Teachers’ Perspectives Regarding the Impacts of the Secondary Education Expansion Policy on Students’ Self-Regulatory Learning Experiences in Tanzania

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Abstract
Since 2004, the Tanzania secondary education sector has witnessed a significant increase in the number of new schools and enrolment rates. At the same time, academic results have indicated an increase in poor student performance. The assumption has been that the expansion policy brought about devastating consequences for student learning. The purpose of this study, therefore, was to investigate the perceptions of teachers in relation to the impacts of the government's secondary education expansion policy on students, especially their self-regulatory learning. A qualitative case study approach was employed, and interviews were used as data gathering tools. Thirty respondents were purposively drawn from two highly and two poorly performing community secondary schools in Tanzania. Findings revealed that false policy promises in relation to school libraries, students’ housing and students’ learning spaces were obstacles to students in developing their self-regulatory learning habits. For the sake of fostering students’ self-regulatory learning, this paper recommends that it is the responsibility of the government, among other stakeholders, to address all issues pertaining to school infrastructure. The limitation of this study provides a chance to suggest areas which need further investigation.

Keywords
Secondary Education, Self-Regulatory Learning, Expansion Policy, Case Study

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Since 2004, the Tanzania secondary education sector has witnessed a significant increase in the number of new schools and enrolment rates. At the same time, academic results have indicated an increase in poor student performance. The assumption has been that the expansion policy brought about devastating consequences for student learning. The purpose of this study, therefore, was to investigate the perceptions of teachers in relation to the impacts of the government’s secondary education expansion policy on students, especially their self-regulatory learning. A qualitative case study approach was employed, and interviews were used as data gathering tools. Thirty respondents were purposively drawn from two highly and two poorly performing community secondary schools in Tanzania. Findings revealed that false policy promises in relation to school libraries, students’ housing and students’ learning spaces were obstacles to students in developing their self-regulatory learning habits. For the sake of fostering students’ self-regulatory learning, this paper recommends that it is the responsibility of the government, among other stakeholders, to address all issues pertaining to school infrastructure. The limitation of this study provides a chance to suggest areas which need further investigation. Keywords: Secondary Education, Self-Regulatory Learning, Expansion Policy, Case Study

Many African countries have signed a number of international conventions to address the challenges of access to education. As a consequence, these countries and Tanzania in particular, developed education expansion policies directed towards the establishment of new schools as part of their commitment to the implementation of these resolutions. The policy focused on three main areas: increasing access, improving equity and enhancing the quality of education. As a result of this expansion policy, the number of schools and enrolment rates skyrocketed. While between 2004 and 2008, the number of schools increased by 194%, the enrolment rates rose from 22.2% to 84.3% in 2005 and 2007 respectively. In spite of the government’s efforts to expand secondary education sector, student achievement has been declining, with the majority of lower secondary student leavers getting marginal pass grades or failing completely. This concern can be seen in the following data which shows that the student failure rate started to increase from 16.3% in 2008 to 49.6% in 2010, 46.4% in 2011, and 60.1% in 2012 (Ministry of Education and Vocational Training, 2011, 2012). This poor performance trend indicates that the expansion policy operated in challenging environment which in turn produced detrimental impacts on student learning. Daniela (2015) and Mega, Ronconi, and Beni (2014) argue that students’ success does not only rely on teachers’ commitment, but also how students themselves are self-regulated to learn. Therefore, since the impact of the Tanzanian secondary education reforms on students’ self-regulatory learning has seldom been explored, my study set out to seek teachers’ perceptions and understandings around this issue. One research question which this study has endeavoured to answer was: how do teachers explain implications of the secondary education development programme for students’ learning behaviours?
A Review of Self-Regulatory Learning Concept

