolic violence, which may have negative impacts on ELT pedagogical practices.
The translation of Figure 7.4 is illustrated below:

**Announcement**

The Institute of Continuing Education of the State University of Zanzibar (SUZA) announces opportunities for the following course:

**ENGLISH AND STUDY SKILLS FOR PROSPECTIVE UNIVERSITY STUDENTS**

This is a special course for English and study skills for those who want to join university.

The course will take two months, and commence on the 09/08/2010.

The study is for those who completed A level in Arts or Science. You will learn a number of important things as follows:

- How to interpret and answer questions
- How to search for materials (LIBRARY SKILLS)
- How to organize your assignments
- How to prepare and present well in seminars and presentations
- How to participate in discussion of various subjects
- To be able to study on your own
- To be able to write academic papers (ACADEMIC WRITING)

**Figure 7.5. Translation of University Course Announcement**
Figure 7.4 and 7.5 indicates teacher educators and stakeholders genuine concerns to support PTE to improve their level of English, and their study skills. However, the announcement is self-contradictory because the larger part has been written in Kiswahili.

Other instances that illustrate evidence of chaotic context are shown as:

... kids are defeated because of English not because they don’t know anything
.....they are learning a lot, remembering a lot, but they missed a lot… curriculum/syllabus are deep complex…I think the syllabus are prepared to cater for well-off kids…the system is still elitist…rote learning…no real teaching is taking place…class with huge number of bodies…book have “bad English”…Kiswahili is used often in classroom…students do not have enough time to practice in class….textbooks have much higher language than the level of learners….I have seen materials prepared by people with PhD here but the English is terrible…English speakers must edit it…this system made them to be not proficient in either English or in Kiswahili...[M8]

Instances of symbolic violence were clearly noted in many ways. For example, teacher educators and their students reported about pedagogical knowledge, which was described to be incompatible with local context and culture. Some ELT stakeholders were of the views that the teaching methods had foreign ‘touch,’ ‘un-cultural’ and at time ‘irreligious’. Teaching activities were too ‘English, and modern’, and textbooks were ‘old’

…I am torn between English itself and teaching competences, and teaching content …what I know for sure is that without English, it is very hard to understand the contents … [PT 4]

7.3.2.5 The need to move beyond deficit models

The following excerpts illustrate background discussions with education stakeholders in the community while collecting data that indicates the myths, beliefs and deficit thinking about education and ELT. The general comments are from key ELT
stakeholders, and general public working within education departments, and those who used to work in the system:

...Oh! English teaching...that is what we need!" [U2]

...Well ...many studies are shelved somewhere out there...politicians always make decisions, they have the final say - they don’t care about research... [M1]

...Have you read Ali Baba and the Fourty Thieves...Zanzibar needs an Open Sesame system to improve English teaching ... [FIE]

... Zama za zamani...zile za mkoloni zi wapi, wameondoka na kizungu chao [Ah! In those old days ...those times of colonialists are gone, they have gone with their English ].... tulimfukaza mkoloni, tukasimamisha usomeshaji wa somo la historia, na vitabu vilichomwa moto ...don’t quote me please ...I believe it was done in good faith...lakini kwa muono wangu naamini tumejiroga wenyewe...we destroyed interest in reading...we use to read a lot ...I believe reading improves your English [We overthrew the enemy, banned history teaching in schools, and burnt books...don’t quote me please...I believe it was done in good faith...but in my views, I think we put a spell on ourselves... we destroyed the interest in reading...we used to read a lo.. I believe reading improves your English)... [L1]

...Gone are those good old days...the standard of education was high...not now...the reading culture is lost...we use to read English books a lot... Hakuna liwalo hapa Zanzibar... [Nothing happens in Zanzibar]...may be we have to reintroduce an old time rule...real strict ENGLISH ONLY in education... [L5]

...Kwenye dunia ya leo...dunia ya utandawazi, hakika hatuwezi kupikia Kiingereza mgongo...hakidharauliki, as far as I remember Kiingereza hakijawahi kudharaulika...ni kipusa muhimu sana, na ni ufunguo wa maisha na fursa adhimu... lakini kwa hivi tunavyokwenda kwenywe nyanja ya elimu ...bado tuna safari ndefu...niamini ...safari ni ndefu...wazee walisema la kuvunda halina ubani au liozalo halina ubani ... [LIE 1]. Literally translated as: [In today's world, the world of globalization, indeed, we cannot show English our backside... English cannot be ignored...As far as I remember, English has never been ignored ...it is an important toolbox, a key to life and glorious opportunity,...for what we are doing right now in education... we still have a long
journey…believe me, we have a long way to go… [Elders once said there is no incense for what is already rotten [LIE 1]

“…by 2014 English is going to be the LoI in primary schools for certain subjects …science and maths… I don’t know … waswahili wanasesa … mfa maji hukamata maji [Swahili people say… a drowning person grasps at water]. Nothing can be done right in this island… [L2]

“[…] we panicked, when we see O and A level national examinations results, then everyone give their opinion…then immediately we all forget about it, and the authorities in education wait for the next year to make the same noise … old story … this is how we operate in Tanzania… For us quality education is our own phrases … [L3]

… My observation is that the people who deal with language education are not honest to themselves …. System is not honest …. Students fail … English teaching is not working … I do not think there is any language teaching happening… Complex curriculum, rote learning, complex languages in books …. no-scaffolding practices. Instructions are not meaningful … it is all a mystery to me … being a foreigner, I try to put myself in the shoes of learners … I noticed the kids are not proficient in Kiswahili nor in English … and they have no academic language either … [FIE 2]

7.3.2.6 The importance of professional responsibility

For some participants, the negative attitudes towards teaching impact on the lack of professional responsibility. Overall, participants’ narratives reveal that teachers felt repelled with terms like ‘professional responsibility, professional growth, professional learning and personal professional development’. Most were interested with paid trainings. The narrative from foreign and local informed experts follows:

…While I was teaching in CCK, I wanted to volunteer and give free workshops for teachers of English at the college… as I saw many of them struggling with their English… some of these college teachers were not comfortable talking to me… there was an instance where by teachers set a rule to speak English among themselves and students to help them improve their English… nothing happened… clearly you could see people who were struggling with English … back to my free workshops… the challenge
was to get people to attend the free workshops, I was informed I had to give them money or handover brown envelop…something which I didn’t have. I only wanted to give support to my colleagues and share the knowledge I have … from years of teaching ESL …In my country you pay for the workshop…there are very few free workshops…I wonder where does this mentality comes from…does it have to do with colonialism…I guess during that colonial time may be people were paid to motivate them to attend certain training or learning…you -as a research- you can do a follow up… (FIE1)

…the problem with Zanzibar system is that all teachers… at least the teachers I have been working with in primary and secondary schools…I am aware that most of them are chasing the higher qualifications, because of salary upgrade …I have a feeling that there is no real commitment to make sure that quality is maintained…, no professional responsibility. Teaching is reduced to grades, qualifications and money/salary… [FIE 2]

…Attendance would have been greater and more consistent if we had been able to provide money for their transportation expenses, which in the feedback survey they often referred to as “motivation.” This is not an unusual request as financial support for food and transportation is often provided as part of attending workshops. I did not know this was customary. Whether or not this should have been provided is a hindsight decision. However, an issue should be considered in undertaking future programs of this kind…. (English Language Fellow Final Report, 2007/2008).86

Like other participants, the local informed experts identified that the value of professional responsibility is low because teaching is a truncated profession. It attracts the weaker candidates, low budget, limited resources and opportunities, unenforced standards, and teachers are continually scapegoated for poor teaching, students’ achievement and higher performance.

86 The greatest challenges in Zanzibar is ‘LoI at the primary level does not adequately prepare students for advanced studies (J.Jennings ,personal communication, December 13, 2012).
...siku hizi walimu hawendi training inavyotakiwa wanasaahidiwa...na hao kidogo wanokwenda hawaendei kusoma hukimbilia bahasha ya kaki au pesa...[nowadays teachers are not going in training ...the one who got the opportunities are not very keen, they attended because of the brown envelopes ...money] ...[LIE1]

...vituo vya walimu vilivyowekwa kwa walimu hawavitumii ipasavyo, zinajaa vumbi [the teacher centers established to help teachers, and those available for use, accumulate dust, they are not used by teachers for the intended purposes or as expected ]... [LIE1]

...kwa ufupi imekuwa kama utamaduni wetu [in short, this has been our culture]...no one read ...teachers don’t read enough ...students dont read ...parents also have no time to read ...lakini walimu hawalaumiki, vipi tutatarajia walimu wafanyi maajabu... wakati huwatengeli bajeti ya kutosha, hakuna vijana, misaada ya kitaaluma inakaja kwa msimu na hakuna mipangilio ya mafanzo ya walimu ni mibovu...baadhi ya walimu hushiriki mafanzo mara nyingi, wengine hawapati kabisa ...baadhi walimu hawaoni umuhimu wa kujisomesha...thamani ya walimu na ualimu imeanguka...[but you can’t blame teachers...how can we expect our teacher to do wonders... with less budget, no resources... limited professional support or learning(seasonal professional learning)...ill-defined plans...some teachers often attend short teacher trainings...while some teachers do not attend training at all... some teachers do not see the value of upgrading themselves ...the value of teachers and teaching has dropped... [LIE1]

7.3.2.7 The need for proper preparation

Preparation of teachers of English was a major concern. This was highly contributed by a number of issues raised earlier: teaching context, methods, resource challenges, delivery, course philosophy, and assessment, level of commitment, skills and knowledge.

...In Zanzibar, the education system has many standards ...teacher education has uncontrollable standards... language teaching has double standards...in one system we train and produce people with different standards... [L2]
For example teacher educators talked about “whitening” their ELT classes. The notion of “whitening” appeared to be linked to the concept of ELT practices i.e. what they do and able to do as English language teacher in Zanzibar. Participants used different concepts to indicate that language teaching ELT practices in Zanzibar need a sheer attention, and the challenges available in the system negatively impact on the way ELT is conceptualized as described below:

Shaaban:  Teacher Educator (aged 50 +): experienced English teacher. He taught English at different level of education: secondary and high school before becoming a university lecturer. He speaks Kiswahili, English and Arabic. He considered that preparing teacher to become English language teacher does not just require theoretically commitment or investment. ELT without tools, ability and knowledge to build the capacity of both teacher educators and prospective teachers is impossible. Suffice to say that it is the same as trying to “whiten clothes without jik”.

7.3.2.8 ELT domains as fort and hidey-holes

A number of ELT practitioners and stakeholders conceptualized ELT practices in a variety of ways both negative and positive:

Halima: (G10) female in early 40s, taking Bachelor of Arts with Education (English/Kiswahili). She graduated in 2009, and holds a Diploma from the Institute of Kiswahili and Foreign Languages (IKFL). While at IKFL, she took Portuguese as additional language (college requirement). Her teaching experience is more than 20 yrs. She started to teach in 1987 as untrained teacher, fresh from secondary school. She then did her certificate in teaching for 2 years-back to school to teach—then she went for Diploma (3yrs) in teaching where she learnt Portuguese as additional language at IKFL—then she joined B.A Ed (3 yrs)degree at SUZA. She commented, “I joined university to upgrade myself but also as a way
to rest from daily teaching. It is boring to teach as there are no opportunities, and no enough resources in school. This was my only way to ‘take five and hide’. My language skills haven’t improved much. I chose Portuguese because I had to - no choice - it was the policy of the college… but at least with English I can use it, but I have just shelved my Portuguese. I wish they had given us more choice to do extra English. I have spent so many years studying: Kizungu” (English). All the years I spent learning to teach English are being in “ngome kongwe” (in an old fort).

Other ELT practitioners and ELT stakeholders viewed ELT in Zanzibar as illustrated below

ELT = is like being in the middle of soap opera [L4]

ELT = “a telenovela” [FIE 3]

ELT = redressing a septic wound [L5]

ELT = operates in vicious cycle [M5]

ELT = stuck between a rock and a hard place [L1]

ELT = the emperor had no clothes… the government of Zanzibar is not honest… [FIE1]

Some practitioners were of the view that:

ELT needs to be practical… Current teaching practices on ELT in Zanzibar have no proper place in the current perspectives… [L1]

ELT is impractical. It does not comply with local nor global needs … [L3]

ELT runs in a vicious cycle… poor language proficiency also runs in a vicious cycle”… then we produce poor language teachers… with weak trainings [L5]

Ngome Kongwe is an old fort (also known as Arab fort). It was built in late 17th century by the Omanis to defend the island from the Portuguese invasion. In this context, the participant related her ELT environment with a fort.
7.3.2.9 Overall summary

Overall, the core participants and ELT stakeholders commented on the model of university and school settings, contexts, provision of resources, and how it impact on ELT daily practices.

7.3.3 Approaches: preparations for the safari

The data collected show that the university educators employ a variety of pedagogical approaches of teaching due to their personal experience, beliefs, self-images and attitudes. A significant concern among participants was that most ELT educators experienced transmission pedagogy throughout their education system and they form their beliefs from these experiences, which influences their own teaching strategies.

Many commented that they teach English in the same manners as they were taught, however each category of practitioners (teacher educators, PTE, graduates), and ELT stakeholders were of the view that the time and the way they were trained to be English teachers was better compared to this generation.

One ex-ministry of education officials commented that:

…when I was trained to be a teacher of English …native speakers of English trained us, and there were a number of resources …I remember the gramophones records (LIE 1)

The majority of PTE group claim that they do not feel they are good teachers. The main reason could be attributed to this type of transmission pedagogy. Although a good number of educators have been trained outside Tanzania (Australia, America, England, and Norway) while pursuing their second or third degree, most lecturers reported that some of the methods they learnt from abroad cannot be applied in Zanzibar situation. They reported
a number of reasons: overcrowded classroom, lack of resources, poor working
infrastructure, poor quality of students particularly with their English proficiency, no
opportunities to practice English, poor reading culture, pressure to complete course
outlines and prepare examinations to the satisfaction of external examiners, lack of suitable
materials, lack of ability and capability to design and produce local materials, learners
lack of motivation to read, change and become better teacher and unsupportive university
context.

Therefore, many teacher educators felt that they are limited in what they can do in
their classroom at university because of the factors mentioned. Like the previous section,
this “lack of everything” as participants put it has impacts on all aspects of teaching
approaches and teaching contexts in significant ways.

English educators also reported that the quality training abroad, has limited
usefulness cannot be applied easily in Zanzibar context because when they study abroad
they have to ‘learn how to learn’ again. For the shortest period (between 12-18 months),
they go abroad, they claim that they find it difficult to adopt new approaches. Many
overseas trained teacher educators themselves have spent a long time in a learning a
different kind of pedagogy.

7.3.3.1 ‘Sink or Swim’ approaches in safari

A number of participants in particular teacher educators and their students felt that
they had been sidelined in a number of issues. Teacher educators felt that they are left ‘on
the sidelines’ and PTE and graduates felt that they are left to sink or swim while at
university and in their early years of teaching. Most participants express the feeling that
they are under pressure to ‘prove’ than ‘improve’ because they have been left to look after
themselves with little support from university and ministry officials. As a result, both
teacher educators felt that they have been sidelined, and their students (PTE and graduates)
felt that they left unattended and figure out how to survive on their own.

...When I started as a teacher educator...I did what I could...I felt professionally isolated
...shy to ask anyone ..., as I believe university teachers or lecturers are expected to know-
all... [L3]

...for the first and second semesters ...I was just a student-wandering in corridors, library
up and down...it was horrifying [PTE 8]

...to date..., since I joined the university, I still feel like I have been thrown in deep sea ...I
had to swim or sink ...or to survive I have to stay floating in the water [PTE 3]

My experience ...learning and teaching English equal being “thrown in at the deep end and
it is all down to me... [PTE 24]

...After my graduation, I reported to this school ...I certainly was left to swim or sink....
 [G7]

7.3.3.2  Impact of choices and options in safari

Making the transition from being a teacher to being a lecturer of new teachers in
ITE was something that none of the teacher educators had deliberately planned, according
to the accounts of their career development, with the exception of L2 and L4 participants.
The remaining participants recount that it was an opportunity that had arisen, either because
the university needed lecturers or on returning from studies (local or abroad) following
further qualifications. No participants had undertaken specific training or professional
development to help them make the transition from teacher to teacher educator/lecturers
(including assistant lecturers); only two participants stated that they had specific training.

Some participants recount that they started as tutorial assistants and assistant
lecturers but due to the limited number of lecturers, the participants found themselves
gradually taking on more responsibility in teaching such as tutorial assistants working as assistant lecturers, and lecturer working as full lecturer.

### 7.3.3.3 Creating a positive learning culture

All ELT practitioners show concerns about reading culture. For example, Teacher educators reported that their student teachers do not like to read. Most of the PTE group reported to be uncomfortable to reading independently without teacher assistance or a frequent use of dictionary. Instead of reading textbooks or other sources of information, they prefer to listen to the teacher, get notes from the teacher in whatever format or copy from the blackboard. Many in this group reported that they read academic texts only when they have assignments to submit, tutorial sessions, where they are required to present (to do seminar presentations). The recurring themes are listed below:

- Having too many university assignments
- Poor foundation and exposure
- Few books and sometimes no books at all
- Never read or never been told to read so many books before
- Readings list are mostly old, less interesting and mostly written by outsiders/foreigners
- Difficult to understand and boring reading materials
- Limited English (textbooks are difficult to understand, using dictionary several times, slow reading ability, lack techniques of readings)
- Dislike reading in general
- Difficult explanations or language to understand
- Never seen teachers or other people reading for any other reasons except assignments
Reading widely is for people who plan to be academicians, professors or teacher for life

The most frequent reason given was that there were too many assignments, and poor foundation in reading. The second most frequent reasons was that there are few books or none at all, the third most frequently given reason was shared between never read or been told to read so much, old lists of mainly uninteresting materials, some are difficult and boring reading materials. The fourth reason was that PTE groups found it difficult to read the texts due to limited English. Another reason was the general dislike of reading written texts. Also mentioned by a few participants (n=8) was the lack of role models and the perceptions that reading is for people who plan to be academics, professor or teacher for life.

Overall, the PTE group commented that their reading culture is by default very weak because they had poor foundation, poor English language abilities and limited opportunities and exposure to reading. Most ELT stakeholders felt that the culture of reading is long lost in the Zanzibar community. The ‘local teachers in the colonial time’, ‘the colonial system’ and ‘foreign teachers’ were common themes. The participants mentioned these themes to show their appreciation of the context, time, the old system, the learning culture, and the supportive teaching and learning environment.

7.3.3.4 Reinstating Kiswahili in teacher preparation

Participants were divided on Kiswahili-English issues. The ‘younger’ generation felt that they do not need Kiswahili in teacher education, while the ‘older’ generation (those studied in colonial times) affirms the need to reinstate and strengthen the teaching of Kiswahili in teacher education.
A number of ELT stakeholders (old school) reported that Kiswahili had a special place during the colonial time.

…wanafunzi wetu wa siku hizi hawajui Kiswahili wala hawajui Kizungu … [our today’s students …they don’t know Kiswahili or English… [LIE 1]

.. We give English the highest priority in theory …but not in practice, there is a lot to fix …class size, resources, teaching methods …the results is weak in both languages, Kiswahili and English [L9]

…English is important for Zanzibar …I agree… it is well known that it is poorly taught…, and Kiswahili has little ‘real’ space in education …" [L6]

This has been clearly documented in ZNA teacher training policy artifacts.

…Before they go out of the college the teachers in training will be given a good grounding in Swahili grammar…They will also do essay to improve their style and power of expression …The college should interest itself in the collection of Swahili poems and songs through the college cultural society(Future Policy and Staffing of Teacher Training College, Beit El Ras, 15th November,1958 (See ZNA AD14/27),

Although some ‘older generation’ did not support the teaching of Kiswahili in teacher education for teacher of English, the common message was:

…I don’t see a point of strengthening Kiswahili while at university …a waste of time [G6]

Kiswahili ni lugha ya taifa [Kiswahili is a national language] …why the need to strengthen it in higher level, while our students are already weak and poor in English[ M2]

…Our environment is ‘sufficient to make me a very competent and confident in Kiswahili …I do not need Kiswahili much …English should be given more priority …and should as a medium of instruction from chekechea [kindergarten]… [PTE 10]
7.3.3.5 The need for research in ELT

The lack of research in ELTE/ELT was evident. Although research topics were evident in curriculum of teacher education programme, the ELTE programme at university scrap off the independent research components for third year students (finalists), because it was found out that the PTE and graduates had no capacity to do independent research projects. This is also mainly contributed by the limited English among the PTE and the lack of staff to supervise the research, which need training in writing and communicating in a foreign language, English.

Some graduate (2005-2007) batch reported to have participated in independent studies, while the PTE who participated in this study did not participate in any research activities because the research component is no longer offered. Other ELT stakeholders also report not to have done research due to a number of factors resources, time, opportunity, capacity to conduct large-scale research, platforms and opportunity for research information sessions, and their personal feeling that research remains unusable after completion. On the other hand, documentary review noted that the colonial administration stressed on the need to prepare teachers of English in the colonies to have research methods in the field of ELT (See ZNA AD1/176).
Fig 7.5 Circular about Research and Training in TESL in 1957 ZNA: AD1/176

7.3.3.6 The need for on-going development

It has been reported that teacher educators and their students (who also become teachers) are receiving little training while in service.
Being at university, I realized we [teacher educators] are not actually “on the radar” …we have been completely forgotten...our knowledge developments, skills and needs are not given a proper consideration. [L 4]

…a teacher is a teacher … teaching is teaching …teaching at university or school is a bit different but it does not differentiate our roles ...I am positive that ...even the Ministry of Education and university look at us alas teachers...this may explain why lecturers do not get enough opportunities to build our capacity, support, and training at university.[L2]

Teaching is considered to be a simple job like following your 100 years old grandmother’s recipe ...you know what I mean ...[L4]

.... I was overwhelmed by new methods and approaches I learnt over while I was abroad ...and I had opportunities to go to the actual classroom to observe .... The only problem was the teaching context was extremely different with mine in a number of ways: learners, materials, resources, assessments, and teachers’ abilities, and their approaches. ... unfortunately once you are back, you can’t help it but fall in the same old trap ...no resources, no support, no training, no platform to share views and exchange ideas on what works, and what do not works...there is no culture to exchange teaching ideas whether you travel abroad or you were trained locally ...(L3 )

7.3.3.7 The need for a variety of productive pedagogical approaches

The classroom observation shows the use of didactic methods were common. Most PTE group and graduates rely on blackboard use to teach English. Writing notes on the blackboard and students copying teachers’ notes.

The problem of frontal teaching is a recurring issue in the education system of in colonial and postcolonial Zanzibar. The frontal teaching theme was also cited in archival documents as illustrated in Figure 7.10(See Figure 7.10).
Figure 7.6. Teaching of tense ‘frontal teaching’ in Secondary School, Classroom Observation, Outside of Stone Town, Zanzibar 2010

**Description:** This lesson begins with the questions from previous lesson. The interaction was predominantly teacher-fronted instruction. The teacher revised the three tenses she previously taught as shown in 7.6. The teacher instructed the students to copy what she wrote on the board. She asked the students to fill in the gaps as shown in 7.6 and 7.7.

