

**MAPPING OUT THE PATH OF TEACHER EDUCATION DEVELOPMENT IN  
MOZAMBIQUE**

**A CASE STUDY OF THE PEDAGOGIC UNIVERSITY (1985-2012)**

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**A thesis submitted to the Faculty of Humanities, University of the Witwatersrand,  
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## **Abstract**

This study explores the role of the Pedagogic University of Mozambique in preparing teachers for the national education system in Mozambique. Its main aim is to develop a retrospective and interpretive analysis of a university-based teacher education system at the university, along with its legacy and institutional changes. Exploring a case study of the Pedagogic University of Mozambique, it examines how the project of teacher education has developed at the university, in terms of the outcomes of its stated vision and mission as well as the content, form, assumptions and expectations inherent in the kind of learning and teaching that it delivers.

In providing an overview of the activities of the University, it is necessary to take into consideration the legacy and changes that have occurred in the conception, organisation and delivery of the university's teaching programmes. The study also presents and analyses the experiences and perceptions of the academic staff, fourth-year students, school principals, and officials from the Ministry of Education and Culture. It is a qualitative study, which is developed through a literature review, documentary analysis and semi-structured interviews.

The study employs the concept of a 'continuum of teacher learning' and applies it to a discussion of professional education supported by Lortie (1975); Britzman (1991); Villegas-Reimers; (2003); Schwille and Dembélé (2007); Morrow (2007); Conway, Murphy, Rath and Hall (2009). It argues that the Pedagogic University has been developing an ideal model which takes into account the socioeconomic conditions prevailing in Mozambique. This involves changing from a consecutive model to a concurrent programme model, in which a professional component is provided at the same time as a general component. The programmes are delivered in an integrated way, so that subject content and pedagogic content are delivered simultaneously from the first year until the end of the course. Another characteristic of this ideal model is that the same programmes are delivered to students who are already teachers and students without any teaching experience.

Many factors limit the major mission of the institution, and these are described in detail. They include the absence of a national teacher education development framework, budget constraints and a lack of financial resources at institutional level. The study argues that institutional responses to these constraints ought to be understood within the context of universities worldwide. They have resulted in the University gradually becoming a "pedagogic" institution in name only: it has moved from being completely devoted to the field of education to becoming a university that delivers a variety of programmes, including those that are perceived to be most marketable.

The study also covers the emergence of careerism among students, as well as the installation of some sort of *distraction* among the academic staff competing for extra hours in the new programmes in order to increase their sources of income. One of the major conclusions reached by this study is that the changes have become inevitable, mostly because of the dominance of a neoliberal economic agenda in one of the very poorest countries in the world. Within a financially fraught context, such changes are inevitable. Students are unable to pay the rising cost of fees for teacher education programmes, aside from the fact that teaching is not a popular profession and studying education is not usually the students' first choice.

**Key words:** teacher education development; continuum of teacher learning; secondary school teachers; concurrent and consecutive models; curricular transformations; Mozambique.

## **Declaration**

I declare that this thesis is my own unaided work. It is submitted for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in the University of the Witwatersrand, Johannesburg. It has not been submitted before for any other degree or examination in any other university.

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Juliano Neto de Bastos

Date:

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## **Dedication**

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## List of Abbreviations and Acronyms

ACER	Australian Council for Educational Research
ADEA	Association for the Development of Education in Africa
B.Ed.	Bachelor of Education
CPD	Continuing Professional Development
DDE	<i>Direcção Distrital de Educação (District Education Directorate)</i>
DNP	<i>Direcção Nacional de Planificação (National Directorate of Planning)</i>
DNPC	Direcção Nacional de Planificação e Cooperação (National Directorate of Planning and Cooperation)
DoE	Department of Education
DPE	<i>Direcção Provincial de Educação (Provincial Education Directorate)</i>
EFTA	European Free Trade Association
EP1	<i>Primeiro Grau do Ensino Primário (Lower Primary Education)</i>
EP2	<i>Segundo Grau do Ensino Primário (Upper Primary Education)</i>
ESG1	<i>Primeiro Ciclo do Ensino Secundário Geral (First Cycle of General Secondary School)</i>
ESG2	<i>Segundo Ciclo do Ensino Secundário Geral (Second Cycle of General Secondary School)</i>
ESP	Education Strategic Plan
ETUCE	European Trade Union Committee for Education
EU	European Union
FRELIMO	<i>Frente de Libertação de Moçambique (Mozambique Liberation Front)</i>
GDR	German Democratic Republic
GoM	Government of Mozambique
GP	<i>Governo Provincial (Provincial Government)</i>
HDRC	Human Development Research Centre
HE	Higher Education
HEI	Higher Education Institutions
IFM	International Monetary Fund
IMAP	<i>Instituto do Magistério Primários</i>
INDE	<i>Instituto Nacional de Desenvolvimento da Educação (Institute for Educational Development)</i>