In the last three decades, a considerable number of researchers have attempted to integrate the key components of Bandura's learning theory with findings from other areas of cognitive psychology (Bruning, Schrow, & Norby, 2011; Krause, Bochner, Duchesne, & McMaugh, 2010). These attempts resulted in the development of self-regulatory learning theory. Self-regulatory learning refers to learners' personal responsibility and control for their own acquisition of knowledge, skills and attitudes (Ormrod, 2008; Zimmerman, 1989). These researchers, and other writers (Banisaeid & Huang, 2015; Lavasani, Mirhosseini, Hejazi, & Davoodi, 2011; Margaryan, Littlejohn, & Milligan, 2013; Schunk, 2005); however, highlight that self-regulatory learners do not necessarily learn on their own. Instead, these learners may ask for other people's assistance to enable them to work more independently. In this regard, teachers, parents and mentors endeavour to encourage or teach students to become self-directed learners. Santrock (2006) suggests that teachers who inspire their students to be self-directed learners convey a message that students are responsible for their own academic well-being. With regard to this, social cognitive theorists and cognitive psychologists conclude that self-regulatory learning is one of the best ways to enhance students’ intellectual independence (Bruning et al., 2011), and learning habits and study skills (Zumbrunn, Tadlock, & Roberts, 2011).

A growing body of literature highlights that a professional teacher seeks to ensure that effective teaching and learning takes place. However, in order to achieve this particular educational goal certain pre-requisites are required. Gurney (2007), for instance, mentioned five factors responsible for achieving quality teaching and learning. These factors are teachers’ knowledge and morale; classroom activities which encourage intellectual critical thinking and curiosity; assessment tasks which stimulate learning through experiences; effective feedback; and an interactive environment for teacher and students. This suggests that quality of education delivery is about establishing the best-fit environment which facilitates students to develop their cognitive competencies and understandings (Bandura, 1997; Saydee, 2015).

Researchers have also suggested several techniques to promote the delivery of high quality education. One of the strategies involves giving students activities which encourage independent learning, such as seatwork assignments and homework (Ormrod, 2008). Alongside this, Bruning et al. (2011) describe four aspects of teaching that help students become good self-regulatory learners: providing students with a choice which facilitates autonomy; emphasising collaborative instructions; providing support during the acquisition of new knowledge and skills; and regular assessments that involve giving feedback to students. This kind of support is important for students because it enables them to be more aware of their own abilities to learn and solve problems. However, “though most teachers would agree that teaching students to be more self-regulative in the classroom would be ideal, the practice does not come without challenges” (Zumbrunn et al., 2011, p. 17). Watson (2004) pointed out that teachers’ limited understanding of every student’s learning styles is among the challenges which affect teachers to teach their students to become self-regulatory learners.

Conceptual Framework

Vygotsky’s sociocultural theory of cognitive development underpinned this study. The theory emphasises the importance of social interdependence and individual processes in knowledge construction (John-Steiner & Mahn, 1996). More specifically, the theory asserts that despite an inherent nature of capacity, a child who interacts with his or her cultural settings enhances his or her cognition (Duchesne, McMaugh, Bochner, & Krause, 2013). According to Vygotsky, as children socially interact with the environment around them their thinking,
feeling and behaviour tend to change (Cline, 2015). These interactive experiences facilitate the development of skills and competences in children. The central theme in Vygotsky’s work is the concept of zonal proximal development (ZPD). The ZPD is defined as “the distance between what one can achieve alone and what one can achieve with help” (Peer & McClendon, 2002, p. 137). This concept highlights that children develop high degree of cognition when the gaps in their knowledge and problem solving are supported by their teachers or colleagues. Vygotsky further identifies three strategies which teachers can employ to help students increase their mental skills in the classroom: providing meaningful and authentic activities; using scaffolding to help students progress; and structure classroom tasks to encourage student interaction (Eggen & Kauchak, 2004).

Alongside the ZPD, the idea of “support” was also highly emphasised in Vygotsky’s theory (Fania & Ghaemi, 2011; John-Steiner & Mahn, 1996; Peer & McClendon, 2002). He notes that a child cannot learn only through social interaction with the environment but also with the support of adults. Similarly, secondary school students in Tanzania interacted with diverse contexts which could have impacts on their learning. I believe, however, that fulfilling ZPD gaps and achieving Vygotsky’s three strategies could only be successful if the expansion policy prioritised in establishing best-fit school environments to allow teachers to perform their professional roles in supporting students to learn independently. Therefore, Vygotsky’s sociocultural theory facilitated me to understand how school environment shaped teachers’ ability to help students develop their self-regulatory learning habit in order to enhance their learning success and competences.