Figure 7.7. Students’ responses from the Classroom in Secondary School, Classroom Observation, Outside of Stone Town, Zanzibar 2010
Commentary: The post-interview after classroom observation revealed that the teachers claimed that the communicative approaches in language teaching or some approaches of language teaching at university are ‘undoable’. The university graduate commented that they prefer explicit grammar teaching because some approaches they learnt while in teacher education programme were undoable for a number of reasons. Phrases like limited spaces, class size, following the courseware, classroom infrastructure (for example types of desks in the classroom does not give room to do other activities), irreligious, incompatible, uncultural, and some activities are considered culturally uncomfortable due to age (age-inappropriate) and gender (gender-inappropriate) were common.

Description: With respect to the didacting instructions and methods, the 7.7 lesson classroom was also dominated by frontal teaching. Although the activity in the middle of the lesson, the teacher provided an opportunity for group work, but the discussions among students were entirely conducted in Kiswahili. In this reading class, the teacher (graduate) asked the students to divide themselves into group of six people. The teacher asked the students to discuss characters role and their relevance in society. She assigned two characters for each group for 10 minutes. The teacher left the group unattended without support. After the 10 minutes of completing the task, the teacher asked the students to provide answers, which she wrote on the blackboard. Figure 7.7 illustrates a classroom observation where the teacher used group work.
Commentary: Two key issues arise in this lesson. The group discussions were conducted entirely in Kiswahili. The answers were presented in Kiswahili, and the teacher wrote on the board. Two spelling errors were identified on the board ‘tinsthmith’ and ‘jonalist’ that neither the teacher nor the students identified. The students copied down the words in their notebooks with the errors, which should have been corrected to prevent them learning wrong spellings. After the classroom observation, the graduate teacher was probed about errors and her approaches to error correction. The teacher responses did not tell much about her approaches to error corrections.
7.3.3.9 Overall summary

Overall, the core participants and ELT stakeholders hold positive and negative views about the preparation of the safari. Most participants perceived that the quality programme has quality approaches, while poor approaches are very prone to double standards, which translate into the incompetence and tensions in practice and the introduction of policies of compromise.

Reconciling tensions and policies of compromise due to poor approaches in the preparation of safari is a part of the challenge that teacher educators and ELT stakeholders have to address. The poor preparation of the safari may also produce semi-literate teachers who may not qualify to be quality teachers, and may fail to contribute to quality teaching. These aspects may need to be addressed by the university as a key provider of teacher education in order to redirect the safari.

7.3.4 Outcomes: experiences and mementos from safari

7.3.4.1 Fear in the pedagogy of teacher education

The question of fear and fear related learning was a constant emerging theme. Is it always as it is on a safari? Is there always an element of fear? Alternatively, is fear a particular aspect in this context of ELT? The following table provides a summary of the complexity of the fear. Theme that emerge as a major impact factor, but also as an aspect of motivation, approach and seem to be embedded in the model of teaching used to teach English in teacher education, and in the schools of Zanzibar.
Table 7.3
Sources of Fear from Prospective ELT Teachers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>FEAR TACTICS</th>
<th>PERSONAL BELIEFS</th>
<th>PAIN</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Negative attitudes</td>
<td>Ways of learning English textbooks and listening to teachers</td>
<td>Meaningless Assignments</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Colonial-like teacher</td>
<td>Limited vocabulary</td>
<td>Broken English</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Frustration</td>
<td>Imperfect English</td>
<td>Poor English</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good Grade obsessions</td>
<td>Desire for Native competency</td>
<td>Low proficiency</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assignment/exam related threats</td>
<td>British-American English as appropriate Englishness</td>
<td>Harsh assignment comments</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Native-speakers as better teachers</td>
<td>Pass by Fate/luck</td>
<td>Low marks without feedbacks</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-doubt and anxiety</td>
<td>“kudra ya Mungu”</td>
<td>“Middling” ability discourses</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tense up and Nervousness</td>
<td>Old school lecturers</td>
<td>Textbooks are difficult to understand</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uncertainties and Hesitation</td>
<td>Native teachers syndrome</td>
<td>Disgruntled lecturers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Panic</td>
<td>Early starts</td>
<td>Errors intolerance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High symbolic value of English related threats</td>
<td>Difficult subject</td>
<td>Past learning experiences</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Higher expectation above one’s command of English</td>
<td>pressure of globalization and neo-liberalism</td>
<td>Little help from lecturers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Test/assignment driven environment</td>
<td>Previous background</td>
<td>Little opportunity to give suggestions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tensions in classroom</td>
<td>Personal assessment</td>
<td>Limited help</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pressure to be impressionistic or duplicate from lecturers</td>
<td></td>
<td>Limited resources</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LACK OF CONFIDENCE</td>
<td>LEARNING TO FEAR</td>
<td>TRAPPED PASSIONS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poverty of expressions</td>
<td>Unsure of what to say and fear to speak</td>
<td>Trapped in the poor system</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fail to express themselves</td>
<td>Negative comments/expressions from lecturers</td>
<td>Boring lecturers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inability to think in English</td>
<td>No formal feedback</td>
<td>Boring topics/units</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reluctance to speak</td>
<td>No lecturers’ evaluation to tell them what they what to change</td>
<td>Poor foundations from primary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fail to express themselves</td>
<td>No evaluation of the courses/unit</td>
<td>Lethargic part-timers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No opportunities to practice</td>
<td>No informal feedback</td>
<td>Lack language support</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shyness</td>
<td>Dilemma in subject choice</td>
<td>No role model</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Weak English foundation</td>
<td>Mixing Kiswahili-English is shunned</td>
<td>Lenient lecturers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fear of failure</td>
<td>Poor performances</td>
<td>Uncertain aspirations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uncomfortable and uneasy</td>
<td>Unrealistic/Higher expectation from public</td>
<td>Accuracy myth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Embarrassed to speak in front of others</td>
<td>Negative comments: English has owners such as English has teeth, English is not lelemama Strict, harsh and cow-lecturers</td>
<td>Fear of making mistakes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spoken English is not practiced</td>
<td></td>
<td>Orthodox resources</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Little opportunities learning</td>
<td></td>
<td>Inadequate resources</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lecturers’ authority</td>
<td></td>
<td>Boring course contents</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Past experiences</td>
<td></td>
<td>Preferred to be taught by native speakers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The belief that “my English is poor”</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Fear tactics were reported as a dominant tool in students’ learning. In a FDGs, the PTE group talked about how they receive disappointing feedback from teacher educators. They express the view that teacher educators’ comments “intended to kill them” and “dampen their spirits” rather than to polish them as English learners or shape their practices as English teachers to be.

The PTE group frequently reported in FDGs that their body and mind become so tense when they attended ELT lessons/classrooms especially when their teacher educators’ made comments such as “English is not Lelemama” or “English has teeth” to indicate that English is not an easy subject to learn, and it may bite the learners (failed). The PTE also commented that it was very common to here berated comments from lecturers like

…“you see how big the class is, by the end of the year, it will be only half of you”[PTE 1]

… you English is poor…broken …need to be straightened …you need to work hard [PTE 2]

Teachers’ comments disturb…mount fear, tensions, anxiety and it always renew the English battle…. [PTE 3]

“.. some lecturers are becoming human ‘God” here … the fact that we have been registered to take English courses give us every right to have all types of support with the language …no matter how poor our English might be ” [PTE 15]

“...I agree English is not lelemama but a cow is not weighed down by its own horn...if given opportunities, we will obtain proper English”..[PTE 20]

“...I never dared to try to answer a question in the classroom because I know what the lecturer will say next… ”[PTE 7]

On the other hand, teacher educators commented that they are also felt annoyed, discomfited, tensed up and embarrassed when they are questioned or criticised by colleagues, public or university authority about the poor status of English among PTE as if
they is a direct relationship between students’ poor English and teacher educators at university.

7.3.4.2 The need for reflective practices in teacher education

Respondents view the adoption of foreign methods, approaches and philosophy both positively and negatively. However, most interviewees did not view the adoption of a communicative approach raises important issues for teacher training, materials development, and testing and evaluation. Questions that have been raised include whether the approach is applied or not, and whether it is equally suited to the context of Zanzibar. While ELT practitioners doubted the practices in a number of ways, other ELT stakeholders hold personal beliefs about language teaching, while PTE and graduates were questioning the methods, the style, the course units, and also relate the fact that the present challenges contribute in their ‘poor English’ and ‘poor teaching’.

7.3.4.3 Bilingual paeans, monolingual rhythms

Random-code switching was very common. English and Kiswahili were meeting in class and in other educational settings within the university and school environment. During observation, it has been noted that what people do and say produce mixed messages English and Kiswahili randomly and haphazardly switch roles in teaching and learning practice. These two languages were viewed to have two unequal values in education settings (university and schools). Theoretically, English was expected to be used more than Kiswahili. During data collection, there was no opportunity to observe university classrooms /lecture rooms. Based on the observation and survey results, It has been noted that although English is the only legitimate language to be used at university learning, Kiswahili finds its way informally in the lecture rooms, seminar presentations, while on
teaching practices and is used to ease the burden, reduce the tensions that crop up between PTE group and teacher educators.

When asked about the reason to use Kiswahili, English limitations was mentioned as the main reason, followed by the fact of having more confidence to speak in one’s own language and more freedom and the comfort to express themselves.

Likewise, during observation at school level, the university (SUZA) graduates were observed to be switching randomly with no particular meaningful pattern. The English teaching at these schools was mainly conducted in Kiswahili with very little English. English was mainly used to open the lesson, and end the lesson. The rest of the teaching was conducted in Kiswahili. The teachers (i.e. SUZA graduates) were found to ask students questions in English, and immediately translate the question in Kiswahili if the students remain silent. All these observation lead me to hypothesize that secondary school children are incapable of using English because they do not have the opportunity to hear English, and are taught ineffectively.

The most predominant tensions noticed in the participants' accounts are the way they mediated and contested against English supremacy both officially and unofficially. By taking this line, competing practices have been observed. For example, random code-switching, code-mixing and code shifting, indecisive mind of which language to use or favour one language over the other for a number of reasons.

\[...some lecturers allows us to mix languages, some teacher... they do not mind...some don’t give a chance at all...it is strictly English...the class end up being quiet..boring [PT 16]\]
The interviews and FGDs further brought to light ELTE programme at university is deeply influenced by contesting discourses emerged as a results of competing practices and incompatible pedagogies. Although participants blamed the declining standards of English in the country, a number of other issues emerged. One of these are:

...Since I came into Zanzibar ...I just hear narrative dotted with language conflicts, between politicians and academics. What educators and officials do not realize is that their debates and decision have an effect on the real lives of students (FIE 2)

It also became apparent that code-switching, code-mixing and code shifting were found to be more of the norm. Suffice to say that participants interpreted these language practices differently. Almost all PTE clearly show that they want to master English by any means. However, these same PTE teachers prefer to learn more on the grammar, and structure of the language.

In an FGDs, most PTE resisted some topics in their ELTE programme and repeatedly mentioned historical linguistics, applied linguistics and some theories of second language learning as the course they do not want to learn, and they do not see how the courses/topics help them to be English teachers. This revelation indicated that there is the need to do action research on this matter, and also inform teacher candidates of the importance of the topics they resist in teaching a second or a foreign language.

7.3.4.4 Instances of symbolic violence and exploitative practices

During data collection, it was noted that most ELT stakeholders’ educators did not view students' bilingualism as an asset. Instead English monolingualism was fostered despite the fact that the reality in university and school teaching express a contradicting scenario that does not reflect the classroom reality or policies.
Figure 7.9. A placard was displayed in Private School: Classroom Observation in Secondary School, 2010

Figure 7.10. ‘Will you speak English, Please for your own good’ A placard was displayed in Public Secondary School: Classroom Observation, 2010
Other ELT stakeholders were of the same opinion that English is very important

...I don't think we can afford to leave English...that will be like going backward, while others are moving forward...I believe we will get there...Rome wasn't built in a day [M3]

Other issues related to PTE and their English abilities

“PTE enrolled are on the whole not ready for classes conducted entirely in English”(L8)

“I can speak to foreigners (outside the class) but when I came to university, I find myself puzzled...I didn’t have enough academic vocabulary (PTE 3)

“I have been professionally prepared to teach English but I don’t feel confident to speak it”(PTE 10)

“Learning English... difficult task”...we are told...it is not Lelemama(PTE 15)

...Although students are eligible to join university, but their English abilities is so low ... English proficiency...is a national anthem ...(L2)

...It is insane to talk about improving English teaching when we know that our students are weak in English ...very weak...(L3)

...the students we enrol are not proficient ... they are still trying to catch up with English ...(L9)

...Teaching English in Zanzibar is like dressing a septic wound...(L5)

...it is not possible to enroll students who are fully competent in English...and once they join university support is minimal... teacher educators do not have time to treat “English-limited patients”... Often, lecturers are concerned about getting through the class lectures, being understood by students, marking be ready for external examinations. They hardly get time to do research to share with students...[L8]
ELT needs to be practical…lecturing about English has little space in the current perspectives …all the aspects of ELT [at SUZA-my insertion] have to be revisited and made to comply with global and local needs [L11]

Production of ideal competent teachers of English is problematic … it is a national issue …students have low English [L5]

…Poor language proficiency runs in a vicious cycle…what happened in lower level is what we get at university…ukipanda mchicha, utavuna mchicha, ukipanda bangi utavuna bangi … wazungu wanasema you reap what you sow…literally [if you plant spinach, you get spinach, if you plant marijuana, you get marijuana…white people say you reap what you sow][L6]

English language ability…average in relation to other people who speak English in Zanzibar …but I do not think students at SUZA are on the whole ready yet for classes conducted entirely in English …[L2]

Some university artifacts also reported that:

….The candidates had poor expressions which invariably marred understanding of a point…[ External Examiner Report, 2005]

…it is disappointing to note that the students’ performance was generally not satisfactory. Most of the candidates had poor English expressions and some could not understand the rubrics of the questions….the students’ poor performance may be attributed largely to their poor grasp of vocabulary ….[External Examiner Report, 2005]

7.3.4.5 Retarded L2 teaching and learning environment

University graduates have reported that they have a love-hate relationship with lesson planning and preparation. Most reported that they know in theory that they have to prepare lesson plans, schemes of work, daily records of work and assessment books.

However, they admitted that it is very laborious, and they cannot internalize the value of lesson plan on daily practices. Out of 17 graduates, seven SUZA graduates were observed and only two students had lesson plans on the day of observation. The remaining five
students reported that they only prepare lesson plans when needed by the head teacher or if there is a major school inspection. However, like teacher educators and PTE group, most graduates were reluctant to be observed or recorded. Some reported that they are not comfortable with the classroom observation as they related it with school inspections conducted by the Ministry of Education, which according to them is more intimidating than constructive.

… I have this love-hate relationship with lesson planning. I hate doing it because it takes so much of my personal time and requires such a high level of intellectual rigour and forethought. I don’t have any support from school (G1)

…I love the idea of having a lesson plan because good plans help students learn, but I never get opportunity to finish it so I loathe the process… (G4)

…In theory, … I know that lesson plan allows me to be like a well-prepared teacher, but I stopped preparing one because while in classroom it is not really useful. Actually I am not fond of lesson plan and preparation …most teacher do lesson plan as routines …or when we have clue that inspectors will visit school…(G6)

…I do prepare lesson plan …I never use them though…what matters to me is how do you conduct the lesson…a plan in front of me is just formalities, and to make inspectors happy…(G17)

Instances of quality and standard compromise were also recorded. On the 6th of August 2010 the Television of Zanzibar (TVZ) news reported that Chuo Cha Kiislam (CKK) has enrolled qualified students to join teacher training college. It was also reported that the school administration was suspended and has been asked to return the fee the students paid. Although this has not happened at the University level, but the quality of

88 This is similar to Brock-Utne’s (2007, p.490) study conducted in Tanzania, where the respondents refused to be video-taped.

89 Teachers college enrolling teachers at certificate levels to teach in primary school.
teachers produced goes into the same system, and presumably, they will be the one to teach at a very foundational level (primary schools) in Zanzibar. Below is an extract of sample lesson plan from SUZA graduate.

![Lesson Plan Image]

Figure 7.11. Example of the lesson plan from Classroom Observation in Secondary School, 2010

7.3.4.6 Tensions in ELT practices

As shown earlier, teacher educators and their students have strong desire to teach, learn and speak English. Language and Education policy were found to be very supportive at least on theoretical basis. However, despite these strong desires, both teacher educators and their students feel highly pressured to teach and learn English. Teacher educators stated that they work under contemptible circumstances, and the university and ministry
expectations are far above what they can deliver. Similarly, PTE agreed that their teachers, university, ministry and peers/colleagues expectations are far too high. Both teacher educators and PTE described the context of teaching and learning English as “vurugu mechi” [chaotic/hostile environment], and judged the major pedagogies as “zahama” [timorous] with no vision.

The data show that most PTE learn to prove that they can pass rather than gain knowledge, skills and other dispositions). The PTE group expresses that they normally study to pass, and not to acquire skills or improving their learning because of the number of pressure such as pass marks, poor English, pressures from teacher, teachers’ higher expectations and teachers’ comments and feedback. Some participants raised the fact that:

“Once you get “Karai” [C grade], it does not matter.” [PTE 5]

…all I wanted when I was at SUZA was to clear …mambo ya sijui nimefahamu au sijafahamu, nimejifunza au sijajifunza yanakuja baadae [whether I understand or not, or I gain knowledge or not comes after …[G 11]

The rest of PTE supported the issues raised, and other ELT stakeholders also express the concerns that when teachers’ candidates or students in schools pass under normal circumstances it is considered that the teachers are doing well:

Most questions arise when students fail…most people look at quality in terms of pass and fail rate…other than that it is very rare to hear inquiries on other issues…[L6]

Through one to one interview with university officials, it was clear that the role and responsibilities of the university is to make sure that English is “mandatory” at university is heavily placed on the shoulder of teacher educators and the PTE.

We have a serious challenge … I have to admit…. It’s English….English is on top of the list…The best we can do is to say loud…that the use of English language at university is
mandatory… we believe all lecturers should use only English while teaching and all university activities that involves students….by all means possible students should be encouraged to improve their English proficiency [U3]

Other participants recounted the old times education system (during colonialism)

*Those day, we were trained to be teachers by English people … the classes were not large…back then teaching was a very prestigious job…..we loved teaching, we enjoyed English….the standard 8 students were better off. I mean those who studied in colonial time than today’s graduates(21st century)….the whole system need changes … we should revisit colonial documents such as curriculum… may be we will pick something useful or learn a lesson …. (L4)*

“ Students prefer English as teaching language (The Guardian, May 29, 2009)*

*(See also Appendix 1B)*

Amid these types of tensions, they also claim to work under a “lack of everything regime”- resources, support, exposure, opportunities, clear commitment, funds, hostile teaching and learning environment, curriculum, teaching methods, assessments, skills and knowledge and limited language abilities.

What was very striking in this case was although the level of English language ability was reported to be a number one concern, but it is worth to note that there was a more obvious love for English than their love for teaching.

**7.3.4.7 Beliefs about L2, FL and ELT**

Most participants were found to revert to what teachers experienced themselves while at university. A number of class observed were found to reproduce what has been taught while at university. A number of methods used encourage parrot learning and

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90 See other newspaper headlines related to challenges of education in Tanzania in Appendix 1B.
cramming. Most PTE and graduates were actually applying the same authority and intimidating tactics unconsciously despite the fact that they were complaining about what their teacher educators do to them. The observation of graduates found them using and relying on their university notes as reference, and as guidance. Other examples involves PTE group are:

Language learning is a countable thing here. We are happy to count …you hear about Arabic, Portuguese, Spanish….but we don’t really use the languages except English (PT1)

“I learnt English and Spanish but I don’t use Spanish” (PT 2)

“I learnt English and Portuguese. I think I have forgotten about Portuguese” (PT18)

“I learnt English and Arabic. Sometimes I use Arabic” (PT 20)

Lack of confidence was also cited to be a major concern as illustrated below:

When you don’t master English, you feel useless [PT 28]

Because of English, I always thought the worst of myself, and lost my confidence (G17)

Although we are using students A-level results and we use to administer matriculation tests to select at least better-off students, but most of those selected are still catching up with English [L2]

…when I do supervisions in schools, there has been a lot of issues English language-related issues…confidence, poor English, lack of preparation,... sometimes the content taught is not quite right …poor lesson presentation …and at the same time other teachers are always up to date, and well prepared …I believe all this depends on individual teacher …does she/he love the job …there is not much we can do there …. [M 4]

7.3.4.8 Hegemonic or empowering practices?

Participants report that admittance to university was subject to the central matriculation university entrance examination organized by the university. Students were also required to have the following scores between A, B, C, and D if they want
to major in English, or take it as a teaching subject. For those who have teaching diploma, they were required at least to have a B plus on average. The university used to offer preparatory English classes in the first year called Remedial English. It was provided for students who do not have the required proficiency to follow the classes in English. It has been reported that learners were not keen to take this type of course because of the fear to be labeled as “Student with limited English or “Maimuna”- a local derogatory name for people who are deficient in English abilities or with limited English proficiency.

… No one can survive without English unless you want to remain “Maimuna” [common local term used to tease people with no English” or the prisoner… because you don’t know English…[G16]

…sometimes I think assignments are useless…they don’t help much …we don’t get quality assignments…my feeling is we just give back what we have been taught …my question is what is knowledge? [PTE 14]

7.3.4.9 Overall summary

Overall, the core participants and ELT stakeholders hold mixed views about the ‘safari’. As discussed, some resigned attitude pervades the university as everyone struggles to know what to do. However, most participants perceived that the quality produce high learning outcomes, while poor outcomes are very prone to compromising standards in teacher education, and introducing double standards, which translate into the incompetence and tensions in the practice.
7.4  PAST IMAGES OF SAFARI

The historical documents were also examined to understand the teachers of English in the past (during colonialism). A number of themes were identified. Below are extracts from Zanzibar National Archive (ZNA):

First, support for teachers and opportunities to practice the language in foreign language classroom. For example, Circular No. 1510 dated 13\textsuperscript{th} April, 1933 recommended the use of a linguaphone machine and gramophones records for the teaching of English for non-English speaking pupils. The letter of recommendation highlighted the need to support all stages of instruction in a foreign language, and more particularly in the early stages (See ZNA AB1/392). Although the emphasis of the minutes of the meeting was on proper accents and intonations, it acknowledged the success of linguaphone methods in the teaching of English (ZNA AB1/392). Three points were also identified from the minutes recorded on the 1\textsuperscript{st} of June 1933 from the Office of the Education Department that teachers of English in Zanzibar had not been trained in English phonetics. Therefore, it was recommended that the purchased of the records should be tested to see the ‘local value of the series to be purchased’, and teachers were expected to use the records with some ‘practical wisdom’ (see ZNA AB1/392).