INSET	In-Service Training
ISCED	International Standard Classification of Education
ISCTEM	<i>Instituto Superior de Ciências e Tecnologia de Moçambique</i> (Higher Institute of Science and Technology)
ISP	<i>Instituto Superior Pedagógico</i> (Higher Pedagogic Institute)
ISPU	<i>Instituto Superior Politécnico e Universitário</i> (Higher Polytechnique and University Institute)
ISRI	<i>Instituto Superior de Relações Internacionais</i> (Higher Institute for International Relations)
ISUTC	<i>Instituto Superior dos Transportes e Comunicações</i> (Institute of Transport and Communication)
MDG	Millennium Development Goal
MEC	Ministério da Educação e Cultura (Ministry of Education and Culture)
MINED	<i>Ministério da Educação</i> (Ministry of Education)
MoE	Ministry of Education
MUSTER	Multi-Site Teacher Education Research
NQF	National Qualification Framework
OECD	Organization of Economic Cooperation and Development
OSSREA	Organisation for Social Science Research in Eastern Africa
PEE	<i>Plano estratégico da Educação</i> (Education Strategic Plan)
PEEC	<i>Plano Estratégico da Educação e Cultura</i> (Strategic Plan of Education and Culture)
PGCE	Postgraduate Certificate of Education Reform
PIREP	<i>Programa Integrado da Reforma de Educação Técnico Profissional</i> (Integrated Programme of Technical-Professional Education Reform)
PRESET	Pre-service Training
QTS	Qualified Teacher Status
RENAMO	<i>Resistência Nacional de Moçambique</i> (Mozambican National Resistance)
SAP	Structural Adjustment Programmes
SNE	<i>Sistema Nacional de Educação</i> (National Education System)
TE	Teacher Education
TVET	Technical Vocational Education and Training
UCM	<i>Universidade Católica de Moçambique</i> (Catholic University of Mozambique)
UEM	<i>Universidade Eduardo Mondlane</i> (Eduardo Mondlane University)
UMBB	<i>Universidade Mussa Bin Bique</i> (Mussa Bin Bique University)
UNESCO	The United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organization



UP	<i>Universidade Pedagógica</i> (Pedagogic University)
USSR	The Union of Soviet Socialist Republics
WGESA	Working Group on Education Sector Analysis
ZIP	<i>Zona de Influência Pedagógica</i> (Zone of Pedagogical Influence- School clusters)

# CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

This introductory chapter presents the background information necessary for a comprehensive understanding of the study and outlines how it is structured and developed. It is organised into the following sections: (i) introduction and background; (ii) aim of the study; (iii) research focus and questions; (iv) motivation and implications of the study; (v) thesis statement; and (vi), structure and outline of the thesis.

## 1.1 Introduction and background to the study

Before achieving independence in 1975, there were no systematic programmes available in Mozambique for preparing teachers at tertiary level, either within university faculties of education or schools of education. A pedagogical programme for science and arts students was offered at the end of the course of study at the only colonial university in the country. The majority of students who attended this programme left the country straight after independence was achieved.

In 1976 the University of Lourenço Marques became Eduardo Mondlane University (UEM). In the context of a new political dispensation, this institution assumed the enormous responsibility of training of cadres from different sectors. In political terms, the Eduardo Mondlane University was required to address issues resulting from the inequalities of the past and admit students who would never previously have had access to higher education because of their disadvantaged backgrounds. The University began implementing education programmes in 1976. The courses on offer were designed to prepare teachers for service in lower secondary schools, which were the first and second years of the preparatory cycle (Grade 5 and Grade 6).<sup>1</sup> It is important to stress that, as a legacy of colonial education, primary education still included four grades after the pre-primary level. However, the creation of the Faculty of Education in 1981 marked the beginning of a new era in secondary teacher education. The Faculty of Education was charged with preparing secondary school teachers to take classes from Grade 7 to Grade 11.