**Researcher Context**

At the time of this research, I was a doctoral candidate in education at one of the universities in New Zealand. I came to doctoral study after serving as a secondary school teacher and pre-service teacher educator in Tanzania. These professional arenas exposed me to a variety of experiences. I taught in secondary schools before the adoption of the expansion plan and during this period, class sizes were not big. This facilitated me as a professional and experienced teacher to effectively interact with students and provide academic support whenever needed. The school had a suitable environment including the availability of teaching and learning resources. This increased my professional confidence because I had an opportunity to produce challenging questions for students to work on as I knew that they would be able to find answers from the abundant resources available in the school. For this reason, I witnessed students accessing new knowledge and skills which not only enhanced their thinking abilities, but also improved my professional competence. However, I felt disenchanted to hear from other Tanzanian teachers and the general public complaining that the newly built schools were operating in a poor state. Furthermore, when I became a teacher educator at university, especially during the implementation of the expansion plan, I taught my pre-service teachers to prepare their students to become self-directed learners. The challenging school environment, however, created doubt in me about whether or not such teachers would be successful in achieving their roles upon being posited in these new schools. This study, therefore, was intended to explore how teachers describe the impact of diverse school contexts on students’ self-regulated learning. I surmised that identifying factors affecting self-regulated learning among students would add to a body of knowledge in self-regulatory theory and literature.
Methods

Research Approach and Respondents

Since the study was concerned with understanding the perceptions and experiences of teachers in relation to the government secondary education expansion policy in Tanzania, the qualitative case study approach was deemed appropriate. Typically, a qualitative case study approach places emphasis on a naturalistic-phenomenological philosophy which declares that multiple realities are socially constructed through interaction (MacMillan & Schumacher, 1993). Case study refers to an extensive investigation of entities such as an individual, group, school or programme (Creswell, 2008; Johnson & Christensen, 2012; Yin, 2011). Case studies in this research involved schools and teachers. In particular, the qualitative case study design seeks to understand how people interpret the social world as they interact with one another. Because data are gathered in a specific context, the social worlds of respondents are acknowledged to be of significant value in understanding the phenomena under investigation. It is through qualitative case study design that new and more complex knowledge is expected to be “interpreted, understood, experienced and produced” (Soklaridis, 2009, p. 719).

Thirty teachers with at least ten years of service and from four secondary schools established under the expansion policy, were purposely selected to participate in this study. This selection guaranteed that these teachers were employed before or during the adoption of the policy and thus could be aware of how their students struggled in learning. The national examination results were used as criteria for selecting the four schools studied. Therefore, teachers in two high performing schools and two low performing schools were sampled for investigation. I relied upon examination results in selecting these schools because some literature (Devos, 2010) suggests that schools whose students are successful, are likely to have good learning environment as opposed to schools whose students perform poorly. This small sample of schools and respondents helped me to gain detailed insights about the expansion policy and its effects on students’ self-regulatory academic learning. The schools studied were anonymised as “Tropical,” “City,” “Savanna” and “Rift Valley.” While the first two represent high-performing schools, the last two were low performing. Before carrying out the study I received approval and clearance from my university’s ethical committee in order to ensure that the participants’ rights, safety, privacy and confidentiality were adhered to. After receiving the ethical approval, I sought permission from the district officials who were in charge of all schools within their designated areas. Further permission was solicited from school principals. The participants (teachers), the district officials and school principals were assured that their elicited information and their schools would be anonymised. Participants and district authority figures however were informed about the possibility of the findings being published.

Data Collection Tools

The focus of the qualitative study approach is the gathering of significant information in the field where participants experience the issue (Creswell, 2009). This suggests that a researcher needs to use multiple data collection methods to contextualise the research and triangulate the findings (Lodico, Spaulding, & Voegtle, 2006). Based on this, interviews (i.e., individual interviews [IN] and focus group interviews [FG]) were employed to collect data from respondents (teachers). More specifically, individual interviews were conducted with two experienced teachers in each school, and the heads of schools (one from each school). In each sampled school, there was one focus group interview with four teachers. Out of the four, two were science teachers and two were humanities and social science teachers. The one-to-one and focus group interviews occupied approximately 40 and 60 minutes respectively.
interview was tape recorded in order to improve accuracy and quality of data (Wallen & Fraenkel, 2001). The combined data from the different sources were instrumental in facilitating rich understandings of the unique lived experiences of the respondents in the specific context, hence maximising the validity of findings and conclusions (Mutch, 2013; Wiersman, 1986).