Second, the teacher’s talk in the classroom was a major theme as illustrated in Figure 7.12 and Figure 7.13. With respect to the methods and didactic teaching, in all class observed group works and discussions were rarely practiced. Most teachers reported they cannot practice different methods due to the classroom architecture, infrastructures, resources and overcrowded classes. They also reported that the discussions waste ‘teacher’s class time’ because students cannot discuss fluently in English, and there are many ‘silent
moments’. They also reported that if students are allowed to have discussions in Kiswahili, they also use a lot of teachers’ time. See original letter illustrated in Figure 7.12, and a rewrite of the same letter as illustrated in 7.13.
Figure 7.12. Educational Circular, Principal of Khalifa Schools, Teacher's college, Beit el Ras, 28th Feb 1950, Zanzibar National Archive

The following is an extract from Sir John Adam's "Modern Developments in Educational Practice" which is circulated for your information.

You will observe this has special reference to the teaching of a foreign language — in our own case here — English, and the same old cry is heard again — the teachers talk far too much and the pupils are not given enough to do.

I commend this to your serious attention please.

"Under the ordinary class-teaching conditions, the pupil's share in the conversation is strictly limited. Few teachers realise how much of a lesson hour they monopolise in their own talking. When actual records have been kept of the relative amounts of talking done by teacher and pupils during a class hour, the teachers firstly declined to believe the evidence of those who had stop-watch.
The following is an extract from Sir John Adam’s “Modern Developments in Educational Practice” which is circulated for your information … You will observe this has special reference to the teaching of a foreign language—in our own case here—English, and the same old cry is heard again: the teacher talk far too much and the pupils are not given enough time to do … I commend this to your serious attention please…” “…under the ordinary class-teaching conditions, the pupils’ share in the conversation is strictly limited. Few teachers realise how much of a lesson hour they monopolise in their own talking. When actual records have been kept of the relative amounts of talking done by teacher and pupils during a class hour, the teacher flatly declined to believe the evidence of those who had stop-watched their speech. When it comes to a subject like modern language, where a certain amount of practice in speaking-time under the ordinary class system is immense. Mr. MacMunn supposes, not very hope-fully, the most masters have realised that in a class of twenty pupils studying French, if the master speaks for half an hour, explaining and asking questions” a boy has only one minutes and a half in which to express himself …”

Figure 7.13. Educational Circular, Principal of Khalifa Schools, Teacher’s college, Beit el Ras, 28th Feb 1950, Zanzibar National Archive

Third, the teaching of Basic English91 in colonial territories was introduced with the aim of experimenting the preparation of material locally as illustrated in the letter in Figure 7.14.

91 Basic English (i.e. British, American, Scientific, International and Commercial) was originally devised by Mr C. K. Ogden as a universal international auxiliary language (see ZNA AB1/398).
Fourth, there was also a general concern about writing in mother tongue (Kiswahili), and writing in English as illustrated in Figure 7.15 below.
Fifth, it has also been reported that Zanzibar was considering introducing the teaching of another second foreign European language, apart from English. However, the proposal was rejected because the colonial administration believed that during that time the linguistic burden was heavy enough as it was. During that time, it was reported that English was essential, Swahili was vernacular, and Arabic was the language closely related to the Muslim religion.
Therefore, as illustrated in Figure 7.16, there was uncertainty to add another language as most teachers and students were struggling with the ‘linguistic burden’ of three languages (See also Figure 7.17 below)
Apart from the heavy linguistic burden, ‘staffing and teacher-training’ were the big two departmental problems concerned with the improvement of the teaching and spread of English was mentioned. It was further reported that candidates from Zanzibar have difficulties with ‘English’ compared to other students from East Africa (See Figure 7.18). For example Figure 7.18 clearly illustrates three issues: alarming poor results, escaping to choose degree in English, and the need to train locally domiciled officers.
Teaching of English

I am not quite certain to whom this letter should be addressed and therefore I am sending it to you with the request that you pass it on to the appropriate quarter.

2. The Higher School Certificate results so far have shown that the results of candidates from (and, I believe, Tanganyika), in English at Higher School Certificate level are worse than in other subjects. This is not particularly surprising; but it is going to create one alarming result — that clever boys will do everything possible to avoid taking English as a Principal subject at Higher School Certificate level. This, in turn, will have the result that fewer and fewer people will take English in degree courses because while clever boys can be reasonably certain of getting honours degrees in Geography or history, they know that it is exceedingly difficult for them to get an honours degree in English.

3. But if we look to the future, and assume that English will remain the medium of instruction in secondary schools in East Africa, our main need is going to be for locally domiciled officers to teach English at Secondary school level. We cannot rely on being able to get expatriate officers to teach English forever, and therefore, if no locally domiciled officers move forward with qualifications which enable them to teach English, it will have the most calamitous results not only on English in secondary schools but on all other subjects as well. In Mzambiri, for example, excluding this year’s entry to Mzambiri, we have one person reading for an honours degree in English and he is finding the going very heavy indeed.

4. At a meeting of the Mzambiri and Mzambiri Advisory Panel of the Cambridge Local Examinations Syndicate, this problem was brought up. It was suggested that the real difficulty about English at Higher School Certificate level and at degree level was that the candidates were asked, quite rightly in accordance with the present regulations, to comment on the style of English authors and to compare one style with another. The general opinion of those present was that this was a very difficult exercise instead for people whose mother tongue is not English.
7.5 SUMMARY OF THE KEY FINDINGS: ELT STAKEHOLDERS

This chapter discusses the results of the extension phase of this research. The chapter utilized information from multiple data sources and analyzed them thematically. From the data, it was possible to deduce four major themes, each of which contains a number of related themes. Motivation, models, approaches, and outcomes were the four important aspects that have been identified in the safari of teachers of English, and which were perceived to have both negative and positive impacts on ELT practices in postcolonial Zanzibar (see Chapter 8 for discussion). The chapter has also traced previous challenges of ELT in colonial Zanzibar, and the current challenges in ELT in postcolonial Zanzibar in order to see if there is any connection.

7.6 CHAPTER SUMMARY

In this chapter, I have presented data collected from multiple data sources from ELT practitioners and other ELT stakeholders. I conducted this phase to peg the impact of ELT practices considering the strengths and weaknesses of ELTE identified in Phase 1. The next chapter the main findings are outlined and discussed.
PART 3: DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS AND CONCLUSION
CHAPTER 8
THEMATIC DISCUSSIONS OF RESEARCH FINDINGS

8.0 INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this chapter is to discuss the key research findings in respect of the main research question. The discussion in this chapter focuses on the strengths and weaknesses of the ELTE programme, and their impacts on ELT practices. The results of my study were interpreted by considering the context of Zanzibar, Tanzania.

8.1 INSIGHTS FROM PHASE ONE

A detailed presentation of results has been given in Chapters 5 and 6; this section discusses the data related to the overarching research question one in Phase 1: “What are the strengths and weaknesses of the English Language Teacher Education (ELTE) programme at university level in postcolonial Zanzibar?” Chapters 5 and 6 have clearly reported the strengths and weaknesses of ELTE programme at university level in postcolonial Zanzibar.

8.1.1 Strengths

In regard to the strengths of ELTE programme, the existence of ELTE programme at university level has had an important positive impact on ELT in terms of the number of PTEs exposed to ELTE programme at university and schools, and the experiences of beginning teachers (graduates). Another important strength was that the teacher educators’ shared L1 with students, and possesses knowledge of student teachers’ learning needs, difficulties and abilities because of their own L2 learning experiences, and from being familiar with the context, education and examination systems. Other findings include the identification of two other strengths of ELTE such as the opportunity to conduct ELT
classroom-based research and reflective practices in ITE. These findings support those in previous studies such as Medgyes (1983 &1994), Farrell, (1999, 2001); Llurda (2005), Moussu (2006), Llurda & Moussu (2008), and Hayes, (2009). The current study differs with some of these studies, in that teachers of other subjects (science, geography, history), who use English as a LoI were not included by the researcher. This was due to the scope of the study, however further exploration is needed for future research.

8.1.2 Weaknesses

In regard to weaknesses of ELTE programme, the most common cited weakness was limited English abilities (linguistic weaknesses), which acts as a barrier in teaching and learning in ELTE at university. Previous studies have documented a similar situation. Ho (1979) reported that in Hongkong ‘…common complaint among university teacher is that students’ sub-standard proficiency in English, especially in oral expression, constitutes a formidable impediment to effective learning’ (p. 45), while Cooper (1980) warned of negative effect on students’ creativity. Many researchers have mentioned that the limitation of English has negative impacts on teaching practices (See Brock-Utne & Skattum, 2009; Benson & Kosonen, 2013).

Along the same line, Zanzibar ELT practitioners and stakeholders have attracted much concern, largely because many of the students are not proficient in English. Similar perceptions of NNESTs’ English skills have also been reported in the literature (Tang, 1997; Árva & Medgyes, 2000; Hayes, 2008; Ma, 2012). Limited English in ITE was further investigated to find out how it impacts the ELT practices of teachers of English in a NNES environment.

Other studies in ESL context reveal that teacher identity and the classroom are indeed affected by the teacher being labelled as a NNEST (Pessoa & Sacchi, 2002a, 2000b;
Lasagabaster & Sierra, 2002; Bernat, 2008). As reported in my study, the PTE group expressed a high level of anxiety, fear and discomfort when learning to teach English. They attributed these feelings to a number of causes: assessment, language of examination, teacher educators’ comments and other labels due to limited proficiency and low English abilities, pressure to learn English without enough support, lack of opportunities and limited exposure to the target language, and teacher educators’ approaches to teaching (fear and anxiety). These concerns were reported frequently by participants, and were markedly have an impact on their ELT practices. A recent study has shown that without taking interests in some of these concerns, English remains as a postcolonial tool (Eoyang, 2003), and the teaching of English will remain unchanged (Brock-Utne, 2013; Rea-Dickins & Yu, 2013).

It was interesting to note that although the teacher educators and their students have in-depth knowledge of theories and principles of L2/FL, making use of the learners’ mother tongue was not acknowledged by any participants in this study. While the positive aspects of education in mother tongue are completely shunned in this educational context, in practical terms, MT (in this case Kiswahili) was largely used in classroom situations. This was contrary to Medgyes (1994) MT’s hypothesis, and contradicts some empirical studies conducted in EFL contexts (Reves & Medgyes, 1994; Arva & Medgyes, 2000). Consequently, the ‘native speaker fallacy’ takes the centre stage in postcolonial Zanzibar (Phillipson, 1992, 2009). This study also suggests that principles of learning L2 are ignored, and the teachers-in-training and graduate level teachers are not well grounded in the knowledge of language, and are undereducated when it comes to language knowledge, both general and specific. My study argues that policy changes are needed to improve the preparation and performance of teachers of English (Rea-Dickins et al., 2005; Rea-Dickins et al., 2009).
Another weakness reported in this study was the lack of self-confidence in using English. Although both teacher educators and PTE concurred that English was a very important tool in teaching and learning setting, their hesitance and lack of confidence are also well-acknowledged by other studies from first world (western countries) and western context (Shin, 2008), and in agreement with findings from research from the margin (Rea-Dickins et al., 2005; Moussu, 2006; Benson & Kosonen, 2013).

Another weakness of ELTE identified in this study was teacher educators’ inability to engage PTE group to reflect on the programme, and inability to motivate PTE to view English and ELT from the positive perspectives. My study reveals that most although English was a valuable language, most PTE had no willpower to communicate in English, unless symbolic or actual punitive threats such as placards, derogatory comments or sort of punishment are used. This may explain why learners have unfounded fear toward certain subjects, and may reject certain professions.

In terms of English abilities and proficiency, the results showed that there were little differences between participants who had an early access to English, those with different age, or geopolitical locations (urban / rural). However, the study shows overall that the teachers of English are not adequately prepared to teach English. Depending on the level of teaching, for example, teacher educators were not trained to the level they currently teach nor were they trained to use special pedagogy to teach L2 trainee. Based on the results, the language aspect was stronger than the teaching aspect, hence the need for further exploration into the aspect of teaching. These results pointed to the need for rigorous effective initial teacher trainings in postcolonial Zanzibar, similar to results reported in the study by Rea-Dickins et al. (2005), Garton et al. (2011) and Emery (2012).
In general, the results of this study indicate that teachers of English have an insufficient grasp of language education, and are unable to teach it effectively. Teachers and most ELT stakeholders are commonly misinformed about LoI and ELT.

**8.1.3 Thematic discussions**

In Chapter 3, literature reminds that the target language is an important attribute of a successful language learner. There is a significant positive relationship between L1 literacy and L2 proficiency (Grabe, 2009). In this study, it was reported that PTE had less confidence to speak English with teacher educators and while in practicum/BTP despite the fact that they have positive attitudes toward English. The presence and use of shared L1 in classrooms may explain the lack of confidence. Available studies show the need for capacity building for teachers in teacher education programme, and the need to centre teachers’ experiences and their voices to be able to understand them and their needs (Hornberger & Swinehart, 2012).

There were also mixed feelings about the use of L1 in L2 classes. Both teacher educators and PTE perceived the use of L1 as both strength and a weakness of ELTE programme. Although the debate of whether or not to use L1 in ELT classes/programme is inconclusive (Varshney & Rolin-Ianziti, 2006), a substantial amount of studies concur that MT/L1 can enhance learners’ understanding and communication with the educators but like my findings, possibly overusing MT/L1 may lead to reduced opportunities in using English (Ma, 2009). It has long been the policy of the Zanzibar as indicated in Zanzibar Education Policy (ZEP) (MoEVT, 2006) that English should be taught through English only and code-switching in classroom instructions is not preferred. However, in the real classroom situations in my study, teachers were observed to switch to L1 to explain new vocabulary.
items, difficult grammar rules, and new concepts, and the main reason given by both teachers and students is that learners have low English proficiency (see Rea-Dickins 2013; Brock-Utne, 2013). Some weaknesses have not been cited in the literature probably because there are few studies conducted in postcolonial contexts, where teacher educators share the same L1 with PTE to seemingly detrimental effect in this case. In this study, the surprising finding at the level of university, and in ITE context was a lack of well and clearly articulated curriculum framework, and understanding of the approaches to use for teaching English as ESL and/or ELF context.

Significantly, the finding from my study imply the need to incorporate reflective practices in teacher education, so that teachers can reflect on their knowledge, attitudes, insights and beliefs about teaching, which are often overlooked (see Richards, Gallo & Renandya, 2001; Borg, 2003; Farrell, 2003a, 2003b; Loughran, 2005, 2006). Richards et al. (2001) reminds that teachers’ beliefs are formed based on teachers’ own schooling, and on observation of their teachers as previously discussed by Lortie (1975). Scholars argue that the effective teacher education programmes are those that allow reflective practices (see Farrell, 2006a, 2006b, 2006c). However, literature in Chapter 3 highlighted that most teacher education programmes appear not to disturb foundational teachers’ beliefs about teaching (Al-Issa & Al-Bulushi, 2010).

8.1.4 Overall summary

Overall, an important observation of this study is what seems to be emerging very strongly in the ELTE strengths-weaknesses storyline is that the ELT is suffused with many more inhibiting factors than driving or enhancing factors. A unique element about this study is that teachers of English in the contexts of Zanzibar are still in the process of
learning English, and are struggling with their own English, and they had to learn to be teachers of English. Although this study shows that there are a number of strengths and weaknesses in ELTE programme in Zanzibar, but English proficiency (L2 proficiency) was a recurring theme. This is consistent with Alexander’s (2009) assertion that with the impact of globalization, proficiency in English is seen as the key to success. The literature in Chapter 3 has clearly shown that language proficiency is also considered to be the primary objective of language education (Shrum & Glisan, 2004); however, a recent study shows that ‘proficiency is not sufficient component of the knowledge base of language teacher’ (Kleinhenz et al., 2007, pp.62-63), other important predictors are necessary. Based on ‘proficiency’ discussion, my analysis of findings in Phase 1 of this study suggests that the ‘teaching’ component is not given a due consideration. This study argues that in order to produce effective teachers of English, a balance between the two is critical.

This section argues that improving English proficiency alone might not be helpful. Studies claims that good language teaching requires more proficiency and more than teacher’s L2 learning experience (Ellis, 2006). The analysis show that without focused attention on how to teach English, the weaknesses or inhibitors of ELTE programme may continue to outweigh the strengths.

8.2 CONCEPTUAL MAPS GUIDING THE THEMATIC DISCUSSIONS FROM THE EXTENSION PHASE

This section discusses data related to the extension phase, which attempts to unpack the impact theme in conversation with other researchers in this field. I wanted to find out: “In what ways do these strengths and weaknesses impact on the way English is taught and practiced in postcolonial Zanzibar?” In this phase, my plan was to gain a deeper
understanding of the strengths and weaknesses of ELTE programme identified in Phase 1 and how they impact the way English is practiced was very crucial.

The conceptual map demonstrates how ELT stakeholders’ perceptions are interrelated (see Figure 8.1). The data revealed a significant complex relationship between L1 and L2 with the context of LoI and ELT. In addition, the connectivity of ELT stakeholders provided a vantage point to identify the main strengths and weaknesses of ELTE programme at university level, which enable the research to unpack their impact on how English is practiced.

![Conceptual Map of Research Participants in Extension Phase](image)

Figure 8.1. Conceptual Map of Research Participants in Extension Phase

The conceptual map has been derived from a number of research activities. First, the results of the questionnaires, with teacher educators and PTE group, conducted to ascertain their views on ELTE programme and language practices at university in order to identify strengths and weaknesses of the programme.
Second, follow-up research activities such as interviews for teacher educators and focus group discussion and biography writing for PTE which explore their views and perception on ELTE programmes and its impacts on the ELT practices. Interviews and classroom observation of university graduates, which are utilized to ascertain the language practices in schools, one of the domains of teacher education. General observation, in domain one (university), and domain two (schools) of teacher education, was considered to give a clear picture of the impact factor. This is noteworthy because the analysis of these data informed the study how ELT is taught and practiced in postcolonial Zanzibar.

Then the extended phase uses interviews with university officials conducted to ascertain their perceptions of the ELT programme and their views on how ELT is practiced by teacher educators and PTE. Interviews with ministry officials, which were conducted to view their perception of ELT as, stipulated in language policy. Interviews with informed experts conducted to gather their opinions on ELT practices in Zanzibar.

As illustrated above, ELT stakeholders need to recognize the complexity of the relationships in terms of programme outcomes, the context in which they practice, assessment, availability of resources, opportunity and support. The complex connectivity clearly shows how the motivation, model, approaches and outcomes can positively or negatively affect ELT practices.

The grounded stories from multiple sources of data revealed complex issues in ELTE programme and ELT. The analysis of themes from their stories, grounded in postcolonial perspectives, revealed the interconnectedness of language and power, which is deeply embedded in the safari of teachers of English. The four aspects that emerged may help to reconceptualize ELTE programme or reform ELT (Widdowson, 1992, 1994;
Canagarajah, 2006; Kumaravadivelu, 2006). In this section, I discuss four aspects that impact upon ELT practices in postcolonial Zanzibar.

8.2.1 Motivation

My study found that there is an imbalance between the promotion of English (language) and pedagogy (teaching). It was evident that the motivation and aspiration to learn English was higher, and the sources of motivation to begin the journey to become a teacher of English, the desire and drive for English teachers to learn English was stronger than the motivation to be in the teaching profession. Despite the current aspirations for English, and the subtle, visible and on-going pressures to learn English as a L2 or FL in Zanzibar, the teaching of English in Zanzibar seem to stumble. Similar to the data I have collected, there is research evidence that ‘motivational lenses’ are important in teacher education, are inextricably related to positive outcomes, and can be a major source for demotivation (Trang & Baldauf, 2007) The motivational lenses may impact on the development of teachers and their students in three ways: during the choice of career, during teacher education studies, and when they are professional teachers (Dörnyei, 1998, 2003; Watt & Richardson, 2008a, 2008b, 2010). There is also general agreement that perceived intrinsic rewards play an important part in attracting new recruits to the profession, the beginning teachers and commitment to teaching (Reid & Cauldwell, 1997; Bridge, 1999; Coulthard & Kyriacou, 2002)

ELT stakeholders reported that the societal perception on the teaching profession has impacted negatively on their motivation for the teaching career. Arguably, their strong desire for English could have a positive influence on their motivation for a quality professional practice. The results of this research have shown that one of the issues that
have impacted negatively on the participants’ motivation to teach English in Zanzibar is a perception that Zanzibar does not respect the teaching profession, despite the fact that they highly value the English language. Participants have attributed this situation to a number of issues discussed in Chapters 6 and Chapter 7.

Bennell’s (2004) study and other studies in Africa and Asia resonated with my findings about the views of Zanzibari teachers of English about ‘English’ and ‘teaching’. In other studies, like this study, teachers report having low occupational status because they do not have equivalent level of academic qualifications as compared to other professionals. According to Bennell (2004), teachers are known as semi-professionals and their lower status is attributed to their number, lower professional standards, which allow easy entry into the teaching profession. Similarly, Bennell (2004) found in his research that the teaching profession is regarded as a last resort, lacks committed personnel, and often times teachers are blamed for the falling standard of education in most developing countries (see also Mullock, 2009).

From my analysis, I concur with Bennell but also noticed that teachers have high expectations of themselves and their profession, even though their status is battered and recognition of their work is poor and low-slung. While I do not seek to disprove Bennell’s work, I however believe that the situation is more complex than Bennell’s findings suggested.

The findings of this research about the ‘lack of aspiration to be teacher’ clearly echo Bennell and Mukyanuzi’s (2005) historical reflection of teachers in Tanzania in the 70s, where they were held in high esteem, respected and recognized as an important professional group enjoying showers of gifts from parents and other community members where the
schools were located. Like Zanzibar, Tanzanian teachers no longer enjoy those privileges, and their needs are neglected. This situation has undermined the teachers’ social status and hence adversely compromised the once strong occupational status (Bennell & Mukyanuzi, 2005). Choi and Tang (2011) made a similar observation that teacher recognition and morale in Hong Kong has been low since the beginning of the 21st century due to negative societal attitude towards the teaching profession (see also de Jesus & Lens, 2005; Javaid, 2009).

The high passion for learning English and low passion in teaching has brought a number of tensions in ELTE programme, which are also extended to ELT practices in postcolonial Zanzibar. Motivation and aspiration in teaching profession have been a topic of concern in most first world countries, reflected also on the margins and in the postcolonial context (Lamb, 2004).

Bennell and Mukyanuzi (2005) concluded that the overall levels of motivation and job satisfaction are generally below expectation among teachers, and more worse among younger teachers. In summary, teacher aspirations and motivation in teaching matters (see Mullock, 2009) and in the case of Zanzibar the situation was complex, there appear to be very strong English aspirations than teaching aspirations. This has also been confirmed by Rea-Dickins and Yu’s (2013) work.