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<sup>1</sup> As a legacy of the colonial education system, after four years of primary school, learners were enrolled in a cycle of preparation for secondary education which used to last only two years.

According to this model, students were prepared to teach two subjects, for example History and Geography, Mathematics and Physics, Portuguese and English, and other combinations. The process of teacher-training was centralised; after completing Grade 9 (the final grade of junior secondary school) students selected by a commission<sup>2</sup> at the Ministry of Education were obliged to go to Maputo to continue their studies, as the formal preparation of prospective secondary school teachers took place only in the capital.

1985 saw the establishment of ISP (Higher Pedagogic Institute) by the Ministry of Education. It specialised in the field of Educational Sciences and marked the beginning of a new era in the history of higher education in Mozambique ó an era of plurality. For more than two decades before this, from 1962 to 1985, tertiary education had been dominated by the Eduardo Mondlane University, which operated only in the capital of the country. The subsequent emergence of a new institution represented a step forward: it did not only offer an alternative to Eduardo Mondlane University, but provided a mechanism for expanding public higher education by increasing access and by redressing inequalities. This was done within the context of the huge scarcity of infrastructure, human resources and public funding experienced in Mozambique.

It should be noted that, at that time, the new institution played a specific role related to teacher education development, which was then included in the Faculty of Education of the Eduardo Mondlane University. The Higher Pedagogic Institute was therefore not competing with an already established institution. Instead, it contributed to solving a problem experienced at the Eduardo Mondlane University: as the number of students enrolled in teacher education programmes increased, they swamped the University and the process of developing other programmes in different faculties was undermined. At one time, more than 50% of students were studying education.

Considering the stated objectives of different systems of education around the world, and the different processes employed to prepare teachers for their professional roles, the question is often

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<sup>2</sup> The commission was in charge of selecting and orienting students to different sectors of activities and continuing with their studies in various institutions. Hardly any students were permitted to choose their preferred courses of study. This was in accordance with the perspective of the government of the day, which viewed individual inclination as less important than collective interest.

raised regarding where teacher education should be located. Schwille and Dembélé (2007, p. 64) discuss whether or not the preparation of teachers should be located within institutions such as universities, which prepare students for many occupations besides teaching, or whether it is best done in institutions that specialise in this function. There is no simple answer to this question, and many factors must be taken into consideration in order to understand the advantages and the disadvantages of both systems and be able to argue for one model or the other. The following paragraphs present different views relating to this debate. The topic is taken up again in Chapter 2, which contains a review of various issues relating to teacher education, including the question of where the preparation of teachers should be located.

A variety of studies (Lynd, 2005; ADEA, 2008; Schwille and Dembélé, 2007; ETUCE, 2008; Conway et al, 2009; Musset, 2010) show that places where teacher preparation occurs have changed over the course of history in different countries, evolving from normal schools dedicated to training teachers for primary school, to teacher-training institutes or Faculties of Education, and to Schools of Education belonging to what are referred to in the literature as *traditional universities*.<sup>3</sup>

As Schwille and Dembélé (2007, p. 64) note:

Historically, many secondary school teachers were prepared at university or other post-secondary institutions, while elementary teachers were not. But as the twentieth century progressed, more and more teacher preparation for elementary schools teachers was moved into universities, especially in industrialised countries.

They also argue that “there is little evidence available to judge whether universities, specialised [sic] Normal Schools or on-the-job apprenticeship programmes do a better job of preparing future teachers, and whether different forms should be used for elementary and secondary schools” (ibid, p. 64). What is clear is that each country should take its historical background into account when attempting to find the right balance between the advantages and disadvantages of each option.

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<sup>3</sup> Universities organised in different faculties, schools, and departments provide programmes in different fields of knowledge, including education.

Lewin and Stuart (2003) contribute to discussion by highlighting the potential and limitations of several structural options. They argue that college-based systems may have advantages in terms of local location linked to communities or clusters of schools: a focus on a single profession and responsiveness to educational needs, a role in pre-service and In-Service Education, and lower costs than tertiary level institutions (p. 190). For university-based training, they regard as advantages input from staff with higher levels of disciplinary expertise; connection to insights from research relevant to learning and teaching; multidisciplinary perspectives; and superior teaching resources associated with large-scale institutions (p. 191). Regarding school-based training, the advantages are identified as direct links with practical problems, advice from successful teachers, and socialisation into professional norms and standards (p. 191).