Data Analysis Procedures

Although there is no consensus about the suitable approach for analysing qualitative case study data (Creswell, 2008), this study adopted inductive content analytical procedures. Initially, the interview data were transcribed. After transcription, I repeatedly read the data for familiarisation purposes. This practice was followed by coding or organisation of data. Coding is the process of labelling what is relevant and interesting out of text data. This process aims at identifying the emerging categories and themes (Seidman, 2006). Codes can take the form of words, phrases, sentences or whole paragraphs. In my study, I did not code word by word or sentence by sentence as I was not able to manage too many codes (Creswell, 2008). However, quoted responses were used as evidence to elaborate on the teachers’ understandings of the phenomena under investigation. In conjunction with the analysis of the interview data, I examined and analysed the expansion policy document by looking at the consistency between the policy promises and implementation of strategies in order to understand how effective the policy was. My assumption was that unsuccessful policy promises could be impacting on students in a negative manner. Because the interview data were linked with what was stated in the document, the analysis of the policy document worked to explain the reality of the phenomena under study (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2006), thereby making sense (meaning) of the data.

Results

This section reports on the results highlighting teachers’ perceptions and experiences in relation to factors which prohibited students’ self-regulatory learning. The results emerged from a critical analysis of data were presented in three major themes: students’ learning spaces, students’ housing and school libraries

Students’ Learning Spaces

In their sharing of ideas, most of the participants demonstrated dissatisfaction with the conditions of classrooms as crucial infrastructure influencing learning. Although Savanna and Rift Valley Schools had enough classrooms, the heads and teachers of these schools were anxious about the quality of these buildings. They specifically stated that many of the classrooms were not in good condition because most of them were only frames, and without glazed windows or lined ceilings. The heads of schools claimed that classrooms built before the expansion plan were in better quality than those built after the policy implementation. They, however, argued that because of the high number of primary school graduates expected to be enrolled in the new secondary schools, the government focused on building many classrooms to accommodate the high number of students while overlooking or failing to maintain the quality of the buildings. The incompleteness of these classrooms was viewed as having negative impacts on the general academic wellbeing of the schools. One of the experienced teachers from Savanna School expressed his views about how low-quality classrooms affected general student learning. He commented: “When students are in a classroom they should feel that they are in a different environment from what they have been used to. Now, when such learners find themselves in the same surroundings, such learners will not be motivated to learn”
(IN14). In other words, the quality of school infrastructures influenced students’ states of mind. Teachers interviewed felt that because students did not see anything special about their school’s physical environments they became unmotivated and thus either exhibited truancy habits, dropped out of school or disengaged from the teaching and learning processes. This confirms that although the expansion plan emphasised that schools would be provided with funding for new classrooms and rehabilitation of existing ones, in order to make them student-friendly, this was not achieved.

The teachers said that the lack of glass in most of the classroom windows and doors resulted in students shivering terribly from cold because of strong winds that sometimes blew through windows and doors thus distracting them from what the teacher might be teaching. For their part, the teachers from Rift Valley School described the chaos they encountered when teaching in the classrooms with unlined ceilings. One of the experienced teachers noted that this caused noise interference from nearby classrooms, especially when teachers were teaching and students were participating in the lesson. This concern was acknowledged by most of the teachers from this school as one among the major distracting factors for students. Specifically, these teachers claimed that such obstacles reduced students’ attitude to learn and subsequently these students did not effectively gain the intended knowledge from their teachers.

The teachers also shared their experiences about how the insufficient number of classrooms affected the delivery of quality education. The teachers from Tropical and City Schools said that the shortage of classrooms caused congestion in the few available classrooms and therefore classroom management and control became very difficult. When prompted to explain the strategies they used to deal with large classes, some of the teachers declared that due to the high number of students in the classroom they never required students to work in groups because the limited space would not allow for maximum interaction. Related to this idea, one of the science teachers from Tropical School stated, “Overcrowded classrooms deny us teachers the chance to properly interact with our students; even when conducting a simple experiment, we find it difficult to get to all students and see what they are doing individually” (FG1).