8.2.2 Model

In my study, it was apparent from the results of this research that although there were some good models in ELT practice, there were also a number of issues that cause ambivalences, contradictions and tensions in practice, which impacted on ELT practices. Specifically, deficit models prevail (see Black & Yasukawa, 2012); ineffective and
improper teaching methods caused a large number of negative outcomes such as symbolic violence and fear in teachers’ domain (see Mohamed & Banda, 2008). This is corroborated with the previous study by Holliday (2005), which reveals teacher-fronted classrooms and ‘traditional’ methods are still dominant, despite the fact that many classes have established Communicative Language Teaching (CLT). In a recent study, which used stimulated recall essays from 100 Vietnamese university students of their foreign language learning experiences, Trang and Baldauf (2007) indicated that demotivation was a significant issue for EFL learning. The study found that teaching methods provided the largest source of demotives. The study further suggests that the majority of the participants admitted having suffered from some negative aspects of teaching methods. This raised the need to reconsider the teaching methods that have been used to teach English (or other foreign languages) in order to understand possible mismatches between teaching methods and preferred student learning styles (p.100).

Other studies suggest that teacher education programs around the world are continually undergoing change; however, fundamental beliefs underpinning the programs have not significantly shifted (Darling-Hammond, 2006; Phelan, 2011). Some still reflect hegemonic Anglophone or Eurocentric sentiments influenced and shaped by dominant ideologies and discourses (Asante, 1999; Battiste, 2002). An additional perspective from McLaren (1994, p.182) explain that the ‘maintenance of dominance not by the sheer exercise of force but primarily through consensual social practices—what people say and do, social forms, and social structures produced in specific sites such educational institutions. A key premise here is to show how power and hegemony play a significant role in the education (see McLaren, 2003).
My data show that teacher educators and their students are unknowingly part of this hegemonic process, whereby they perpetuate educational practices that inhibit second language learning.

My analysis of the findings highlights the powerful statement made frequently that Zanzibar has a ‘lack of everything’ culture and this has a significant negative impact on the teaching methods in university settings and school setting. Zanzibar therefore relies heavily on the resources provided by first world nations. It also relies on foreign models, approaches and methodologies in teaching and learning English that are resource dependent. Based on this, teacher-related factors were cited to be the most frequent causes of student fear, anxiety and other sources of demotivation in ELTE programme.

Apart from the lack of resources, assessment of learning models is very traditional in Zanzibar. Studies conducted by VSO confirmed that the education system in Tanzania is based on a British model that test students’ abilities with one final national examination, and lessons tend to be focused on memorization rather than critical thinking, or ‘parrot learning’ as discussed in the work of Loimeier (2009).

In addition to lack of resources and a very traditional assessment approach, teacher educators have very few opportunities for professional development in new and appropriate models for teaching. My discussions with ELT practitioners and ELT stakeholders highlighted the importance of role models, mentors and induction programmes. They spoke of the need for appropriate discussions and sharing teaching ideas (Hobson, 2003; Foster & Newman, 2003). The findings support prior research showing that teacher educators and their students value mentors (Conway, 2001), something that is starkly absent in the Zanzibari context.
8.2.3 Approaches

The findings of this research have indicated that the current institutional context typifies a postcolonial environment from a number of reasons: first, the current teacher education programme at university is described by most ELT practitioners to be a set or a collection of courses, which is bulky and yet it has to be completed within a certain time frame. The teaching is also described to be a set of routines, which happen on daily basis regardless of the circumstance: poor infrastructure, limited English, lack of resources, and lack of support. The ‘lack of everything’ regime mentioned above also contributes to teacher educators and PTE ignoring the principles of second language teaching and learning. Having little support to change the system, teachers and learners with various personal experiences seem to rely predominantly on their past experiences of language learning and beliefs about ESL/EFL. It is these experiences rather than new ideas about teaching approach to ESL/EFL learning have both positive and negative influence on the on-going practices in this field (Zeng & Murphy, 2007). A number of similar issues were discussed in literature such as ‘apprenticeship of observation’-which refers to the intuitive knowledge about teaching acquired from one’s own experience as a learner and its influence on the development of teacher knowledge, which leads to a tendency to imitate the models one has been exposed to as a learner (Loughran, 2013).

Importantly, and possibly related to the ‘lack of everything’ culture, ‘fear’ was found to be the most inhibiting factor in the ELT practices of my participants. However, the concept of fear remains an uncharted territory for many ELT practitioners in Zanzibar. Based on my personal experiences (see Ismail 2005, 2007), this phenomenon seems to be an everyday phenomenon in the language teacher education, but that its existence and scope have not been adequately investigated especially in NNES context, and in Zanzibar. Fear-
related studies in education are scarce and are only recently beginning to receive more attention (Derevensky, 1974; Palmers, 1998; Bauman, 2006; Harkins, Forrest & Keener, 2009; Jackson, 2010; Glassman, 2011). The key concern about fear in educational context is that it is considered dominant, insidious, and is central to many education discourses but the poverty of research in the ELT practices particularly in non-native classrooms and contexts.

Previous studies narrowly focused on test anxiety or exam-stress, and some rely on self-report instruments to measure pupil stress. On the other hand, the study conducted by Harkins et al. (2009) encourages teacher educators to reflect upon stories of their own fears to help prospective teachers come to grips with fears. The authors espouse that stories inform and shape teacher educators’ practice and research. Other studies address fear as part of negative learning outcomes (Sprinkle, Hunt, Simonds, & Comadena, 2006; Putwain & Roberts, 2009). Analysis of my data confirms that fear is a dominant underlying theme in the teaching and learning of English as a non-native speaker and my analysis further confirmed that fear is (re)produced daily in teachers’ domains that are schools and university classrooms across Zanzibar. The fear phenomenon in language teacher education will not cease without significant systemic changes to the approach, methods and approaches taken to the teaching and learning of English.

Certainly, studies show that teaching methods and approaches in ELT classrooms are common themes to be addressed in non-western countries (Gow, Kember, & Chow, 1991; Trang & Baldauf, 2007), and instructions must be linked to actual experience in classroom, but teacher educators receive little or no training in the theoretical underpinnings and practical applications of, which can be problematic (Littlewood, 2007, 2008, 2011). For example, Enever and Moon (2009) reported that CLT is a method that has
its origins in EFL teaching for adults in western countries where groups are small and classrooms well-equipped. Many have observed that these approaches may not be appropriate for teaching children in over-crowded classrooms with few resources and very different educational traditions (see G. Hu, 2002). Garton et al. (2011) reported that the consequence of all these factors was often a gap between pedagogic policy and classroom practices (see also Y. Hu, 2005a, 2005b; Nunan, 2003; Nikolov, 2009).

Given the overall poor proficiency levels of speakers of English in Zanzibar, the tensions between teaching approaches, models and learning the language were evident in participants’ responses. Echoing my participants, Fillmore and Snow (2000) found that teacher educators must know enough about language learning and language itself to evaluate the appropriateness of various methods, materials, and approaches for helping students make progress in learning English, to raise questions and issues related to improving practice (Murrell, Diez, Feiman-Nemser & Schussler, 2010), to have expertise to know what teacher needs to know and be able to do (Darling-Hammond, 2006; Loughran, 2012) and to navigate mandated curriculum and pedagogy (Diez, 2010). In addition, I would suggest that fear has a significant impact on teacher educators’ confidence when they know that what are recognized to be effective teaching approaches for their profession will be virtually impossible to utilize. Trang and Baldauf (2007, p.100) suggested that:

While teachers cannot cater for all student needs, surveying students’ expectations of teachers and satisfaction with methodology in tertiary courses can make teaching more effective and more closely aligned with students’ needs. Appropriate teacher classroom behavior also needs attention because negative behaviors usually hurt students, leaving them with negative feelings toward English that are difficult to overcome.
8.2.4 Outcome

The findings suggested that instances of symbolic violence and exploitative practices occurring in the ‘lack of everything’ culture; fear, tensions, double standards, bilingual policy that has monolingual traits is common. Drawing on postcolonial perspectives, the findings show how these issues affect the lives of teachers of English in postcolonial Zanzibar and how all of these factors impact on the outcomes that many graduates enter the teaching profession with insufficient skills to speak or teach English confidently. The insight of the findings informs us about the complex interplay of linguistic issues and pedagogic issues. Bringing these two issues together may help to reshape teacher education in postcolonial Zanzibar.

Previous studies from the first world support this study about the outcomes of teacher education programme, examining issues such as graduate knowledge, skills and dispositions; in other words, have candidates learnt what they were taught (Diez, 2010) (see Morss & Murray, 2005).

Al-Haddad & Shuib’s (2005) study reported current and future language needs of English majors in Yemen. Responses of the undergraduates revealed that they needed English for academic study and for teaching after graduation. In contrast, with the undergraduates' expectations of their future language needs, the graduates' responses showed that those who work as teachers used English less frequently than those who work in other jobs. This finding concurs with my study findings as it shows that teachers of English do not use ‘English’ as a language of instruction while in the classroom (see also Al-Tamimi & Shuib, 2010).
My findings also resonate with Popham’s (2009) study, which reminds of the need for teacher educators to develop meaningful grading and assessments system. As discussed above, grading and assessment practices in Zanzibar are very traditional, reflecting the lack of resources and possibly teacher skills to change assessment practices. Most studies agree that if classroom practices are weak, whether in the university or school classroom, then it will have the double impact of doing disservice to the teacher candidates (prospective teachers and graduates), and providing limited modeling practices that they should not but almost inevitably will imitate.

With the emergence of teacher training and education of teachers in higher education, the data also show that the concept of quality in teacher education or higher education was important, which has been at the forefront for several decades (Kleinhenz, et al., 2007). Although a body of literature available on quality studies found that it is impossible to describe or define what quality is, Pirsig (1976) suggested that everybody can recognize it when they see it (see also Fensham & West, 1990). Though dated, this perspective is still valid today. The bulk of literature also support this study as it argues that at the core of any profession, and particularly one as important as teaching, is the quality of its practice (Scriven 1988; Ramsden, 2003; Commonwealth of Australia, 2008).

One aspect of the ‘quality’ argument, which was highlighted in my study as a significant limitation affecting the outcome, was the needs of the teachers of English (Canagarajah, 2005). Participants in my study mentioned that the ‘outcome’ of persistent failure to educate students well in either their speaking of the English language or their skills or understanding of appropriate teaching methods for the ESL/EFL/MT classrooms. The lesson in both domains (university and schools) reflected traditional forms of instruction, fear, tensions in practice, lack of confidence that they considered all persist for
a reason—that is the context of teaching and learning, the lack of motivation (Tran & Baldauf, 2007), and guided by poor models, approaches and policies (see for example Y.Hu, 2005a, 2005b; Phillipson, 2006; G.Hu, 2007; Ushioda 2010, 2012)

If there is no investment in the ongoing professional development of teacher educators, in the development of the skills, knowledge and understanding, then arguably, the overall outcomes for the teaching of English in Zanzibar will remain poor.

8.2.5 Overall summary

In general, it was found that all of the four aspects of the safari reveal that there were more negative attributes impacting upon ELT practices than the positive ones. The safari is, indeed, a difficult one.

On the positive side, analysis of these data indicates one important issue that English is highly valued in Zanzibar community like elsewhere in the world. The majority of teachers of English have perceived their source of motivation and desire to remain in the English teaching profession to be from both internal and external factors. This is consistent with the study conducted in a range of contexts(see Trice, 2003; Derbel & Richards, 2007; Harryba, Guilfoyle, & Knight, 2011, 2012a & 2012b for first world context)(see also Rassool, 2007; Brock-Utne & Skattum, 2009, Kamwangamalu, 2009 for postcolonial contexts) and (see Rea-Dickins et al., 2005, E. Davidson, 2007; Rea-Dickins & Yu, 2013 for Tanzania and Zanzibar).

On the negative side however, a cause for concern is that there are many taken-for-granted routines that emerged in all four aspects of the safari. The few studies conducted in Tanzania similarly reported that teaching English in Tanzania is very challenging (Rea-
Dickins et al., 2005; Rea-Dickins & Afitska, 2010). Other negative aspects of the safari are consistent with the studies conducted in many countries particularly, first world and the margin (postcolonial context) (see Al-Haq, & Smadi, 1996; Buschenhofen, 1998; Vélez-Rendón, 2002; Andrews, 2006; Trang & Baldauf, 2007; Moore & Burns, 2008; Shuib, 2008 for review).

Overall, the approaches and models for the journey were mostly unsuitable. As for the outcomes, it is clear that overall, this English language safari is long, arduous and in the end, not necessarily satisfying. In conversation with others who have journeyed other difficult safaris in other places, and as literature reveal, sometimes, it is necessary for teachers of English in this study to take a difficult safari. The discussion that follows focuses on the historical aspect of the safari.

8.3 INSIGHT FROM HISTORICAL ARTIFACTS

The data shows that the teaching of English was considered very essential, and the hegemonic power of English was very visible. Although in the past, there were some instances that indicate that the teaching of English was imposed on learners, the observation of historical facts gave insights to the safari of teachers of English. The historical artifacts identified a number of selected key themes such as teachers’ talk and teachers’ time, the context of teaching and learning a foreign language, mother tongue education, linguistic burden, and supporting teachers with resources and opportunities. The needs and importance of these themes in language learning and teaching have been frequently mentioned in literature as discussed in Chapter 1, 2 and 3. Consequently there were thematically classified as teacher-related, context-related, learner-related, language-related and/or institution-related factors.
As explained earlier, the data show that there was a room to consider local languages and local contexts in the teaching of English during colonial time (see studies by Babaci-Wilhite, 2010; Brock-Utne, 2013). Reconsidering context, culture, language opportunities and comprehensible input was also important (Krashen, 1982; Ellis, 1988, 1990; Kramsch, 1993; Doughty & Long, 2003; Lightbown & Spada, 2006).

Similarly, scaffolding and strengthening literacy in mother tongue for L2 learners was given a due consideration. In comparison, with other sources of data, the historical artifacts data match with the other sources of data as they indicate that the principles of learning a second language are overlooked or taken for granted. Weak foundation in L1 acts as an impediment to academic and intellectual proficiency (Hamp-Lyons, Hood, Sengupta, Curtis, & Yan, 1999). Similar to the ELT practitioners’ data, there was evidence, support and resources in language teaching cannot be overemphasized (Moon, 2007; Maalim, 2009).

From the colonial perspective, it was also found out that students have enough ‘linguistic burden’ (English, Kiswahili and Arabic). Although the question of linguistic burden is obvious, the absence of previous research on this area inhibits understanding of this phenomenon. Similarly, the scope of this study did not allow a further exploration of ‘linguistic burden’, however, the ‘linguistic burden’ projection from the past might have a bearing on the impact on ELT practices in postcolonial Zanzibar for two reasons: first, ELT stakeholders might hold the beliefs that learning extra foreign languages is a linguistic burden, and two, the mindset that English is the only essential language, which might create an ‘English monolingualism mindset’ (Gogolin, 2002; Clyne, 2008).
Many spoke of the excess baggage associated with their English language safari, something that directly speaks to the possibility of the burden being both historical but also deeply personally felt cognitively and emotionally.

Based on the findings of my study, the data suggests that apart from English limitation, there is the need for intensive theoretical and practical training in teacher education. Before theorizing the safari of teachers of English, the key question to ask is that ‘Does Zanzibar prepares her teachers to be effective ‘teachers of English’? Studies show that it is imperative that teachers of English needs knowledge about language to be successful with a range of learners, and a solid foundation on which to base their instructional practices (see the discussion in Chapter 3).

In the previous chapter, I presented my analysis of the data about the four aspects of the safari: motivation, approaches and technique, model and outcomes. In what follows, I discuss the insights gleaned from the grounded stories of ELT practitioners and key ELT stakeholders as a way to explicate the overarching themes related to ELT. My intention is to add to the existing body of theoretical, methodological, and practical knowledge in the fields of ELT, and teacher education.

8.4 SYMBOLIC POWER OF ENGLISH IN TEACHERS DOMAINS

In an attempt to answer the research question, first, the study found that there are a number of strengths and weaknesses in ELTE programme at university level.

Second, the strengths and weaknesses identified in ELTE in the context of initial teacher education (ITE) impacted ELT practices in four aspects: motivation, models, approaches and outcomes. My analysis found that consideration of the previously
mentioned four aspects indicated stronger negative impacts than positive impacts on ELT practices in postcolonial Zanzibar.

Third, there is obvious, subtle, and on-going overemphasis of learning English rather than learning to teach it effectively. This suggests that teacher educators and their students were very conscious of English and its role in their daily practices. My findings also indicate that for most participants that mastering English in ELTE programme was a more highly valued aspect than mastering teaching skills.

Fourth, given the large proportion of participants (ELT practitioners and stakeholders) reported that they focus more on learning English than on learning how to teach it. It is clear that not only does the phenomenon of hegemonic power of English exist in ELTE programme but this imbalance also creates serious problems. In all cases, it was evident that the initial teacher training at university level is guided and shaped by the symbolic power of English while rigorous trainings in developing teacher candidates’ skills, knowledge, understanding and teacher disposition are largely ignored. Consequently, the process of being and becoming a teacher is informed and guided by the symbolic power of English as illustrated in Figure 8.2. This conclusion was drawn based on all the findings from my study and the studies reviewed in this research.
It should be noted that the results from this study were interpreted considering the context of postcolonial Zanzibar. Therefore, based on the multiple perspectives of teacher educators and their students (PTE and graduates), officials (university and ministry), and informed experts (foreigners and locals), it was possible to deduce an interesting observation that the ‘Symbolic Power of English’ has explanatory power to integrate my findings and assist to understand the challenges facing my country.
The analysis of these multiple sources of data collected to explore the safari of teachers of English in Zanzibar clearly show how being and becoming a teacher of English in Zanzibar has been constructed through the symbolic power of English.

Through the lenses of postcolonial theoretical frame, L2 theories and pedagogy of teacher education, the teacher educators and their students’ experiences were examined for deeper meanings. The current practices have connection with the history of colonialism in Zanzibar. It is clear that there are colonial dusts on the shelves that hold ELT in educational institutions and settings of Zanzibar. The ‘dust’ masks colonial attitudes, impositions and retentions that continue to shape the status of Zanzibari teachers’ training college as legitimate tertiary institutions.

These results further suggest that the symbolic power of English is a significant aspect that impacts on ELTE programme and ELT practices in both domains of teacher education that is in the university and in schools. Throughout this study, it was evident that symbolic power of English had a negative impact on teachers of English and their practices. More specifically symbolic power of English demonstrates strong negative impact on teacher educators’ practices and PTE learning in the university. It also negatively impacts on teacher graduate practices and their students’ learning in schools. In general, the symbolic power of English prevents ELT practitioners and ELT stakeholders from gaining desired outcomes. As a consequences, the symbolic power of English needs to be specifically addressed in ELT in postcolonial Zanzibar

The findings from other studies about the general insufficiency of teacher training have been thoroughly discussed in Chapter 3. My findings support and move forward the

…Not only might the relationship between applied linguistics knowledge and language teaching be more complex than theorized, it is possible that we are, unwittingly and with the best of intentions, imposing practices of applied linguistics discourse community on language teachers during teacher education which are not helpful for the practice of language teaching (Bartels, 2005, forward, p.ix)

Similarly, the overall findings of this study concur with Cook’s (1999, p.185) observation that language teaching has to pay attention to L2 user rather than concentrating primarily on the native speakers. Cook (1999) is of the view that:

If students and teachers see L2 learning as a battle that they are fated never to win, little wonder they become dispirited and give up. L2 learners’ battle to become native speakers is lost before it has begun. If they are convinced of the benefits of learning a second language and recognize their unique status as standing between two worlds and two cultures, more students may go on higher levels of L2 use… (p.204).

From the data, it is clearly evident that the colonial mentality still lingers into many peoples’ minds and in the context of education without considering the principles of teaching a second language. This type of thinking is affecting the teaching of English thus reducing teacher educator commitment level and posing consequences on student learning outcomes because in order to produce quality teachers of English, it is important to create a conducive environment for the acquisition of knowledge about teaching and knowledge about English. It is also evident from this research that the low levels of English and low morale in teaching reduces the productivity of teachers of English, which negatively impacts on the ELT. In general, this study argues that ELT in postcolonial Zanzibar would benefit if it pays attention to both English itself, and the teaching of English.
To sum up, language education in postcolonial Zanzibar is affected by a number of issues as explained in previous chapters. It seems that the teaching of English in Zanzibar can be described as taking a safari with an ‘unbalanced wheelbarrow’ i.e. teaching English in Zanzibar is like hauling a wheelbarrow full of unbalanced slurry. The ‘unbalanced wheelbarrow’ in this work depicts the concept that I consider needs to guide the improvement of university-based teacher education programmes, dealing with ELT directly or indirectly, the symbolic power of English.

Since ELT in postcolonial Zanzibar is threatened by the current English abilities of ELT practitioners, and the poor knowledge-base of language education programmes and bilingual education programmes, this status quo elevates the value of the English language while rendering Kiswahili invisible.

The symbolic power of English has impacted on a number of issues in the preparation of teachers of English. In general, the current ELTE programme demonstrate chaos, challenges, tensions, which in turn reflect forced choices of using English, confused pedagogies due to culture clashes and incompatible approaches in the language classrooms, lack of motivation to be teachers among learners, fear pedagogy, absence of the joy of learning to teach and learning English and a generally hostile teaching and learning environment. A marked impact is that literacy in Kiswahili is completely ignored. Other impacts are explained in subsequent sections.

While analysis of ELT practitioners’ views revealed shared facets of professional identities, the present study helps us to see how symbolic power of English shapes identities and perceptions of teachers of English (teacher educators, PTE or graduates). On the other hand, ‘being and becoming a teacher of English’ was found to be a complex
process with multiple interrelated factors. The safari ‘to be and to become a teacher of English’ is mainly guided by the symbolic power of English. This means that teacher training is hypnotized by the power of English. To (be) come a teacher of English is theorized to focus on symbolic power of English, which involves the symbolic competence and symbolic proficiency of English, rather than knowledge, skills and dispositions.

This typifies a postcolonial environment because teacher educators and their students are situated and working in a system that could be described as informed by symbolic power. In this kind of system, teacher educators and their students become invisible in practice and are controlled and manipulated by the power of English.

Exploring the strengths and limitations of ELT in the university context, and then extended to the exploration by finding out how the drivers and inhibitors identified impact the way English is taught in postcolonial Zanzibar, the safari metaphor was the most important way of understanding the symbolic power of English in ELT practices in the context of Zanzibar. The vocabularies used are of life experience orientation and are a reflection of way of being and becoming. I drew on their metaphors and example, using their words to associate ELT and its practices in Zanzibar to the following concepts: “combat zones”, “battle”, “battlefield”, “theatre of war”, “soap opera”, “palliative care unit”, band-aids, revolving door where experts come and go, “glorious martyr”, “barbershop mythology where trials and errors are performed on certain heads”, “boat with a hole”, “scuttled ship”, “leaky bucket”, “a cargo with no Handle with Care label” “unhealed wound”, “incense” “no ultimate destination”, “unbalanced wheel barrow” “a long way to go” and “(long) safari ” “rocky”, “wounded soldier”, being at the cross-roads’ (Chapter 1 and Chapter 4 ). Hypothetically, I visualize these concepts and then place teachers of English (teacher educators and their students) in these settings. It is at this juncture that the
metaphor ‘safari’ (the journey) was adopted to explain the experiences of teachers of English (See Chapter 1). Using the metaphor safari, teachers/practitioners experience, beliefs, voices and perspectives as collected from the field, unfold and I therefore consume, digest information and construct, build and grow theories.