**Students’ Housing**

The heads of schools and teachers mentioned the inadequate accommodation facilities for students as another factor that prevented students from achieving the education goals of the schools. There is, however, a great variety of accommodation standards between the schools. Of the four schools, two schools especially, Tropical and Rift Valley, had a few hostels which catered for a limited number of students, particularly those who were able to meet the fees required. The remaining two schools, City and Savanna, lacked these facilities. Since such hostels required the students to pay boarding costs it is plausible that some students who were potentially enthusiastic to learn and share knowledge with others failed to join their colleagues because they were unable to meet these costs.

Owing to the lack or scarcity of these amenities on school campuses most students lived off school premises. In the discussion the teachers identified two categories of students who stayed off school premises: those who because they came from very far villages rented rooms close to the schools and; those who lived at home with their parents. The latter group might live near or far from the school. The teachers talked about the challenges which faced students from far-off villages who were renting rooms off school premises. They said that since these students lived without any kind of care or monitoring, some of them engaged in alcohol drinking and other non-academic activities instead of seriously dedicating their time to studying and doing work assigned to them by their teachers. One of the humanities teachers from Savanna School said, “Whenever female students face financial hardship, many of them
engage in prostitution business so that they can gain some money to meet their needs, something which leads to teen pregnancies and subsequently expulsion from school” (FG).

On this same topic one of the male science teachers from Rift Valley School said, “Because students stay off school premises, when they go back to their rented rooms, they are required to look for firewood and water to start cooking a meal” (FG). He was concerned that if teachers gave them take-home assignments these students would be not able to concentrate on their homework because of tiredness. These remarks indicate that some of the students at these schools lived in a very difficult and stressful environment, something which prevented them from engaging effectively in learning.

School Libraries

There was a perception among respondents that the government built new schools without due preparations, especially in the establishment of libraries and the provision of books. Most teachers described a serious shortage of books in their schools and how it affected the general practice of teaching and learning. With regard to this, one of the experienced male teachers from Tropical School gave this example: “Apart from learning Mathematics in the class, students are expected to consult other books to find out what the question requires them to do and how they will tackle it? Therefore, if there are not enough books, students will lack exposure to more examples that could be found in books” (IN4).

A related fear was articulated by the experienced female teacher from Rift Valley School who believed that due to the shortage of books, students would continue to rely on examples given by the teacher and would not be able to individually work through exercises that are often given (IN8). In their interviews, teachers pointed out that private study for students was allocated in the school teaching and learning timetable. These teachers, however, complained that the absence of a library and its resources deprived students of a convenient place in which to study comfortably when it was private study time. The respondents concluded that as a result of this, students did not effectively accomplish assignments they had been given by their teachers.

When probed to explain the initiatives they used to address the challenges brought about by the shortage of libraries and books, the teachers offered a variety of views. One of the science teachers from City School noted that these shortages mean that she is unable to give students assignments and exercises requiring them to research by reading different books (FG2). The head of the same school (City School) stated: “A library would be beneficial for students if the teacher set them learning tasks that required research and reading,” and asked, “If there is no library, where will such learners go?” (IN5). These accounts imply that the lack of library and books constrained students from developing a reading culture. It was also noted that because of the lack of libraries and shortage of books students relied extensively on the notes of their teachers. The experienced male teacher from Savanna School, for example, stated: “Since I have one textbook which I only use myself, I usually prepare summary notes about the topic I’m teaching for my students to study in their own time” (IN10). Teachers emphasised that this kind of teaching and learning had detrimental implications for students in the sense that if the teacher had shallow knowledge of the subject, the same level of knowledge would be communicated to the learners.

Discussion

Teachers in this study generally believed that the school environment has negative impacts on students’ educational experiences. Zimmerman (1990) identified three major strategies which are responsible for enhancing self-regulatory learning between and among
students. These are metacognitive, motivational, and management strategies. Metacognitive strategies are about students’ ability to set realistic goals and choose a course of action to ensure that those goals are achieved. Management strategies are concerned with students’ monitoring, especially in the efficient use of limited resources available in the school. What was evident from this study is that the lack of libraries in the context of the expansion plan prohibited students from setting their own private study time schedule to improve their learning. Teachers noted that because of this predicament, students used most of their private study time to engage in social activities and disruptive practices. In line with this, Kleijnen, Huysmans, and Elbers (2015) and Jato, Ogunniyi, and Olubiyo (2014), who studied the relationship between school libraries and student performance, found that libraries promote students’ attitude to learn which in turn improved their cognitive growth. These researchers, therefore, recommend that library study hours should be scheduled into the school time table to enable students to acquire new knowledge and skills that will supplement what they are taught in class. As noted earlier, however, the teachers studied demonstrated that although private study for students were allocated in the school teaching and learning time table, their schools lacked libraries and books.