In general, ELT in Zanzibar is in a state of reform and transition (still in the making) but without clear directions, a circumstance, which left many ELT stakeholders including ELT practitioners, bewildered. Likewise, the teacher education issues are very much on the agenda in Zanzibar, like anywhere else in Sub Saharan Africa (Tafa, 2001; Barret, 2005) and across the globe (Hinkel, 2011). This research adds to this debate by providing grounded data from teachers of English in postcolonial, Zanzibar. While data is available on the effectiveness of English Language Teaching (ELT), and the English medium education in various African countries (Rubagumya, 1989, 2003; Brock-Utne, 2008; Babaci-Wilhite, 2013a). The results of my study highlight consistencies and inconsistencies with the findings of other empirical studies from the field of ELT. The following section highlights the findings of my study.

8.4.1 Balancing passion and pedagogies

My study has clearly demonstrated that that there is an urgent need to strike the balance between the aspiration for English and the teaching career. The existing love-hate relationship between English and the teaching profession was a major concern in my study. As discussed above, there is more passion for English but less passion for teaching profession, and this situation has serious negative impacts on the ELT practices in postcolonial Zanzibar. Negative attitudes toward teaching affects the teaching enthusiasm reduce commitment level and pose a number of other negative consequences on student
learning outcomes. Studies have shown that improvement in teacher morale and new career architecture has positive impact on students’ learning outcomes (see Bennell, 2004; Bennell & Mukyanuzi, 2005; Bennell & Akyeampong, 2007; Dinham, 2011a, 2011b).

Like elsewhere in postcolonial Africa, previous and current studies in postcolonial Zanzibar confirm that the aspirations for English have been the driving force behind language policies mandating the use of English as LoI in schools (Rea-Dickins & Yu, 2013).

Informed and non-informed stakeholders support English to be the medium of education, and an ‘early start’ (see Rea-Dickins et al., 2005; Rea-Dickins, Yu & Afitska, 2009). The results of my research acknowledge other findings that the acquisition of knowledge particularly L2 requires a conducive environment (Spolsky, 2009).

A number of instances from this study have demonstrated that teachers of English are subjected to various forms of violence: subtle, visible and on-going violence. For example: policies, programmes and reforms are imposed on their daily practices without sufficient resources, support and opportunities. From a postcolonial perspective, this type of imposition silences teachers of English and make them feel powerless.

This study also shows that although all ELT stakeholders in Zanzibar have the love for English beyond normal, their love does not match the national commitment level to improve the levels of English (See Rea-Dickins & Yu, 2013). It is therefore important to create opportunities and supportive environment for both English and teaching profession to flourish to improve the quality of knowledge, understanding, and pedagogic skills (Sanford, Williams, Hopper, & McGregor, 2012).
8.4.2 Linguistic knowledge vs pedagogic practice

This study is about preparing the teachers of English. My data clearly demonstrates that ELT practitioners and key stakeholders overemphasis on the learning of English rather than learning to teach it effectively. They insisted on the use of ‘English only’ in education despite the limitations that English poses in teaching and learning contexts. This finding concurs with those of Brock-Utne (2005a, 2005b), Benson, Heugh, Bogale, & Gebre Yohannes (2010) and Rea-Dickins & Yu (2013). Old and new studies confirm that students are challenged by LoI when ‘trying to develop simultaneously their linguistic skills and school subject knowledge’ (see also Kosonen & Benson, 2013, p.12).

This research has also demonstrated that teachers are not trained to teach subject(s) effectively using a second language (L2) despite the fact they are expected to teach all secondary subjects in a foreign medium (English). As illustrated earlier, the majority of PTE take two major teaching subjects, apart from Kiswahili-all other subjects are expected to be taught in English. This means that the teacher candidates require rigorous training at university on how to teach subjects in English. Illustrating these findings, previous studies highlighted the need to accommodate people and their aspirations of English by training teachers with special pedagogy (See also Rea-Dickins et al., 2005; Clegg, 2007).

8.4.3 Effective reflective practices

The literature consulted in Chapters 2 and 3 concurs with the work of Smith (1991) and Hickling-Hudson, Mathews and Woods (2004) that ‘the unreflective practices of colonization …continue to silence other ways of knowing and being, with an ongoing and profound impact on the lives of indigenous people’ (p.6). A thorough review of the pertinent literature in the context of Zanzibar has shown that no studies have been conducted on
teacher education at university level involving ELT from a qualitative perspective. The importance of reflective practices has been thoroughly discussed in literature (van Manen, 1977; Hall, 1997; Freeman, 1999; Loughran, 2002; Hatton & Smith, 2005; Al-Issa & Al-Bulushi, 2010; Farrell, 2013).

Based on the number of issues such as THE fear as discussed in Chapter 5 and Chapter 8, a thorough analysis of data raised one key concern that the preparation of teachers of English need to look into practices, and do a reflection (Crowe & Berry, 2007; Loughran & Berry, 2008).

8.4.4 Ignoring the principles and debates on learning a second language

 Suppressing L1 in the context of postcolonial Zanzibar has far-reaching implication in teacher education. As the data indicates, the principles of teaching and learning a second language continue to be ignored and taken-for-granted routines flourish, and promoting the place of Kiswahili in teacher education may sound alien or unjust.

It was found that English is not properly taught nor resourced in education. This is evidence to show that if the ELTE (university or school) environment is not supportive enough for the teaching and learning of English to take place, teachers of English as well as students of English (in primary and secondary school) do not have an opportunity learn English properly, and the teaching of English remains under par hence any conclusions or decision remains ‘unjust’ because there is not the optimum environment for development in the first place. As this study reveals, since English is only learnt or taught in the domain of four walls of the classroom or lecture rooms, and Kiswahili remains as a major domain in Zanzibar home, there is little possibility for teachers of English to acquire it at home (see Rubagumya, 2003).
These taken-for-granted routines pave way in the safari of teachers of English, and arguably withhold the provision of high quality teacher education. For example, despite of the training in language education received by most ELT stakeholders, some myths about an English language education persist. As shown in previous chapters, some stakeholders favour monolingual instruction as the only way PTE or students in primary and secondary school can learn and use English for educational purposes. They are of the view that using two languages, in this case Kiswahili and English would bring confusion on the part of learners of English. This belief concurs with Separate Underlying Proficiency (SUP), a theory of bilingual education where two languages apparently work against each other. However, other studies argue it is wrong to assume that the brain has limited amount of room for language skills, thereby making monolingual instruction preferable to bilingual instruction (Baker, & Prys-Jones, 1998; Rea-Dickins et al., 2005; Baker, 2006).

This approach causes a setback in preparing quality teachers of English, and promoting English monolingualism in all aspects of education. This study would argue that the insistence on monolingualism thwarts evidence-based discussion on the role and potential of bilingualism and biliteracy in teacher education in Zanzibar, even in teaching and learning English.

Among the study assumptions stated in Chapter 1, there is a poor comprehension of the concepts of language education, bilingual education and language-in-education. The assumption was evident among the ELT stakeholders’ accounts of strengths and weaknesses of ELTE programme and was cited in the ELT classroom practices.

ELT stakeholders assume that if English and Kiswahili are taught as a compulsory subject in primary, secondary or tertiary education, that this in itself reflects bilingual
practices. According to the participants’ views in this study of the fact that there are two languages in education is enough for them, and does qualify the education system to be known as a bilingual education system. This reflects a poor understanding of bilingual education. Several studies reminded that bilingual education is the use of two languages in instruction (García, 1997, 2009; Brock-Utne, 2012a; Desai, 2012). Some teacher educators and the officials who are responsible for the language education and language-in-education policy, and the PTE group, who are prepared to implement the policy- all seemed to have either a poor understanding of language education or accept the misconceptions of language education (see Tibategeza, 2010).

Strengthening mother tongue for second language learners is widely documented around the world. However, what is missing in Zanzibar is ‘Kiswahili does not have much opportunity in education’, especially if the PTE choses to major English and other subjects. It is important to note that in the current teacher education programme, Kiswahili is not emphasized. For that reason, Kiswahili is only taken by students who major Kiswahili and who will go in school after graduation to teach Kiswahili. In this case, biliteracy cannot be achieved. On the contrary, and somewhat ironically, during colonial times, Kiswahili had a special place in teacher education and teacher preparations.

8.4.5 Decolonizing practices

The data I have collected from ELT practitioners and stakeholders is consistent with the findings of Brock-Utne (2013), and Rea-Dickins & Yu (2013). Previous data put that Zanzibar ‘ignores the debate about the reproduction of cultural capital and power structures in educational systems’ (Brock-Utne, 2013, p.89) (see also Bruner, 1966, 1996; Bourdieu, 1986; Bourdieu & Passeron, 1977; Brock-Utne, 2000, 2001).
If Zanzibar has to provide quality teacher education that meets the needs of teachers of English, the need to reconceptualized the ELTE programme and initiate new educational intervention, it is necessary for ELT stakeholders to engage critically with the existing dominant structures and old colonial inheritances in order to understand better the local situation of Zanzibar. It is also important to understand teachers’ beliefs, which are not necessarily erased by teacher training programmes. Literature shows that it is important to recognize the impact, which teachers’ experiences have on the formation of their professional knowledge (Wallace, 1991; McKay, 2002). Additionally, as shown in Chapters 2, 5 and 6, the legacies of the past have created a colonial dust cover, and facilitated a unidirectional way of looking at issues related to teaching and learning English. The results also indicated that teachers of English are not ‘acting their own scripts’ but are used to act upon other people scripts, and for the large part are shaped by past and outsider ideas, beliefs and practices without questioning. This status quo can be undone by pedagogies that ‘fit’ in the local context of postcolonial Zanzibar otherwise ‘the ambition for English may remain a pipe dream’ (Rea-Dickins & Yu, 2013). The voices of the participants in this study confirm that it is necessary to understand the contradictions of local contexts, and do things differently or in a way that fits contexts (see Hickling-Hudson et al., 2004). A number of empirical studies from the margin confirm that current situation may remain so if the impacts of historical, political, economic and social factors on the local contexts are not considered (Ouane & Glanz, 2011).

8.4.6 The need to understand the pedagogy of teacher education

Deep analysis of strengths and weaknesses has clearly profiled the safari of teachers of English in postcolonial Zanzibar. Although the majority were overwhelmingly positive toward English, they were not very keen to become part of the teaching profession. The
point I want to raise here is that teaching is a craft, and this craft is practiced differently in universities and schools. My data revealed that the pedagogy of teacher education is not well-understood in Zanzibar. Teacher education studies shows that at the level of university, teaching should not be reduced to a set of routines, and tasks which just need to be completed without putting much effort into reflecting and asking important questions like why the teacher do what they are doing (Boyer, 1990; Loughran, 2012 &2013).

Teachers need to be supported to undertake research and to reflect on their practice, aspects that are presently almost non-existent for teacher educators at the university level. Clearly, good teachers of English require more than ‘good English’. For example, Wallace (1991) reminds that teachers need sound professional training in how languages are structured, how they are learned, and how they might best be taught. Similarly, ZNA AD1/176 archival notes put it ‘… the language-teaching must be clearly seen as being indissolubly linked with research and study in linguistics, and in pedagogy’ (p.6).

In short, looking at the data of this study, the interpretations in this chapter focused on the number of aspects as explained. First, one of the findings of the study that is consistent with the general results reported in previous studies is that the major weakness of ELTE is related to poor English abilities. Second, the discussion of the four major aspects (motivation, models, approaches and outcomes) raises an important question in the field of ELT and teacher education. The discussion was organized around the principles and theories of L2 pedagogy together with the principles of pedagogy of teacher educator and postcolonial theories all coming together to play a significant role in the discussion and interpretation of the data. How do we translate second language learning theories to pedagogic practices? In general, it was found there is an overemphasis on the learning of English rather than learning to teach it effectively in postcolonial Zanzibar. This also
suggests that ELTE/ELT programme seems to ignore the principles of learning a second/foreign language, and circulated around the fallacy of native speakerism. Additionally, very little is known about the university pedagogy, and the pedagogy of teacher education in Zanzibar. Furthermore, the study assumptions were substantially confirmed as matters that contributed directly to the safari experience of teacher educators and their students in the presentation and discussion of the data. This is because the assumptions unveiled the core aspects of the sociolinguistic analysis and education-sociocultural context and myths in language education and pedagogy of teacher education, which are informed by symbolic power of English. Third, the study has found that the symbolic power of English is the key limiting factor in ELTE programme in postcolonial Zanzibar. This both confirms and extends what research is available about the Zanzibar context. The study also highlights the discrepancy between the individual and societal aspirations, language/education policies and the profound failure of the education system to produce skilled and knowledgeable, confident English language teachers. The perpetuation of this widespread mental malady prevalent in the education system continues to linger on, which in turn impact on the quality teacher education and the delivery of high quality ELT at university and schools.

8.5 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter has discussed the major findings of the research on strengths and weaknesses of ELTE—a university-based teacher education programme in consideration of the literature. I have structured the discussion to describe the strengths and weaknesses of ELTE in five broad parts according to the main findings of the research. The strengths and weaknesses have been categorized into individual factors, programme outlook, organizational/institutional contexts and culture, policy decisions, and community attitudes,
beliefs, and perceptions. I then explored the impact of these strengths and weaknesses on the ELT practices. The study confirms that the strengths and weaknesses in teacher training impact both positively and negatively on the way English is taught/learnt and practiced. The analysis in the extension phase specified how the strengths and weaknesses of ELTE so impact in particular areas.

I have identified the gaps and similarities in the literature when considering the context of Zanzibar using three sets of theories, that is theories of linguistics and those bodies of applied linguistics concerned with how to learn to speak English, theories concerned with teaching teachers how to teach English within the field of , language, pedagogy, and finally, postcolonial theory. In summary, it is important to note that previous studies have identified gaps and the poverty of research in this area of study. Existing literature in Zanzibar provides a key hole insight into the checkered knowledge that currently exists. As shown in Chapters 1 and 3, most policy and teacher educator development is borrowed from first world contexts and very few studies have been conducted in Zanzibar. The findings of this study go some way to address the gaps that have previously been identified by researchers such as Rea-Dickins et al. (2005) in their study of the state of Applied Linguistic research in Zanzibar. My study contributes to all three fields: postcolonial studies, language education and teacher education as summarized in the concluding chapter. The final chapter restates the nature and objectives of the study. It then proceeds to describe the significant findings, outline its limitations and make suggestions for further research.
CHAPTER 9
CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

9.0 INTRODUCTION

In this final chapter, the research findings are summarized, the implications of the findings, and further research in the area, are discussed.

9.1 THE STUDY

This study has argued that research into language teacher education has not yet adequately investigated the NNESTs in their own working contexts. This qualitative study of teacher educators and their students reported the safari of teachers of English in postcolonial Zanzibar. The safari traced the lives of L2 teachers in the process of being and becoming teachers of English. The study sets out to identify the main strengths and weaknesses of the English language teacher education (ELTE) programme at university level in postcolonial Zanzibar. The research question was: What are the strengths and weaknesses of English Language Teacher Education (ELTE) programme at university level in postcolonial Zanzibar?

Phase 1 of the study focused on a sample of 11 teacher educators and 40 prospective English teachers (PTE group) which led to the identification of the main strengths and weaknesses of ELTE programme. This framework was used as the basis for the extension of Phase1, which further investigated the impact of these strengths and weaknesses on ELT practices for key informants.

The extension phase involved teacher educators and their students (both PTE group and graduates) and other key influential stakeholders. A specific focus in the extension
phase was to unpack the ‘Impact theme’ to find out in what ways the strengths and limitations identified affect the way ELT is practiced in postcolonial Zanzibar.

The data was collected from ELT stakeholders involving ELT practitioners (teacher educators, PTE and graduates) and other ELT key stakeholders (official and informed experts). The research was informed by personal quests, anecdotal evidence, corridor conversations identifying common concerns, which in turn introduced a process of reflection and questioning. My study was underpinned by a critical review of the literature and informed by empirical studies from two contexts, first world context and the margin (postcolonial context). Particular reference was made to postcolonial Zanzibar.

9.2 THE SHAPE OF THE STUDY

This qualitative study developed in an ongoing manner to identify the main strengths and weaknesses of English language teacher education (ELTE) programme at university level in Zanzibar from the perspective of teacher educators and their students.

In Phase 1, the specific objective was to describe the strengths and weaknesses that contributes or hinders the provision of ELTE programme from the perspective of teacher educators and PTE. The data were collected from the teacher educators and PTE questionnaires.

The preliminary findings in Phase 1 suggested that English is a highly valued language and a favoured subject. However, the limited English abilities were a major impasse for teachers of English in the context of initial teacher education. The repercussion of ‘English-lack and English-want’ seems to create a number of tensions in delivering ELTE in teacher preparation. There is no direct literature to support these findings because most research has been conducted from the first world research contexts, and there is a
general poverty of literature from the margin. This vulnerability of ELTE programme at university provided the context and the stance for conducting further inquiry. As a consequence, the major findings were used as a framework to extend Phase 1.

Two levels of analysis were conducted in Phase 1: Level one analysis (open coding) was conducted to answer to the overarching question, to identify strengths and weaknesses of ELTE programme at university, which led to the identification of a number of drivers and inhibitors that help or hinder the preparation of high quality teacher education (Chapters 5 and 6). The analysis indicated two important things: it became evident that weaknesses outweighed the strengths of ELTE programme, and there were several emerging themes that bore some additional investigation.

Level two analysis of data (axial coding) was conducted to refine the categories from the open coding process and identified properties and dimensions of these categories (duration, intensity, frequency affect, impact, timing and importance). The construct of strengths and weaknesses were thoroughly discussed in terms of individual, organisation/institutional, programme, policy and community/local levels. The rigorous analysis at level two indicated that the key emerging theme was the “IMPACT” of the challenges identified (strengths and weaknesses) on English Language Teaching (ELT) in Zanzibar, which needed further analysis to unpack the impact theme.

The extension phase used the construct of strengths and weaknesses as a framework to guide the data collection and analysis in order to gain a deeper understanding of the challenges identified. In this phase, the stimulus question was to find out how or in what ways do the strengths and weaknesses identified in Phase 1 impact the way English is practiced in Zanzibar. Multiple data sources were utilized to identify the four important
aspect of the safari. In line with the overarching objective, the specific objective was to gain a deeper understanding of the strengths and weaknesses from the perspectives of teacher educators and their students in order to gauge the impact of teacher education programme (ELTE) exhibited on ELT practices in Zanzibar. In this extended phase, four substantive themes emerged: motivation, model, approaches and outcomes.

Level three analysis of data (selective /theoretical coding) was then conducted to tie the story line together. The description of the relationships between saturated, core concepts form a grounded theory, taking the form of a statement about what has been found that integrates all other categories. The connections and relationships between categories became apparent in the course of this work. A single key category to emerge from the four substantive codes after several iterations was hegemony of English in programme, policy and practices. At this point, the central category was named as ‘symbolic power of English’ because it was related to all four substantive themes as illustrated in Figure 8.1.

The data from Phase 1 was provided by teacher educators (n=11) and PTE (n=40), while the remaining findings are based primarily on data gathered from the extended phase. The information provided in extension phase emerged from both internal and external stakeholders, which comprises of ELT practitioners (teacher educators, PTE, graduates), and other ELT stakeholders: officials/administrators from university and the Ministry of Education, and informed experts (local and foreigners).

It will be recalled that data sources in the extension phase was collected from teacher educators (interviews), PTE (focus group discussions, language learning biography through scratch pad of thoughts), graduates (interviews, classroom observation, classroom artifacts and follow-up interviews), officials and administrators (interviews),
informed experts (local and foreigners) interviews. Reflective journal and field notes were also used.

The data also emerged by scanning the environment/context where ELTE programme and ELT was conducted. The general observation covered the teachers’ domains (university/school context), and relevant artifacts and publications such as cartoons, archival materials and government publications, and newspaper clips were collected. Some information was used as background information while some were used to support the data collected. As indicated earlier, multiple data sources supported each identified theme from all ELT stakeholders. All participants verbalised their opinion to demonstrate that the challenges identified in Phase 1 have impact on how English is taught and practiced.

9.3 SUMMARY OF RESEARCH FINDINGS IN RELATION TO RESEARCH QUESTIONS

9.3.1 Strengths and weaknesses framework

The research question, ‘What are the strengths and weaknesses of English Language Teacher Education (ELTE) programme at university level in postcolonial Zanzibar?’ was investigated through phase 1 and then extended for in-depth analysis.

The findings of preliminary analysis of this study and a synthesis of linguistics theory and pedagogical theory that form foreign language pedagogy has also informed this research. Guided by the principles of grounded theory building procedures, the data was analyzed in three levels as shown in Chapter 4.
The overall findings, which were summarized and discussed in the previous chapter, presenting a composite picture of ELT practitioners (teacher educators and their students) and other key ELT stakeholders.

In Phase 1, the findings from this study indicate that ELTE programme at university level has an array of strengths and weaknesses. The research show that the strengths and weaknesses identified emanates from different sources (individual factors, programme outlook, organizational/institutional contexts, policy decisions drivers and community attitudes, beliefs and perceptions).

Both teacher educators and the PTE group perceive that the programme has more weaknesses than strengths. The teacher educators and PTE group perceive that the initial teacher training provides inadequate preparation for teachers of English because it lacks everything-support, opportunities, resources and rigorous training. Limited English proficiency (LEP), inadequate foundation, and background knowledge of English were dominant issues.

For teacher educators, the analysis of their questionnaire revealed that there are no clear commitments from the ELT providers there is a lack of staff, funding, and ongoing professional development opportunities, there is poor learning infrastructure; they have a heavy teaching workload, alongside pressure to publish or perish (engaging in research).

For PTE, the analysis of their questionnaire revealed that they are poorly grounded in theory and principles of teaching a second language, and in principles of educational research and practices, they have limited English proficiency, low interest in teaching profession, and have developed unproductive pedagogies.
Even so, the study found that despite all the weaknesses, the presence of ELTE programme at university was useful and beneficial. However, apparent limited English proficiency/ability among student teachers exert a broad and pervasive impact on ELTE programme. Most ELT practitioners (teacher educators, PTE and graduate) and all key stakeholders confirm that teacher candidates have low levels of English. Due to this limited capacity of English, to many prospective teachers, academic literacy and English competence were key concerns.

The findings also suggest that teacher transition is affecting ELT practices in other words the process of shifting roles from being a teacher (first-order practice) to become a teacher educator (with second order practice) cannot be ignored (see Murray, 2002; Berry & Loughran, 2002; Loughran & Berry, 2005; Swennen, Lunenberg & Korthagen, 2008; Boyd & Harris, 2010). For most teacher educators in my study, this transition without organizational support was a challenging experience.

Similarly, my thesis found, and acknowledges, a number of conflicts and tensions arising in teacher education. Similar to other research and literature my study suggests that fear and conflict arises when the teacher educators begins to recognize that first-order practices are not sufficient for teaching students about teaching (White & Jarvis, 2013). Like other research, my analysis also confirms tensions in the transition process and the need to include the practices and discourses of both school teaching and teacher education (Hickling-Hudson, 2003; Blackledge, 2005; Wood & Borg, 2010). Although the scope of the study did not allow me to go into detailed examination of the experiences of transitions of teacher educators, the study has clearly drawn a road map for future research into professional practices many other aspects of teacher education, and the myriad issues that have been highlighted in my research for field of ELT in postcolonial Zanzibar.
This study finds that the current ELTE programme does not positively contribute to the improvement of educational outcomes. The findings strongly suggest that there is a need to revisit the ELTE programme, and ELT, and then address issues that are clearly impacting on ELT practices.

The study reveals important insights about the status of ELTE programme within the context of ITE and brings to the surface the issues of professional, pedagogical practices and professional identity in the face of English.

The work concludes that there are gaps, potential weaknesses and threats in the ELTE programme that affects the ELT practices, which in turn affects the quality delivery of teacher education, and the production of effective teachers of English

9.3.2 Impact factor

My research has found that the symbolic power of English pervades the entire field of English language teaching and teacher preparation to teach English in Zanzibar. This single factor has impact across motivation, models, approaches and outcomes for both teacher educators and PTE. Fear was present in the narratives of participants, linking back to the symbolic power of English and to the fundamental failure of the system to be able to bring the confidence of L1 practices to the policy requirement for fluency in L2. The safari became the unifying metaphor, something spoken of many times within my conversations with participants. Importantly, safari is one of the few Arabic words to have found a place in the English language and so provided an interesting postcolonial turn to what is clearly a difficult and sometime depressing journey to being and becoming an English language teacher in Zanzibar.
Within this pervasive power of English lies the contradictory tension, highlighted by my analysis of the extensive data, between the desires of students to learn to speak English better coupled with their low expectation of becoming teachers of English. For teacher educators, being an English teacher and then becoming a teacher of English teachers posed a challenge to their professional skills and knowledge, many relying on their own training as a teacher in the face of new pedagogies that were unachievable in the Zanzibar classroom. Below is a summary of the key findings of this study that contribute new knowledge across the two fields (language and teacher education) as discussed in the previous chapters.

9.4.2.1 Aspect one: motivation

The motivational aspect of the safari was a surprising finding of this work and something not identified in other studies. My analysis shows that most teachers of English are motivated by their passion and love for English, even though it was also evident that there are low aspirations among teachers of English, and a lack of devotion to teaching. Despite strong attachment to English, and the passions for English, their perception of self and their professional identity has a shadow of doubt (Davey, 2013). This distinction speaks to the symbolic power of English in Zanzibar and highlights the importance of conducting further studies into teacher motivation in Zanzibar, especially those who undertake to become teachers of English.

9.4.2.2 Aspect two: model

My analysis reveals that poorly organized teacher training models are negatively impacting on teacher educators and their students. The model provides the basic map of safari, and my analysis shows that the basic map is flawed. It has been constructed on the
poor foundations of L1 and L2 abilities, again speaking to the symbolic power of English. There is bulky course content, irrelevant course structure, incompatible course philosophy and limited learning spaces and infrastructure, minimal feedback, and weak BTP/practicum. Negative perceptions, tensions and ambivalences were common. Principles and theory of learning a second language were partly ignored, and largely elude the training of teachers of English (Bigelow & Ranney, 2005). The foundational model at the university level borrows from the first world making it an unreliable map for the safari in Zanzibar.

**9.4.2.3 Aspect three: approaches**

Like preparations for any safari, my analysis highlighted the importance of preparation of the safari of teachers of English. Because of the symbolic power of English, there are very high expectations placed on graduate teachers of English to solve broader societal failures but there are few resources available to help in the preparations for such responsibility. It was noted that the ideal ELTE programme needs support, opportunities and resources, choices and options. Teacher educators spoke of being ill prepared to make the transition from being a teacher of English to a teacher educator, falling back on experiences. The students negatively perceived their experiences. Both groups continually repeated that the ‘lack of everything’ culture negatively impacted on their ELT practices.

**9.4.2.4 Aspect four: outcomes**

The outcome question is vital in teacher education (Cochran-Smith, 2002a). The symbolic power of English was the main driver of poor teaching and learning outcomes in this study. For example, fear was a pervasive outcome of participant narratives in addition to a complex array of related negative experiences. In addition, the teacher educators have little opportunity for professional development that is tailored to their needs in a
postcolonial, L2 environment with few resources. They spoke of falling back on using traditional teaching and learning pedagogies and assessment tasks that were shaped by the way education was done in colonial times. For students who are being taught to be teachers of English, they generally lacked confidence in their English language proficiency and had even less skill or knowledge in the pedagogies associated with teaching English. Dinham (2011a & 2011b) highlighted that the most important factors affecting student learning is the teacher. Previous studies as shown in Chapter 2 and 3 have repeatedly mentioned that the quality of teaching is the main driver of successful student learning outcomes (Dinham, Ingvarson & Kleinhenz, 2008). In general, the immediate and clear implication of the findings of the current study is to improve the teaching of English at university level.

9.3.3 English as a postcolonial tool of the past and present

In the context of Zanzibar, both primary and secondary data revealed that English language reflects hegemony of the past and the present (see Hickling-Hudson 2006 & 2011). The continuation of the British Empire is evidenced from the historical artifacts. Other sources of data reflect on English as the continuation of the past and a preferred language (Eoyang, 2003, p.23). Nevertheless, the love for English itself is not enough in the production of effective teachers of English. Apart from other challenges, the safari of teachers of English could be smooth if pedagogies and passions are balanced. The balance between the two has the potential to have greatest impact on improving ELT practices.

9.4 SPECIFIC FINDINGS FOR ZANZIBAR

As shown in Chapters 1, 2, 3 and 4, although ELT in Zanzibar has a long chequered history, it is indeed an everyday ‘knotty’ phenomenon in postcolonial Zanzibar. Based on
the results presented in Chapters 5, 6 and 7, the main conclusions that were drawn from the main findings of this study are summarized below.

First, teacher educators and their students perceive that the ELTE programme at university level inadequately prepares for the teaching of English, and the teachers of English. Although the ELTE programme (course) itself does not place greater emphasis on developing the knowledge and skills of English (language part) than teaching skills (pedagogy part), the institution, stakeholders, practitioners, individual and the context place more emphasis on English than effective teaching of English, speaking to the symbolic power of English over its professional cultivation.

Second, there are a number of strengths and weaknesses. However, due to a number of weaknesses that surround ELTE programme, the programme fails to prepare pedagogically strong teachers of English and the end-product is the production of teachers, despite their passion and the symbolic power of English or possibly because of it, who remain linguistically weak.

Third, teachers of English are passionate about English; however, their passion cannot be translated into pedagogical practices because the programme does not adequately prepare them to become English teachers. Therefore, their positive attitudes toward English do not match up with their attitudes towards teaching. One of the main goals of ELTE programme is to offer teacher trainees language experiences so that they can better internalize the concept of language acquisitions and later apply this knowledge in their future practice. It is argued here and elsewhere that the theoretical orientations have profound influence both on designing and delivering the L2 courses. In this study, prospective teachers of English and graduates were not happy with the Applied linguistics
course contents. This might be jeopardizing the theoretical orientation of L2 teachers. The key consideration arising from my findings must next be to ask how ELTE programmes might better prepare their students to teach English that fit the context of Zanzibar.

9.5 IMPLICATIONS AND AREAS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

What specific ELT and teacher education implications can be drawn from this safari of teachers of English that I have undertaken?

The results of my study have clear implications for policy and practice in several areas: government policy, teacher preparation, education and development, and English Language teacher education. With respect to the role of government, the results of my analysis suggest the necessity to design intervention programmes aimed at addressing the imbalance of learning English and learning to teach it effectively by improving English proficiency and abilities in order to eliminate the negative impacts in ELTE. To prepare successful and confident teachers of English, and to enable an upgrading their of professional skills, the programmes should be evaluated regularly by well-informed experts who understand the Zanzibar context. In terms of teacher preparation, ELTE/ELT practice should be adjusted based on learners’ needs in order to eliminate negative impacts. The analysis has shown that there is a need for ‘unlearning’ discomforts and the contextualization of training. The university-school partnership is also beneficial. In terms of theory, the findings of this study suggest that balancing passions and pedagogies are important, as demonstrated earlier.

9.5.1 Local pedagogies

The findings of this research clearly support the recommendation that ELTE programmes in initial teacher education and ELT in schools and university should prepare PTE to work
within their own context. This study shows that underlying many challenges identified in the ELTE programme and ELT is that the current model ignores the working context of the NNESTs. Consequently, this ignores the principles and theories of teaching and learning a second language. Studies in first world and the margin highlighted that ignoring the local context automatically may cause serious poor outcomes (Battiste & Henderson, 2000; Burridge, Whalan, & Vaughan, 2012). Recent projects such LOITASA and SPINE confirms that local pedagogies are beneficial. In a study conducted in Zanzibar, Sibel (2010, pp.30-36) examines the relationship between English and subject knowledge, and reports that the teacher candidates face significant difficulties with English language which contributes to their difficulties with subject knowledge. The studies that emerged under these projects also highlighted that when the pupils were immersed in interesting and motivating contexts with links and referents to local culture and schooling, they were comfortable and were are able to contribute to discussion. These types of contexts, where local pedagogy is allowed to emerge have a central position in education policy, curriculum, and pedagogy (see for example Ma Rhea, 2004; Tibategeza, 2010).

9.5.2 Unlearning the colonial mindset

The study finds that a number of activities undertaken by teacher educators and teachers in schools are mandated from above. This causes discomforts, which either have been passed on from one generation to another or have become part of a hybrid narrative of colonial and postcolonial ideologies (Hickling-Hudson, Mathews & Woods, 2004). The result of these mandates is often conflicting practices, contested discourses, and the inscription of incompatible pedagogies imported from other contexts, particularly from the first world. Imposition of incompatibles pedagogies, models, and approaches proved, in this study, and also demonstrated by publicly available statistics on the state of teacher
education in Zanzibar, to be a hurdle in the way of teaching, learning and assessment in English and have even resulted in a number of negative outcomes. Studies around the world have shown that schools and teacher education have long been tools for colonizing, suppressing, oppressing, or objectifying learners. The findings of this study show clearly the need to decontextualize, demystify and decolonize the ELTE/ELT programme to improve the quality of programme and practices, something that my analysis revealed in Chapters 5, 6 and 7.

**9.5.3 Balancing passions and pedagogies**

The teacher education in first world and margin share similar challenges such as ‘how to find the balance between subject studies and pedagogical studies and how to contribute to a higher status of teachers and how to prepare teachers for the needs of pupils in the 21st century’ (European Commission, 2007a, 2007b). This study revealed that balancing passions and pedagogies is central to ELT and teacher education. In Zanzibar at least, this study shows that the one-sided passion that is the passion for English alone was not enough to produce quality teachers for English nor does it promise to have quality teaching in English. The study also indicates that the one side passion is a potential threat for the ELTE programme. The findings support prior research and current concerns in the teaching profession that high quality teacher education is crucial in delivering high quality teaching in schools (AITSL, 2011, 2013).

**9.5.4 Strengthening teacher domains**

The question of PTE connecting what is learned at university with opportunities to practice their new knowledge is recognized globally as an important aspect of teacher preparation for professional practice. The ability to connect their university studies with their work has
also been a problem for many graduates in their early career of teaching English. In my study, many teacher educators reported feeling isolated and powerless when negotiating their position within both the autonomy of the university and the power of the Ministry of Education. Reported as a problematic space, and a difficult space in which to foster student learning, both teacher educators and students in this study spoke clearly of the need for strong university-school partnerships in postcolonial Zanzibar to improve outcomes across initial teacher preparation. This may also be a key to understanding the negative perceptions of teachers of English in that the absence of opportunity to practice, make mistakes and reflect is not available, pushing students back to familiar, more traditional methods that cause them less fear and anxiety (Loughran & Kelchtermans, 2006; Swennen & van der Klink, 2009; van Velzen, Bezzina & Lorist, 2009; Loughran, 2013; Spearman, & Watt, 2013).

9.6 WHAT DOES THIS STUDY CONTRIBUTE?

This study was conducted for teacher educators and their students in postcolonial Zanzibar in order to transform the safari of teachers of English. The study was conducted upon the realization that ELT research in non-native contexts within teacher education was very sketchy, and there was a lack of empirical evidence in the literature to substantiate the competing policy claims being made in Zanzibar. The research findings presented here are likely to have important implications for the field of ELT and teacher education in other postcolonial countries, and beyond.

The findings provide an empirical basis for the planning, researching and development of English teacher education programmes based on the needs, circumstances and experiences of initial teachers of English. ELTE programmes that understand the needs
of teacher educators and PTE safaris are likely to have a greater potential to turn negative experiences into positive learning outcomes among ELT practitioners.

In particular, this study is significant because it proposes that understanding the aspects that impact ELT practices in postcolonial Zanzibar may improve ELTE programme. This is relevant to the teachers of English in initial teacher education, and in-service teacher education. Arguably, since English is the LoI, it is relevant to teachers of other subjects in teacher education, and teacher education courses in general.

The study contributes to research and literature of SLTE and ELT/ELTE in NNES context and teacher education in institutions of higher learning. As shown in this study, being and becoming a teacher of English is a complex safari, which need to lessen the challenges that impact on ELT practices in postcolonial Zanzibar (see for example Babaci-Wilhite, Geo-JaJa & Lou, 2012a, 2012b). The safari ‘being and becoming a teacher of English’ need to address four issues: to inspire young people to go on the safari (motivation); to have sound maps and plans for the safari that are known to work in Zanzibar (models); to make proper preparation for safari with appropriate and reliable resources (approaches), and to collect skills, knowledge and understanding about English language and pedagogy as happy mementoes from the safari (outcomes). As discussed in Chapter 2 and 3, in the past, there has been very little critical research on language education in postcolonial Africa. Among the few attempts to address the gap, Babaci-Wilhite & Geo-JaJa (2011) discuss meaningful contribution of education in the 21st Century.
9.6.1 Contribution to theory

The study theorizes that symbolic violence underlies the delivery of ELTE programme (in Phase 1), and the practices of ELT (in the extension phase) in postcolonial Zanzibar. The data highlights the hegemony of English in the ELTE programme offering power to English, and foregoing power to the ‘teaching career’. The study then uses the theory as a framework for the exploration of the safari of teachers of English in postcolonial Zanzibar. The symbolic power of English resonates with tensions experienced, ambivalences and contradictions in the safari of teachers of English.

The study generates a theory from the perspectives of ELT practitioners and ELT stakeholders. The theory was used as a framework for the exploration and interpretation of the safari of teachers of English.

The findings of this study suggest strengths and limitations and other structural barriers identified, are inevitable in any teaching and learning context particularly when a foreign language is involved. What makes the challenges ‘uncomfortable’, and goes ‘unreflected’ was the fact that the resonance of the symbolic power of English underlies the delivery of ELT programme, and re-appears in the ELT practices. This provides an explanation for the many unplanned and apparently ‘unpedagogic’ practices that all ELT practitioners routinely make on a ‘day to day’ practice, and ‘unpedagogic’ decision that many educational institutions (university and Ministry of Education) routinely make on a daily basis.
9.6.2 Contribution to practice

This research was an example of research conducted by and ELT practitioner about ELT practitioners on issues, which are relevant to the development of ELT programme and professional practices. The study has contributed to the teacher-research discourse and the pedagogy of teacher education. It does point to the potential centrality of teacher inquiry. The work has also produced artifacts from teacher and students work and the knowledge will be usable by others for further analysis and inquiry. The study also makes a valuable contribution to the discussion of educators on the need to rethink ‘ELT practices’. In addition, the study brings the experiences teachers of English from postcolonial Zanzibar in the field and the world of ELT. It is hoped that their experiences will contribute to an understanding of local and western conceptions of ELT practices and allows the educators to rethink the monolithic view of ELT.

By extension, the main focus of this study, teachers of English in Zanzibar have been teaching English to (very) young learners with ‘little’ qualifications (in other words young learners are taught English by teachers who hold certificates or diplomas). Hence, the findings of this study also suggest that much closer attention needs to be made to ensure that (very) young learners are taught by teachers of English who have been academically and professionally prepared. The findings of the study highlight that ‘Teaching English to young learners’ (TEYL) is silent in the ELT professional discourses but of urgent need in the postcolonial L2/FL environment. This clearly suggests that there is a dire need for new pedagogic pathways for ELT practitioners in Zanzibar and similar contexts. The need to have degrees in the area of ‘TEYL’ and the introduction of courses about ‘Second or Foreign Language Pedagogy’ to build a strong foundation for both languages, Kiswahili and English, are long overdue.
9.6.3 Contribution to literature

Chapters 2 and 3 show that studies from postcolonial Zanzibar feature disproportionately little in the professional academic discourse. Hence, this study contributes directly to evidence based research literature about non-native speakers of English by proposing the need for non-Eurocentric paradigms and culturally compatible teaching and learning paradigm at university level, something which will allow the transformation of existing structure, and will help in the process “unlearning” discomforts, preconceptions and deficit models, potentially halting the reproduction of the past hegemonic structures and practices. It also adds to the growing, but still relatively small, volume of qualitative accounts of teachers’ research in ELT, which are available (Coombe & Barlow, 2007).

9.6.4 Contribution to research and policy development

Given the paucity of ELT research in teacher education (both pre-service and in-service), further research investigating the ELTE programme, and other programmes that use English at university level, are a worthy venture. Researching teacher education and teacher educators and beginning teacher in their early years also need thorough investigation. What has been unique about this study is that it has been possible to trace strengths and limitations of ELT starting from university level (teacher domain 1) and extended it to school levels (teacher domain 2) by following up the graduates from SUZA. Since Zanzibar has not yet had many universities that provide English language teachers (undergraduate level), these results might be insightful for Zanzibar, and other local universities that train English teachers, English language training institutions, and other ELT providers in Zanzibar and the region.
9.7 THE LIMITATIONS AND DELIMITATIONS

There were several limitations to this study, which could affect the external and internal validity of this study: language issue, purposive sampling, snowballing techniques, self-designed questionnaire, a limited number of universities, which prepare English teachers in Zanzibar, and self-report data.

9.7.1 Language issues

Language, in addition to its significance to the research questions, was critical in the study design. Putting into consideration that I was planning to deal with teachers of English (both teacher educators and their students), I purposely intended to use English to collect all the data, however, during the actual data collection, it turned out to be an issue in particular research activities that involved speaking (interviews, focus group discussions and classroom observations). During the sessions, fluency and confidence of using English posed a major issue for the study design and implementation. Initially most participants were positive and confidently agreed to use English - in particular, most student teachers and graduates claimed that there is no point to be called graduate or a teacher of English if one cannot produce some few sentences. However while the interviews were in-progress, some participants asked permission to switch to Kiswahili. Hand gestures and lips were covered by hands to indicate that the researcher might pause the recordings so that the participants could confirm that s/he was allowed to proceed in Kiswahili, or at least allowed to mix the languages, Kiswahili and English. To avoid losing important data, I had to be flexible and allow participants to feel free to proceed. Some participants judged themselves as not having enough mastery of English to fully express themselves continuously, and at times they did not have the right vocabulary to keep going on with the conversation. Some
officials (university and ministry), and lecturers also switched back and forth between languages for various reasons including getting the point across or using common metaphors about which the participants and researcher have background knowledge. Because of my insider status as a speaker of both Kiswahili and English, these language-switch instances gave me an opportunity of having a deeper understanding of the strengths and weaknesses identified as illustrated in Chapters 5, 6 and 7.

9.7.2 Sampling

Although the sample was moderately sized, purposive sample in this study aimed to achieve a rich description of ELT issues to emerge through the voices of ELT practitioners currently working in the system. However, the study design limited generalizability of the findings. Using the snowballing technique for university graduates may have only provided a snapshot of the phenomenon of interest. This non-probability technique could affect the external validity of the research. Even so, I attempted to ensure that I was able to compare data across groups and I felt that the common elements were reported many times in many contexts, sufficient to ensure that the analysis was rigorous.

9.7.3 Limited number of ELT providers at university level

The number of university that provided ELT in Zanzibar was limited to one university. In an earlier chapter, I mentioned that SUZA is the only public university, and the major ELT provider. The other two universities are privately owned, and neither of these universities was preparing English language teachers during the time of data collection. In view of this, purposeful sampling was used as the main technique. Relying on one university did not provide a sufficient basis for making generalization. In addition, the
use of one university, which considers itself to be still in its infancy and growing up with many challenges, may not have provided a full picture of ELT practices in Zanzibar.

In Tanzania (mainland), there are a number of universities, which prepare English teachers such as University of Dar-es-salaam (Dar-es salaam), University of Dodoma (Dodoma) and University of Morogoro (Morogoro) to mention a few. In addition, even the composition of ELT teachers in Zanzibar schools is made up of teacher educators who have graduated from these universities located in Tanzania mainland. In an ideal situation, it may be argued that the research should have been conducted in other universities in Tanzania (mainland) but it was not possible to include these universities due to distance/geographical location between universities, short time span for the conduct of the research, and limited financial resources to travel around Tanzania. Putting into consideration the geopolitical reasons between Zanzibar and Tanzania (mainland), instead, I have closely examined my findings, and the context of Zanzibar in relation to the available studies about these other universities, extending to other programs in other countries and there were many similarities.

9.7.4 Timing of the research

There was a clash between researcher’s time and participants’ time. For example, the study involved 3rd year students, (finalists), but unfortunately the study was carried out at the time when these university students were preparing for the final university examination (preparations weeks) and all the university teaching sessions were toward the end, and some were already closed. Consequently, no university classroom could be observed, however the university daily activities and ethos were observed and recorded. Both prospective teachers and lecturers had limited time to offer for observation.
9.7.5 Missing data

Some stakeholders’ perspectives were not included in the study for a number of reasons. For example, one participant agreed and consented to participate in the interview, but cancelled and keeps rescheduling the interview appointments for more than four times, yet without participating. Some participants did not respond to the numerous invitations to participate. Therefore, the perspectives from these stakeholders might have been relevant.

Perspectives from stakeholders were also missed. For example, in the case of PTE, the number of questionnaires returned were (40 out of 63), biographies (10 out of 20), and participation in focus group discussion (20 out of 40). This was due to the timing of the research that did not match the university schedule and activities. The researcher had to comply with participants timing to participate at their own conveniences and respect their wishes. The response rate was satisfactory because the number of candidates who participated in the study represent more than 30% of the population. The researcher followed rigorous ethical procedure, and it would have been unethical to force participants to participate unwillingly, feeling powerless, or less confident.