Motivational strategies, according to Zimmerman, refers to the ability of students to successfully complete their tasks without any interference (Bruning et al., 2011). In this study teachers believed the lack of student housing within the school premises undermined their ability to complete their homework and other assignments. Teachers reported that the tiredness which these students experienced as a result of performing their usual home chores and walking a long distance to and from the school was a barrier to self-motivation to learn. These findings cohere with the quantitative study by Ghani and Suleiman (2016), who reported off-school campus students as having more learning challenges than their on-campus colleagues. In their study, Ghani and Suleiman argued that student housing within school premises enables students to live an independent academic life style which is essentially home rule and regulation free. As a result of this, students are able to enjoy the on-campus laboratory and library facilities available to them to engage in academic work whenever required. Nevertheless, since the Tanzanian secondary schools established under the expansion plan lacked housing facilities, it was plausibly the reason that some students who were potentially enthusiastic to learn and share knowledge with others, failed to join their colleagues because of such a challenge. This was contrary to the expansion plan promise to construct housing facilities for students throughout the country.

The ineffectiveness of metacognitive, motivational, and management strategies as per teachers’ testimonies clearly confirms that school infrastructure has very significant impacts on students’ self-regulatory learning. The role of a classroom as a learning space for self-regulatory learning has gained support from several researchers (Paris & Paris, 2001; Zahidi, 2012; Zumbrunn et al., 2011). Perry and VandeKamp (2000) found in their study that classrooms with reasonable number of students provided opportunities for students to engage in independent learning and successful write activities assigned by their teachers. Teachers’ perspectives in my study, however, suggest that since students lacked opportunities to learn effectively in the overcrowded classrooms they would then have a hard time when they wanted to rehearse the taught knowledge on their own.

Studies addressing the challenges associated with the expansion policy are numerous (Lyimo, Too, & Kipng’etich, 2017; Okkolin, Lehtomäki, & Bhalalusesa, 2010; Semali & Mehta, 2012). Poor financing, irrelevant curricula, and lack of school needs and physical facilities were identified in these studies as crucial factors which negatively impacted on the success of the policy and in turn student learning outcomes. While some researchers argue that physical environment is unimportant as a self-regulatory learning determining factor (Jouhari, Haghani, & Changiz, 2015; Kizilcec, Perez-Sanagustin, & Maldonado, 2017; Liu, 2017), the
present study alongside other researchers (Harrison & Prain, 2009; Nugraha, Degeng, Hanurawan, & Chusniah, 2016) argue the opposite way. The overall finding that school infrastructures have an impact on students’ self-regulatory learning is out of step with Balapumi, Konsky, Aitken, and McMeekin (2016). Whilst factors such as prior learning experiences, peer influence, and family influence were found by these researchers to have direct implications for university students’ self-regulation of learning, they had indirect impacts on the teaching staff. According to self-regulatory theory, teachers work only to encourage students to manage and engage in their own learning (Balapumi & Aitken, 2012; Bruning et al., 2011; Effeney, Carroll, & Bahr, 2013; Zimmerman, 1990). This may be the reason why these studies found that teaching staff are only indirectly impacted.

**Limitations and Recommendations**

One of the limitations of this study was that it sought teachers’ understandings about the impacts of the expansion policy on students, but not on the teachers themselves. Therefore, other researchers may include probing questions to explore how such the expansion policy affects the career of teaching. Furthermore, it seems that apart from affecting students’ self-regulatory learning, inadequate provision of student learning spaces, housing and libraries impacted on students’ identities and their self-efficacy. Because this study focused attention on teachers’ views and opinions, other studies could be carried out to investigate students’ perceptions and experiences about how these infrastructures affect the identities and efficacy beliefs of these students. Since school infrastructures were seen as having alarming or grave consequences for teaching and students’ self-regulatory learning, the government of Tanzania should improve such infrastructures in order to enhance the quality of secondary education as promised in the expansion plan.

**References**


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