Another adaptation arose in the sampling process during the data collection phases. I could not find any study or research directly related to the university and its graduates since its establishment in 2001. Hence, there was no research base on which I could draw. There have been only a few evaluations of the language problem in Tanzania as described in Chapter 1, 2 and 3. There was no platform for university alumni, where I could go and find out more about the university practices. As a result, I had look for university graduates who were willing to participate in the study. I visited Zanzibar public schools physically, meeting the head teachers, and distribute research advertisements and consent forms for
graduates to contact me. Getting the opportunity to meet them allowed me to employ snowballing sampling. This was far the better method, as participants were able to inform and convince their colleagues to participate and that, their inputs were invaluable.

9.7.6 Negative and irrelevant cases

There were very few negative or irrelevant cases: cases that did not fit within the general patterns and trends I identified. In analysis, data were usually grouped to form patterns (identified as constructs) through the process of purposeful searching or by happenstance. Negative cases are useful because they may prove, broaden, change or cast doubt on the hypothesis altogether (Patton, 1990). I identified a small number of cases negative and irrelevant cases in Phase 1 and in the extension phase of the study in the form of responses which appeared to differ from those of other respondents.

In one negative case, the two university officials saw no issue in the levels of preparation being achieved by prospective teachers in the level of their English proficiency. I felt that this perspective, while contrary to the overall findings, gave me insight into the symbolic power of English. These officials saw only that it was good that the university had such a course, not really being so concerned with whether it was achieving a proper standard.

In another set of data, participants commented that they were selected using university criteria, with a compulsory test of matriculation-English included. Although this information had no direct relevance to my topic, the presence of such processes might act as a structural barrier to ELT. Equally, such a process could actually demand a high level of proficiency and act to strengthen ELTE programmes. Since the scope of this study was limited to ELT, such information was worth noting, to be pondered for future studies.
Due to the above limitations, the generalizability of findings is somewhat uncertain. However, for this particular study, these findings are display a coherent and consistent picture of the strengths and limitations of ELT in Zanzibar from the perspective of different stakeholders, and its impacts.

9.8 THE NEXT SAFARI?

In postcolonial Zanzibar, future safari might be threefold: first, there is a need to explore the possibility of establishing teacher education programmes that will enable both ELT practitioners and non-ELT practitioners to do teacher-research in order to broaden the research base of teachers of English (Cochran-Smith, 2005)(see also Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 2009; Cochran-Smith & Zeichner, 2005; Cochran-Smith, Nemser, McIntyre, & Demers, 2008). This is consistent with the global trend in research particularly in the margin, to examine influence of the ‘hegemony of English’ that is known to overwhelm interest in the development of a quality ‘teaching career’. My study is consistent with Skattum & Brock-Utne’s (2009) observation that ‘ELT’ and ‘LoI’ is misunderstood. These are two different issues, which need to be addressed. Unless Zanzibar chooses to address the ‘symbolic power of English’, and uplift the passion for teaching career to be equal with the passion for English, then ‘merry-go-round of English’ may continue as participants suggested.

Second, a focus on the pedagogy of university teaching is needed in Zanzibar. Like elsewhere, the pedagogy of teaching is broadening our view of teaching towards a greater emphasis on the scholarship of teaching. This means that we no longer can think of teaching as only subject-matter expertise plus generic methods. Edgerton, Hutchings, & Quinlan (1993) have long acknowledged that effective teaching is also a matter of
transforming our knowledge of a subject in ways that promote student understanding and learning.

Third, fear was a recurring theme in this work. The theme emerged from different sources including teacher-related factors, context-related, and individual related factors. It seems the phenomenon of fear in the field of language learning and teacher education needs its own exploration.

9.9 FINAL THOUGHTS

This in-depth investigation of ELTE programme within the context of initial teacher education (ITE) is significant because it addresses an imbalance in the extensive and complicated research fields of English language teaching and learning, redressing the imbalance in a small way by sharing the experiences and voices of NNESTs from postcolonial Zanzibar. Although the reality of teaching experiences is context-specific, these findings have the potential to inform the discussions on policy and practice for ELT. This study has made a unique contribution to Zanzibar and to international knowledge.

In conclusion, my study has demonstrated the importance of pedagogical content knowledge, and skills, teacher professional knowledge and skills, dispositions, personal commitment to teaching and English language competence for teacher educators and their university-level students.

Based on my findings, what Zanzibar learn from all this? Zanzibar needs to improve teacher education, recruiting high-caliber students into teaching and providing quality teacher education (both in-service and pre-service training). It needs to take advantage of the sociolinguistic context. Zanzibar education system can benefit greatly from the
development of a long-term research that incorporates Applied Linguistic studies and teacher trainings.

Zanzibar practitioners and educators need to take advantage of the sociolinguistic context of Zanzibar, by promoting and strengthening Kiswahili. My analysis of the findings highlighted the need for promoting the pedagogy of university teaching and the contextualization of programmes, balancing passion and pedagogies, unlearning the discomforts, demystify and decolonize ELT, and developing university-school partnership in teacher education. Zanzibar needs to shift conceptions of language teaching and practices. This study highlights the urgent need to change the Zanzibari belief system about language of learning and teaching (Brock-Utne, 2013), otherwise the stakeholders metaphor that ‘ELT is not working’ will continue, and as Rea-Dickins and Yu (2013) put it, ‘the ambition for English …is a pipe dream’ (p.204). Importantly, my study has indicated that the way forward for Zanzibar is balancing aspirations, passions and pedagogies, introducing evidence-based and locally appropriate, strong language and education policies, developing rigorous teacher training, revisiting the monolingual framework in education in general, and in particular language teacher education, thereby overcoming fear, and finally being able to take the ultimate safari which will be to overcome the symbolic power of English in positive, creative, and disruptive ways.
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APPENDICES
Teachers, teaching profession and challenges

Myths and misconceptions about teacher resource centres in Tanzania


Teachers as scapegoats

Conceptions of education in Tanzania


University degree versus knowledge/ ability

APPENDIX 1B  NEWSPAPERS SOURCES


Dear Oprah and/or the Oprah Powers that Be!

Habari! Happy New Year! from Zanzibar, Tanzania. 2007 is just a few hours old, and I’m working on a rather remarkable and daunting New Year’s resolution. Though I want to lose weight, exercise more, etc., my resolution for 2007 is to obtain books for the students, and future teachers, at the State University of Zanzibar (SUZA). The college has no books. If you have no exposure to third world colleges, this comes as a shock. For me, teaching without books has been challenging and frustrating. My resolution, therefore is a daunting task. The costs and logistics are an enormous obstacle for me, yet do-able for you and the Oprah Powers that Be! Your love and respect for reading, along with your generosity and access to resources, make you an obvious choice as a partner and benefactor. I know I am another person with their hand out, but the impact we could make could have an enormous legacy of an impact on the lives of many, many people here in Zanzibar.

Before I continue my quasi articulate-begging, I’ll briefly introduce myself. I am an ELF, no relation to Santa Clause, but rather an English Language Fellow. I am part of a fellowship program sponsored by the U.S. State Department and administered by Georgetown University. We ELFs are sent worldwide, not only as English Language teachers, but also as good will ambassadors. This program has been an opportunity for me to put my values into action—walk my talk, so to speak. I could entertain you with the details of being a white anomaly in a black and conservative Muslim community, but those stories can wait. What I want you to know is that I have been asked to teach reading skills (to over 220 students in one class) without any books to a population that doesn’t even value reading (their admission and my observation). And these students are the future teachers of Zanzibar! Without some kind of change, they will only perpetuate this problem.

The abbreviated version of the problem:
- Books are expensive
- People can’t afford them, neither can schools
- In school, reading is a rote-learned skill
- Children have little/no access to books/reading
- Reading never becomes a valued part of life
- Zanzibaris don’t read or benefit from the act of reading

Change is not going to occur at the family or community school level. I believe the hope lies with the future teachers, as they are the future agents of change. If they can be converted into readers as college students, exposed to the utilitarian and intrinsic value of literacy, I believe they will in turn spread the gospel. But without books, there is no gospel. The students need books… Zanzibar needs to value reading.

Before continuing, let me digress for a paragraph or two… I spent the last day of the New Year with a very intelligent 19 year old Zanzibari high school student, who has become my friend. He took me to his village, to his home, to his squalor. Makesi is very poor, works hard and has managed to qualify for another U.S. sponsored education program, U.S. Micro-scholarship program. For me, he represents the potential that will probably never be. Curious bright minds, like his, need some place to grow—all dressed up and no where to go. Though this program is a wonderful opportunity, without access to and funds for higher education, students like Makesi will succumb to the limited options within their environment. It’s another vicious cycle. We, the USA, only open the door a crack for such students. As good as the intentions of my ELF program are, in the long-run, I fear the good I do is infinitesimal considering the enormity of the problems. Without good teachers, the system of education will continue to perpetuate such problems. How can we as Americans help?

In its financial aid section for international students, the college issue of US New and World Reports basically says that unless students are academically outstanding, or have a great deal of money, there is little hope for scholarship at US colleges. Due to the quality of education, students like Makesi, who have the potential, but not the scholarship, don’t stand a prayer. Another dead-end. I know you have been involved in ABC (A Better Chance [I volunteered with ABC for 7 years in...
Williamstown, MA). If I were the queen of the world, one of the programs I would start is an international version of ABC, but at the college level, with the focus on providing academic opportunities for future teachers. As is apparent, I see teachers as the critical agents of change. Food for thought.

Back to my original plea for books and a glimpse at my big-picture vision, the condensed version. Oprah Winfrey’s donating books to SUZA [the only state run college in Zanzibar, and only a few years old] would draw publicity, generate interest and enthusiasm and get the present students, aka future teachers, to read (academically and for pleasure). In turn, as they become teachers, their enthusiasm influences a change in their classrooms—even encouraging young students to make their own books—more literacy! The ripple effect of these new teachers impacts the community of the school and triggers a value in reading as an interest. Because the total population of the Zanzibar Islands is only about one million, the slow, but sure, spread of a new value for reading could conceivably have an enormous impact. Then, of course these teachers will come begging to you for books, but we’ll cross that bridge down the road…first things first—let’s get a population of teachers interested in spreading the gospel of reading.

Resolution, cont.

So what are these books I’m asking for? High interest instructional books and culturally relevant novels, to begin with—no Little Women for this crowd! Teaching reading without books, and without reading activities, is crazy! Next semester I am supposed to teach writing skills under these same conditions. How I am going to give quality feedback to 220 students is yet to be determined…for now I’ll think about that tomorrow. Right now, completing my New Year’s plea is more important—even though I have a zillion, very sad papers to correct. Just writing this letter is a form of constructive hope.

My wish. What does it look like, how would it work? Ideally I would love to see students keep and own their own books, but in the spirit of practicality, I see such books loaned for a semester and then returned so that others may benefit as well. I am asking for your help to buy books for all the subject areas, because it would only be equitable for all college students and instructors! In addition to books, I would ask for some minor publicity to accompany such a gift. This has more to do with the possible impact this could have on the administration on the college, rather than the focus on you as a donor. From my perch as an instructor, I believe the quality of teaching and learning is often lost in the shuffle as the primary mission of the college. An event that focuses attention on academic values could be very a very beneficial self-reflection for the university.

I have thought of other ways of executing my resolution, as this is not a new idea. I have thought of asking people to donate money, or buy-a-book, but the effort is time-consuming, and I am halfway round the world! Even if I could rally some interest, managing the collection and shipping of heavy books in a cost effective way would also be quite a challenge. The most effective and efficient way of doing this would be to find someone who can afford to finance the entirety of such a project. Oprah loves and promotes literacy. Oprah is an African-American. Oprah is charitable. It all adds up. So on this first day of 2007, I am asking for your help in making my resolution a reality.

Before closing, I want to apologize for only having a limited amount of time for editing this letter. Please enjoy the challenge of reading my mistakes! Of greatest importance is that I sent it today, this first day of 2007. Otherwise, it may never materialize, like so many other well intended resolutions!

Happy Resolution Day!
Asante sana,
Janice A. Jennings

Courtesy: Used by permission of Janice A. Jennings from Austin, Texas
APPENDIX 3  CHRONOLOGY OF RULERS AND ADMINISTRATORS OF ZANZIBAR 1806-1963

Chronology of Omani Rulers in Zanzibar - The Sultans of Zanzibar

<table>
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<td>Said Sultan</td>
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<td>(1856-1870)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Barghash Said</td>
<td>(1870-1888)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Khalifa Said</td>
<td>(1888-1890)</td>
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<td>Hamed Thuweyn</td>
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<td>Khalid Barghash</td>
<td>(1896)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Hamoud Mohammed</td>
<td>(1896-1902)</td>
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<td>Ali Hamoud</td>
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<tr>
<td>Khalifa Haroub</td>
<td>(1911-1960)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Abdallah Khalifa</td>
<td>(1960-1963)</td>
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<td>Jamshid Abdallah</td>
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British Administrators (consul), Zanzibar

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<td>Henry Adrian Churchill</td>
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Consuls-General in Zanzibar (Foreign office)

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<tr>
<td>Arthur Raikes</td>
<td>(1906-1908)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Francis Barton</td>
<td>(1908-1913)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>British Residents in Zanzibar (Colonial Office)</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Major Francis Barrow Pearce</td>
<td>(1913-1922)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>John Houston Sinclair</td>
<td>(1922-1923)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alfred Hollis</td>
<td>(1923-1929)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Richard Sims Rankine</td>
<td>(1929-1937)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>John Hathorn Hall</td>
<td>(1937-1940)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Henry Guy Pilling</td>
<td>(1940-1946)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vincent Goncalves Glenday</td>
<td>(1946-1951)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>John Dalzalves Rankine</td>
<td>(1952-1954)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Henry Steven Potter</td>
<td>(1954-1959)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arthur George Mooring</td>
<td>(1959-1963)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The Directors of Education</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>S. Rivers-Smith</td>
<td>(1907-1920)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| W. Hendry Ingrams                                    | (1) 1921-1939  
W. H Ingrams ADoE in 1924, G.B. Johnson ADoE in 1920, 1923, 1930, 1932, and 1935/1936 as well as 1938/39; his active service was 23.12.1920-1937 |
| R.J. Harvey                                          | 1944-1948 (5.11.1944-July 1948) |
| G.C. Grant                                           | 1948 (ADoE) August-December 1948 |
| B.A. Babb                                            | 1951-1953 (1.4.1951-26.4.1953 with Hann as ADoE in 1950/51, 1953 |
| R.B. Blaxland                                        | 1953-1956 (8.10.1953-5.2.1956 with S.F. Hann as ADoE in 1954 |
APPENDIX 4 ETHICS FORMS

Appendix 4

Letter of approval from the Monash University Research Ethics Committee

Research Permit from Revolutionary Government of Zanzibar

Permission letter to visit Zanzibar National Archives for research purposes

Permission letters to conduct the study in University and the Public Schools of Zanzibar

Explanatory Statements related to the study: ELT practitioners (teacher educators, prospective English teachers, university graduates), and ELT stakeholders (university officials, ministry officials involving informed experts)

Informed consents forms: teacher educators, prospective English teachers, university graduates, university officials, ministry officials
Human Ethics Certificate of Approval

Date: 25 February 2010
Project Number: CF09/3555 - 2009001908
Project Title: Optimizing the quality of English language teaching in Zanzibar
Chief Investigator: Dr Zane Ma Rhea

Terms of approval
1. The Chief investigator is responsible for ensuring that permission letters are obtained, if relevant, and a copy forwarded to MUHREC before any data collection can occur at the specified organisation. Failure to provide permission letters to MUHREC before data collection commences is in breach of the National Statement on Ethical Conduct in Human Research and the Australian Code for the Responsible Conduct of Research.
2. Approval is only valid whilst you hold a position at Monash University.
3. It is the responsibility of the Chief Investigator to ensure that all investigators are aware of the terms of approval and to ensure the project is conducted as approved by MUHREC.
4. You should notify MUHREC immediately of any serious or unexpected adverse effects on participants or unforeseen events affecting the ethical acceptability of the project.
5. The Explanatory Statement must be on Monash University letterhead and the Monash University complaints clause must contain your project number.
6. Amendments to the approved project (including changes in personnel): Requires the submission of a Request for Amendment form to MUHREC and must not begin without written approval from MUHREC. Substantial variations may require a new application.
7. Future correspondence: Please quote the project number and project title above in any further correspondence.
8. Annual reports: Continued approval of this project is dependent on the submission of an Annual Report. This is determined by the date of your letter of approval.
9. Final report: A Final Report should be provided at the conclusion of the project. MUHREC should be notified if the project is discontinued before the expected date of completion.
10. Monitoring: Projects may be subject to an audit or any other form of monitoring by MUHREC at any time.
11. Retention and storage of data: The Chief Investigator is responsible for the storage and retention of original data pertaining to a project for a minimum period of five years.

Professor Ben Canny
Chair, MUHREC

cc: Ms Maryam Ismail
RESEARCH/FILMING PERMIT

PERMIT No.ZRP/98

(This Permit is only Applicable in Zanzibar for a duration specified)

SECTION

Name: MARYAM ISMAIL
Date and Place of Birth: 5/3/1972 DSM
Nationality: TANZANIAN
Passport Number: AB128850
Date and Place of Issue: 26 JULY, 2006
Date of arrival in Zanzibar: MAY
Duration of stay: 6 MONTHS
Expected date of Departure: 
Research Titles: OPTIMIZING THE QUALITY OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING IN ZANZIBAR”.
Full address of Sponsor: P.O.BOX. 239 ZANZIBAR

This is to endorse that I have received and duly considered applicant’s request I am satisfied with the descriptions outlined above.

Name of the authorizing officer: Mohamed H. Gafab
Signature and seal:
Institution: Office of Chief Government Statistician
Address: P. O Box 2321
Zanzibar
Date: 10th May, 2010
APPENDIX 5  QUESTIONNAIRE FOR ENGLISH TEACHER EDUCATORS (ETE)

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR ENGLISH TEACHER EDUCATORS

Dear [Name],

I am a PhD student from Monash University. I am investigating the provision of teacher training for English language teachers at University level. I want to identify the strengths and weaknesses that help or hinder the quality provision of initial English teacher education in your university. Your university has been purposively selected because it is the only university that train English teachers to be in Zanzibar. Since you are an English teacher educator, I would like to invite you to complete this questionnaire. I would be grateful if you would answer the following simple questions, which should take you about 20-25 minutes. I am not evaluating you. I am only interested in languaging i.e. your language practices and what you think about the teacher education programme in your University (e.g. barriers/drivers to offering high quality English language teaching. There is no right or wrong answers. I am asking for your personal opinion. Please answer these questions as honestly as you can. All aspects of this study will be treated in confidence. Individual’s answer cannot be identified. If you would like to be contacted for a follow-up discussion, please give your details at the end of the questionnaire.

Please check the box as shown where appropriate

About yourself

1. I am: ☐ female ☐ male


About your experience and qualifications

Please check all that apply to you

3. I teach (mostly) ☐ 1st year ☐ 2nd year ☐ 3rd year ☐ other – please specify _______________________

4. I have been teaching at University level for ☐[ ] year(s) now as a(n) ______________________ (tutor, senior tutor; tutorial assistant, assistant lecturer, lecturer, senior lecturer)

5. I also have experience in teaching English at:

☐ Primary level ☐ Secondary level ☐ High school level) ☐ College

☐ Certificate ☐ Diploma ☐ Bachelor degree
☐ Post graduate diploma ☐ Masters degree ☐ Doctorate

☐ Other – specify ______________________________________________________

6. My highest academic qualification is:

7. I have specialized in:

[Signature]

[Date]

________________________

512
8. I gained this qualification in [ ] [ ] [year] at ____________________ University (eg. SUZA; UDSM, Leeds University).

9. I have TESL/TESOL/TEFL/TEYL/ESOL qualifications (please be specific - eg. what is your highest relevant qualification in teaching English at university level)

☐ Other – please specify

10. Other courses/methods qualified to teach English:

About your employment

11. My employment status is:

☐ Full time
☐ Part time
☐ On contract
☐ Sessional
☐ Other – please specify _________________________

12. My university duties are mainly (i.e. on the basis of time spent) ☐ Teaching ☐ Administration ☐ Research

☐ Consultation ☐ Other - please specify _________________________

13. Your main area of teaching is/are:______________________________________________

About your class(es)/students

14. I am currently enrolled in a formal course: ☐ Yes ☐ No

If you have answered yes, please explain:

If you have answered no, skip Q.15. Go to Q.16

15. To what extent is this course related to your current career?

☐ Not at all ☐ Slightly ☐ Mostly ☐ Completely

16. On average, what is/are your class size(s) in each level/year:

1st year: First semester ___________ Second semester ___________

2nd year: First semester ___________ Second semester ___________

3rd year: First semester ___________ Second semester ___________

17. On average, how many class contact hours per week do you have:___________________
18. What do you think of the level of your students in terms of their English language ability/proficiency?  
Please write your opinion(s) _______________________________________________________  
____________________________________________________________________________________  
____________________________________________________________________________________

19. Please rate the overall quality of these students in terms of their English. Choose one  
☐ Excellent  ☐ Good  ☐ Average  ☐ Poor  
Please Explain (you may use extra sheet if necessary)  
____________________________________________________________________________________  
____________________________________________________________________________________  
____________________________________________________________________________________

20. Which language do you mostly use in your English classes?  
☐ English only  ☐ Mostly English  ☐ Mostly Kiswahili  
☐ Both English and Kiswahili  ☐ Other, please explain ________________________________  

About your Professional Learning/Professional Development Experience  

21. Are you a member of any professional association related to English Language Teaching (ELT)?  
☐ Yes  ☐ No  ☐ Other  
If Yes, list them  
____________________________________________________________________________________  
If No, provide reason(s)______________________________________________________________  
____________________________________________________________________________________  
Other: Specify  
____________________________________________________________________________________  

22. Are you currently attending any professional development course? ☐ Yes  ☐ No  

23. If Yes:  ☐ In university hours?  ☐ Out of university hours?  
☐ Online  ☐ Other – specify __________________________  

24. If Yes, How long is the course? If No, go to Q.25  
☐ 1 day  
☐ More than one day  
☐ Other – please specify ____________________________________________________________
25. Since you started teaching at university level, have you participated in any professional development activities related to:

- [ ] The practice of teaching English
- [ ] The use of information technology in the language(s) classroom
- [ ] TESOL/TEFL/TEYL/ESOL
- [ ] Assessment in language classroom
- [ ] Instructional scaffolding
- [ ] None
- [ ] Other please specify

______________________________________________________________________________

26. What type of support have you received after the Professional Development to incorporate the new information and/or skills acquired? Check all that apply to you.

- [ ] Time
- [ ] Resources
- [ ] Collegial Administrative support
- [ ] None
- [ ] Other – specify

______________________________________________________________________________

27. Do these professional development course(s) prompt you to implement new ideas and/or change your instruction practices (for example conduct an action research project, design new lesson(s) or unit(s), or create new classroom activities)

- [ ] Yes
- [ ] No

Explain your choice:

______________________________________________________________________________

______________________________________________________________________________

______________________________________________________________________________

______________________________________________________________________________

______________________________________________________________________________

28. Have you organized any formal professional development activities for English teachers in Zanzibar?

- [ ] Yes
- [ ] No

If yes please list up to 5 topics of these Professional Development Activities you conducted:

a) ________________________________________________________________

b) ________________________________________________________________

c) ________________________________________________________________

d) ________________________________________________________________

e) ________________________________________________________________

29. Are there any other professional learning opportunities at your workplace?

- [ ] Yes
- [ ] No

Explain:

______________________________________________________________________________

______________________________________________________________________________

______________________________________________________________________________

______________________________________________________________________________

______________________________________________________________________________
About your English teaching

30. You are currently teaching English at university level. What are the most pressing issues in teaching English at this level? You may use extra sheet.

____________________________________________________________________________
____________________________________________________________________________
____________________________________________________________________________

31. What do you see as the main factors that support or inhibit provision of quality English language teaching (ELT) in your university? You may use extra sheet.

____________________________________________________________________________
____________________________________________________________________________
____________________________________________________________________________

32. What do you think would improve the provision of quality ELT at this level? You may use extra sheet.

____________________________________________________________________________
____________________________________________________________________________
____________________________________________________________________________

33. Do you think there is a need to review the content(s) and structure(s) of English teacher education courses/units/programme in your university? □Yes □No

Please explain:
____________________________________________________________________________
____________________________________________________________________________
____________________________________________________________________________

34. What other aspect(s) of the provision of ELT would you like to change in your university?

Please list/add other aspect(s) here
____________________________________________________________________________
____________________________________________________________________________
____________________________________________________________________________
About your opinion

35. If you would like to explain in greater detail how you feel about any of the issues you have raised, please do so in this section. Use the chart below to assist you. You may use an extra sheet of paper.

☞ Please have your say here

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strengths</th>
<th>Weaknesses</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Opportunities</th>
<th>Threats</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

End of the questionnaire

☺ Thank you for taking this survey.

☺ Thank you very much for your time and invaluable input in my research

☞ Participation

Your participation is highly valuable:

Are you willing to participate in an interview to share additional insights about this questionnaire?

☐ Yes ☐ No

☞ Contact

If you are willing to be contacted by email or phone for a follow-up interview and classroom observation, please give your contact details:

________________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________________

Please note that these details will be kept in strictest confidence and not released to any third party. Your responses will be totally anonymous.

☞ Thank you very much for completing this questionnaire
APPENDIX 6  QUESTIONNAIRE FOR PROSPECTIVE TEACHERS OF ENGLISH (PTE)

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR PROSPECTIVE ENGLISH TEACHERS

Hello ☺. I am a PHD student from Monash University. I am investigating the provision of teacher training for English language teachers at University level. I want to identify the strengths and limitations that help or hinder the provision of quality initial English teacher education in your university. Your university has been purposively selected because it is the only university that train English teachers to-be in Zanzibar. Since you are a future English teacher, I would be grateful if you would answer the following simple questions, which should take you about 20-25 minutes. This is not a test. There are no rights or wrong answers. I am only interested in languaging i.e. your language practices and what you think about teacher education programme at your University. Please answer these questions as honestly as you can. All aspects of this study will be treated in confidence. Individual’s answer cannot be identified. If you would like to be contacted for a follow-up discussion, please give your details at the end of the questionnaire.

Please check the appropriate box as shown ☒

About yourself

1. I am: ☐ female ☐ male

2. I am a ☐ 1st year ☐ 2nd year ☐ 3rd year ☐ other – specify ______


4. In what geographical setting are you coming from?
I am from: ☐ Unguja ☐ Pemba ☐ Mainland ☐ Other, please specify ______

5. I studied mainly in ☐ Urban area ☐ Rural area

6. How many languages do you speak? ☑

List them: ______________________________________________________________________

7. What is your level of English, in your opinion?

☐ Elementary ☐ Intermediate ☐ Advanced

☐ Near-native speaker’s competence ☐ Other (please explain)__________

About your qualification and experience

8. What was your highest level of education before joining this university?

☐ O - level (secondary) ☐ A-level (high school) ☐ Certificate ☐ Diploma

9. When did you complete your high school? ☐ ☐ ☐

10. Have you studied in ☐ Public school (government) ☐ Private school

☐ Other – specify ____________

☞ Would you please like to tell me more, for example:

a) At what age did you start English in public or private school? ☑ ☐ years old.
b) Do you know why you were enrolled in public or private school? Explain

________________________________________________________________________________

________________________________________________________________________________

10. Before commencing this teacher training programme (pre-service teacher education), did you have another career/job? (for example: teacher, planning officer, typist)

☐ Yes ☐ No ☐ If Yes, please specify ____________________________

* If you were a teacher before, write down your years of experience as an English teacher

☐ ☐ (years) and explain if you received any training in teaching English.

________________________________________________________________________________

About the aspects of your training to be a teacher of English

11. In what key learning area(s) were you trained to teach in your current pre-service English teacher education program?

☐ Please check ☑ as many boxes as apply to you.

a) ☐ Planning your own lessons  b) ☐ Literacy skills

c) ☐ English teaching and technology  d) ☐ How do people learn a new language

e) ☐ Language learning and teaching theory  f) ☐ Designing English Language Teaching (ELT) materials

 g) ☐ Language teaching methodologies  h) ☐ Dealing with big classrooms

 i) ☐ Prepare supplementary materials and worksheets  j) ☐ Improvement of your own level of English

k) ☐ Other (please specify) •

________________________________________________________________________________

12. Does your teacher programme include observing English lessons taught by other people?

☐ Yes ☐ No

13. If Yes: who conduct these lessons?

☐ Experienced teachers from local schools ☐ Your course lecturer(s)

☐ Peers ☐ Other – please specify ____________________________
About your opportunities to learn

14. Please check one box on each row.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Your English language education program is providing you with the opportunity to ……</th>
<th>Not at all</th>
<th>To a minor extent</th>
<th>To a moderate extent</th>
<th>To a major extent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a) view national curriculum/ syllabus and their guidelines from the ministry</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☑</td>
<td>☑</td>
<td>☑</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b) prepare scheme of work</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☑</td>
<td>☑</td>
<td>☑</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c) plan and prepare lessons collaboratively</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☑</td>
<td>☑</td>
<td>☑</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d) gain a deep understanding of the content knowledge you were expected to teach</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☑</td>
<td>☑</td>
<td>☑</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e) make clear links between content or subject matter, and units about how to teach the content</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☑</td>
<td>☑</td>
<td>☑</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>f) make clear links between theoretical and practical aspects of teaching</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☑</td>
<td>☑</td>
<td>☑</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>g) develop a sound understanding of how students learn the specific content that you were expected to teach</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☑</td>
<td>☑</td>
<td>☑</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>h) learn how to probe students' prior understandings of content you were about to teach</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☑</td>
<td>☑</td>
<td>☑</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i) learn how to present content in ways that build on students' existing understanding</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☑</td>
<td>☑</td>
<td>☑</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>j) learn methods of teaching specific to the content you were expected to teach</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☑</td>
<td>☑</td>
<td>☑</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>k) how student learn and develop</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☑</td>
<td>☑</td>
<td>☑</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>l) practice new teaching skills, with feedback from your tutor/lecturer</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☑</td>
<td>☑</td>
<td>☑</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>m) analyze your teaching practice in relation to standards for good teaching practice</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☑</td>
<td>☑</td>
<td>☑</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>n) examine student work in relation to standards for student learning</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☑</td>
<td>☑</td>
<td>☑</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>o) use findings from research to improve your knowledge and practice</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☑</td>
<td>☑</td>
<td>☑</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>p) work collaboratively with other teachers</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☑</td>
<td>☑</td>
<td>☑</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>q) use student data to develop an action plan for future improvement of your teaching practices</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☑</td>
<td>☑</td>
<td>☑</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
15. How helpful is the Block Teaching Practice (BTP/practicum) experience to you in developing your teaching practice? Please check only one box.

☐ Not at all helpful  ☐ Some what helpful  ☐ Helpful  ☐ Very helpful

16. Please briefly describe how, in your view, Block Teaching Practice (BTP) component could be improved to help new English teachers learn how to teach.

________________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________________

17. What is particularly helpful in your language lectures/lessons?

________________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________________

18. What are the things that you really like about English lessons/classes in your university? (You may use an extra sheet of paper).

________________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________________

19. What are the things that you don’t like about English lessons/classes in your university? (You may use an extra sheet of paper).

________________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________________

About the language of instruction in your language lesson(s)

20. Which language do you mostly use in your English classes?

☐ Kiswahili  ☐ English  ☐ A mix of the two

21. Which language does your teacher use in your lectures/tutorials/seminars?
22. Please check one box in each row.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question</th>
<th>Never</th>
<th>Rarely</th>
<th>Sometimes</th>
<th>Often</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>During your language lessons, how often did you observe your teacher use English or Kiswahili?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a) Use Kiswahili only</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b) Use English only</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c) Use both English and Kiswahili</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

23. How do you feel when they use this/these language(s)? Do you like it or not. What would you prefer? Why? (You may use extra sheet).

Please explain: __________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________

24. Knowing what you do now, would you recommend a person interested in becoming an English teacher to take English in your university? ☐ Yes ☐ No

25. Knowing what you do now, would you say that you are:

☐ Proficient in English and professionally prepared
☐ Professionally prepared but not proficient in English
☐ Proficient in English but not professionally prepared
☐ Neither proficient nor professionally prepared

26. Knowing what you learn to date, how effective (do you think) is your English teacher education program in preparing you as an English teacher? Please check only one box.

☐ Not at all effective ☐ Somewhat effective ☐ Effective
☐ Very effective ☐ I don’t know

27. Why would you give your English language program that rating?

________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________
28. Please briefly describe how, in your view, your teacher education program could be improved to help new teachers learn how to teach English.

__________________________________________________________________________
__________________________________________________________________________
__________________________________________________________________________
__________________________________________________________________________
__________________________________________________________________________

29. FINAL CHANCE TO HAVE YOUR SAY

This questionnaire has explored a number of issues in relation to your preparation for English language teaching (ELT). If you would like to explain in greater detail how you feel about any of the issues raised, please do so in this section. In particular, if you believe that English teaching and learning in schools can be strengthened. I would like to read your views on how can this accomplished.

__________________________________________________________________________
__________________________________________________________________________
__________________________________________________________________________

30. ADDITIONAL COMMENTS

If you have any additional comments about any aspect of being a prospective English teacher, please add them here. You may use an extra sheet of paper.

__________________________________________________________________________
__________________________________________________________________________
__________________________________________________________________________

End of the questionnaire

☺ Thank you for taking this survey.
☺ Thank you very much for your time and invaluable input in my research
Participation

Note that your participation is highly valuable

Are you willing to participate in other follow-up sessions such as a focus group discussion, writing language learning biography and classroom observation to share additional insights about this questionnaire?  ☐ Yes  ☐ No

Contact

If you are willing to be contacted by email or phone for a follow up interview, you have an option of providing your contact details

Write your contact details here:
____________________________________________________________________________
____________________________________________________________________________
____________________________________________________________________________

Please note that these details will be kept in strictest confidence in locked files and not released to any third party. Your answers will be used in summaries and cannot be identified.

Thank you very much for completing this questionnaire
APPENDIX 7 GUIDING INTERVIEW THEMES FOR TEACHER EDUCATORS

The interviews were loosely structured around series of questions. Some or all of the following issues were probed during the interviews as appropriate to the respondent groups.

1. Knowledge about English language education (ELT) in general and at University
2. Perceptions of the English language education (ELT) at University
3. Value and needs of English teaching for different stakeholders
4. Major issues that enhance or inhibit ELT programme,
5. Major issues related to ELT practitioners
6. Opportunities (eg. support, career development, training, feedback, sharing ideas and resources) available for English educators
7. Opportunities available for prospective English teachers (eg. language learning support, feedback)
8. Quality of incoming students
9. Graduate outcomes
10. Role of English educators
11. Institutional partnerships
12. Daily activities (Research, Consultations and Teaching)
13. Teaching Practice/BTP
14. Role for English and Kiswahili in university learning
15. Views on Language Policy in Zanzibar
16. University courseware/course outlines
17. Pedagogy of university teaching
18. University policy
19. Level of proficiency of teacher candidates
APPENDIX 8  FOCUS GROUP DISCUSSION FOR PTE

Prompts

1. Tell me about your language learning experience.

2. Tell me about your educational background.

3. Where did you get information about a career in teaching? How did you choose a teaching career, in particular an English teacher?

4. With the training, you have already received so far, what advice would you give someone thinking of becoming an English teacher or joining this university?

5. You are in your 3rd year, how confident are you as an English teacher to be?

6. How do you decide what to teach in your English class/es?

7. Do you use a curriculum guide, a set of teaching standards or a particular text?

8. How does your programme prepare you to a changing world?

9. What most interests or irks you about your program/course at the moment?

10. What have you learned from being an English teacher?

11. What have you found to be unexpected and/or surprising about teaching English so far?

12. How do you see your role as an English language teacher over the next 5 years?

13 Describe any elements that you feel should have been included in your program, to better prepare you to be English teacher

14. What recent activities have you undertaken to develop your knowledge of language teaching?
APPENDIX 9 GUIDING INTERVIEW THEMES FOR UNIVERSITY OFFICIALS

1. What advice is offered to prospective students before they join university?
2. What are you doing to inform people(learners) if English teaching is for them or not, before they enroll in a pre-service course?
3. What is the selection procedure(s)/process/criteria used for admission to education course(s)? Any specific selection for English language teachers?
4. To what extent do universities help prospective students to decide if they are suited to be English teachers?
5. To what extent does the university policy take into account teachers’ language proficiency when delivering the curriculum?
6. What kind of support does your university provide to your teachers- both educators and prospective teachers?
7. What are the biggest challenges you see your university facing in implementing in the university the English teaching courses?
8. What quality assurance methods does your university use, and how effective are these methods? What do you see as likely future developments in this area?
9. What are the employment conditions of English language education teaching staff?
10. What arrangements does your university have in place for evaluating courses for English language teachers?
11. How are the following aspects of English language programmes funded in your university? (staffing, resources e.g., audio-visual materials, training or professional development for teachers).
12. Briefly describe the rationale underlying the provision of English language programmes in your university?
13. List key policies and documents that relate to the provision of English language programmes in your university.
14. What feedback do you receive from your teacher educators/graduates/prospective teachers about various aspects of pre-service education for English teachers?
15. What do you see as your organisational role in addressing major issues in English language teacher education in Zanzibar? Any further comments about the English teaching at your university (e.g., strengths, limitations)
APPENDIX 10 GUIDING INTERVIEW THEMES FOR VICE CHANCELLOR (VC)

The interview was loosely structured around series of questions. The following issues were probed during the interviews as appropriate to the respondent groups.

1. Personal views on language education and Language-in-education policy

2. What role should the teaching and learning of English play at SUZA now and in the immediate future

3. Do you think there is special role that SUZA should/can perform in Zanzibar now and in the immediate

4. In general, do you believe that the English students at SUZA have a better or worse standard of proficiency in English in English when they graduate

5. What changes do you believe should take place in relation to:
   - Overall curriculum at SUZA
   - English curriculum at SUZA
   - Education and training of existing English teaching staff at SUZA
   - Education and Training of new English staff at SUZA

6. Can you tell me the vision of SUZA in ten years from now

7. Language teaching is labour intensive. Do you think that SUZA should introduce more self – access learning to prospective English teachers to release staff to do research and consultation on an on-going basis?

8. Are you (SUZA) in a position to change language policy in Zanzibar?

9. What do you think SUZA can do to convince the Ministry of Education and Vocational Training (MoEVT) Zanzibar that it should play more central role in making language policy for the country.

10. If you were to convince MoEVT to change language policy in Zanzibar, what would you suggest for primary, secondary and tertiary education

11. What are the main issues /challenges that you have experienced in trying to bring about change at SUZA in particular when it come to language matter

12. What need to be done for students and lecturers to achieve higher proficiency in English

13. Any other comments or any issues you would like to mention?
APPENDIX 11 GUIDING INTERVIEW THEMES FOR UNIVERSITY GRADUATES

1. When did you graduate as an English language teacher?
2. What features of your pre-service English language education best prepared you for your current role as an English language teacher?
3. What would you like to have learnt more?
4. Were there any aspects of your pre-service English language teacher education that you would recommend changing? What were they? How might they be changed?
5. Was your pre-service English language teacher education well aligned with the curriculum you are now teaching or expected to teach? If not, which part(s) do you think were not relevant?
6. Did your pre-service English language teacher education provide you with the level of language proficiency you now feel you need?
7. Did your pre-service English language teacher education provided you with the level of pedagogical skills you now feel you need?
8. As a graduate, what is your perception about the effectiveness of English teacher education program?
9. Overall, how do you feel about your English teacher education program the pre-service educational opportunities you have had while you are at SUZA?
10. How well do you think your teacher education program prepared you to work as an English teacher in schools and/or in diverse settings?
11. What changes would you like to be made to English teacher education program to better prepare future teachers?
12. Overall, how well do you feel your program at the State University of Zanzibar (SUZA) prepare you for teaching English? Mention the area(s)
13. Would you like to comment on any areas in which you feel improvement is warranted?
14. What are the most important factors that inhibit or restrict your teaching of English now?
15. What kind of support/induction did you get when you started as a new English teacher?
16. Do you have any training needs in the area of English teaching? How are your specific training needs communicated?
17. What recent activities have you undertaken to develop your knowledge of language teaching?

Is there anything you would like to add about English language teaching education?
APPENDIX 12 GUIDING THEMES FOR MoEVT OFFICIALS

1. What is the current state of language policy for education in schools?
2. What are the real expectations placed on schools for delivering lesson(s) in English?
3. What gaps can be identified between policy for language(s) and actual practice in schools (e.g. choice, duration, amount of contact, continuity)?
4. How would you describe the conditions for the English language teacher(s) and program in your school?
5. What school level support is available for English language teaching?
6. What resources/curriculum support is available for English language teachers?
7. What professional development is available to school teachers about English language education?
8. What links exist between the Ministry of education/schools and university in Zanzibar?
9. What kind of induction/support is available for graduates (new) beginning teachers?
10. What are the barriers to offering high quality programmes? What are the drivers of high quality programmes, staffing, resources, funding?
11. What training and professional learning opportunities are available to teachers (English teachers)?
12. How are the following aspects of English language programmes funded? (For example, staffing, resources e.g., audio-visual materials, training or professional development for teachers).
13. Briefly describe the rationale underlying the provision of language programmes in schools? (English, Arabic, French).
14. Do partnerships exist between the university and schools and ministry? What type of partnership? What do you see as likely future developments in this area?
15. Does your school provide an induction program for new teachers? What do you see as likely future developments in this area?
16. What do you see as your organizational role in addressing major issues in English language teacher education in Zanzibar? What do you see as likely future developments in this area?
17. What opportunities are available in your Ministry for teachers to upgrade their teaching qualifications?
18. Do you have any criteria you use to select English language teachers –any process apart from university qualifications?
19. How are English teachers registered in Zanzibar? Do you have any requirement/criteria/guidelines for ELT registrations? If not, do you have any plans for developing such requirements in the future?

Please, make any further comments about the English language teaching that you think are relevant (e.g., strengths, limitations)
APPENDIX 13 PROMPTS FOR PTE BIOGRAPHY

Part A: Language Learning Experience
1. Tell me about your language learning experience. Tell me about your experience as a language learner.
2. What languages have you studied? How long did you study?
3. How easy/difficult did you find language study?
4. Describe your proficiency in each language (if any)?

Part B: English Language Learning Experience
5. Tell me about your experience of learning English as a second language.
6. Describe any challenge(s) you have faced.

Part C: Becoming an English teacher
7. Why did you choose to become an English teacher? Tell me your reasons.
8. What exactly attracted you to become an English teacher? Why do you want to teach English?
9. What grade/ level(s) do you hope to teach?
10. What do you hope to achieve in becoming an English teacher? Explain both personal and professional achievements
11. After completing this course, do you think your knowledge and skills in the area will be sufficient for you to teach English well?
12. If yes, explain what learning opportunities are available or you expect to obtain?
13. If not, is there anything that prevents you from becoming a good English teacher?
14. If you get an opportunity to retrain, what additional English course(s) or teacher education course(s) would you like to have? Why?
15. What changes do you believe should be made to English teacher education programs to better prepare future English teachers?

Part D: Describing the English teaching journey
16. Do you have any other comments on your journey to becoming an English teacher?
17. How would you describe this journey? (use words, drawing, photo)
APPENDIX 14  OBSERVATION GUIDE FOR UNIVERSITY GRADUATES

Classroom Observation Guide

General Information:

Instructor: ________________________________________________________________
Observer: ______________________________________________________________
Date: ___________________________________________________________________
Time: ___________________________________________________________________
Classroom: ___________________________________________________________________

Focus of observation

a. Teacher’s own work during the program (if any)
b. Artifacts of practices: for example lesson plans, assignments, sample of students’ work
c. Classroom practices: How does the teacher handle students’ English language errors? How does the teacher give productive feedback? What type of language activities does the teacher organize in the classroom teaching?
d. Language of classroom instruction: How much English or (Kiswahili) is used in classrooms? and how is English or (Kiswahili) used? For example: at what stage of the lesson and why?
e. Who is conducting most of the talking? Is it the teacher educator or the student teachers?
f. How does the teacher teachs generally? Using what methods? How does the teacher decide on which methodology to use in his/her (daily) teaching? What factors influence this decision?
g. Interaction: How does the teacher interact with student teachers? Is there any interaction between the teacher educator and student teachers? How does the teacher ask and respond to the students’ questions in class?
h. Opportunities: Is there any group work or pair work in the classroom teaching and learning? Is there any oral English practice in the classroom teaching? Any other opportunities for speaking, listening, reading and writing.
i. Assessments: How does the teacher decide which assessment approach to use? What factors influence these decisions?
j. Technology: How does the teacher educator use technology in his/her teaching? What factors influence this decision?
k. Philosophy of language teaching: Understanding of how different students learning second languages
## APPENDIX 15  GENERAL OBSERVATION CHECKLISTS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>General Themes</th>
<th>Comment(s)</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Course: Rationale and Policy, course unit/details</td>
<td>Drivers</td>
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<tr>
<td>course entry/requirement, course structure and contents</td>
<td>Inhibitors</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Training and Professional Learning Opportunities</td>
<td>Remark(s)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Resourcing</td>
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<tr>
<td>Quality</td>
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<tr>
<td>Staffing/Personnel</td>
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<td>Incoming Students and Graduate outcome</td>
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<tr>
<td>Number of Student enrolled</td>
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<td>Evaluation /Feedback</td>
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<td>Planning</td>
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<td>Recognition and involvement</td>
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<td>Induction</td>
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<td>Block Teaching Practice/Practicum</td>
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<td>Assessment(s)</td>
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<td>English language proficiency</td>
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<td>Use of English /Kiswahili</td>
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<tr>
<td>Interests in readings</td>
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<tr>
<td>Other feature(s)</td>
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