In contrast, Lewin and Stuart (2003) also highlight some shortcomings. In relation to the college-based systems, they argue that the potential advantages are not necessarily converted into reality (p. 190) and that

they also have to be balanced against the risk of parochialism associated with the local (especially when colleges are rural, and physically and intellectually isolated), the limits of expertise and insight associated with training institutions divorced from research, and the high costs that may be associated with small size.

The main criticisms aimed at university-based training are related to the fact that they may be a long way removed from the issues of practice in primary schools; higher levels of academic knowledge in disciplines are largely irrelevant, and tutors' career advancement is likely to depend more on research recognition than training competence (Lewin and Stuart, 2003, p. 190). I incline towards the view that there is no a single answer to the complex question of where teacher education should be situated. I therefore endorse the idea that the decision to adopt one or another model must be informed by different factors, but one must bear in mind that the important issue to remember is that it is not the location of teacher preparation programmes that matters, but what is in the teacher preparation programme and how it prepares teachers to teach the nation's children (Osman, 2010, p.21).

When looking specifically at pedagogic universities in different historical situations, certain countries have implemented processes to create such institutions dedicated solely to the development of Science Education and therefore, to the training of teachers. Some of them are dedicated to training teachers for the first years of schooling, namely preschool and primary

education. Others are devoted to secondary teacher education. Yet another group focus on all levels of teaching: preschool, primary, secondary and others. The process of creating pedagogic universities occurs in various countries, among them Chile, Colombia, Honduras, Ecuador, Venezuela, Mexico, and Cuba in Latin America; as well as Germany, Russia, Poland, Ukraine, the Czech Republic, Macedonia, Belarus, Moldova, Russia and Lithuania. Some European countries have even founded an Association<sup>4</sup> of Rectors of Pedagogical Universities (National Pedagogical University Dragomanov, 2012).

The reasons for the creation of these universities vary from country to country and are linked to historical, socioeconomic, political and cultural factors. An internet search reveals that in Russia the Moscow State Pedagogical University was founded in 1872 a pedagogical university was already operating in Russia in 1872. Today, the majority of pedagogical universities, also known as universities of education, are concentrated in the countries that constituted the former Soviet Union. Although the trend has been to place teacher education in institutions of tertiary education, in a few parts of the world teacher-training programmes take place in separate pedagogical universities. The Pedagogic University of Mozambique is one of the few such institutions on the African continent.

In Mozambique, despite experience dating from the colonial period in preparing primary teachers, little has been done to produce teachers for tertiary level. Efforts to do so are quite recent and have not yet been consolidated. There have been numerous new approaches to training teachers during the postcolonial period, but with regard to the development of overall teacher education, little is known about the rationale or methodologies informing changes in approach. For instance, some studies (Machili, 2000; Niquice, 2005; Guro and Lauchande 2007, Passos, 2009; and Guro, 2009) have noted several models of teacher education during the post-independence period, which I will discuss in detail later in this study.

Without a solid and informed research base, the successive models of teacher education that have been introduced in Mozambique do not contribute to a consistent, stable, long-term direction in

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<sup>4</sup> The Association includes Pedagogical Universities of the following countries: Armenia, Czech Republic, Georgia, Germany, Lithuania, Macedonia, Moldova, Poland, Russia and the Ukraine.

teacher education. Instead, teacher education has been driven by the need to address urgent issues related to the massification of education. The situation is further aggravated by the fact that there is an absence of (i) a teacher-education policy framework; and (ii) norms and standards for teacher education development. This has resulted in a situation in which teacher education providers have to find ways of building their own discourses.

The Pedagogic University in Mozambique evolved in a context characterised by a centralised and planned economy, the aftermath of a destructive war, widespread poverty and the emergence and development of neoliberal macroeconomic policies. After the war, policies were put in place to address the need for reconstruction, and these influenced the expansion of the national education system, of which the development of teacher education proved to be one of the most important aspects. In a country with a huge scarcity of financial resources, the Pedagogic University was founded as a low-cost university, and it has remained as such for a significant periods of time.

Meanwhile, a new trend has emerged, mainly driven by the neoliberal need to generate funding by diversifying programmes and courses. Emphasis is placed on courses that will be most profitable for the University. For that reason, the University is repositioning itself, although without a particularly distinctive research direction.

Since 2005, the Pedagogic University has become increasingly similar to other universities in terms of the programmes it delivers. For this reason, it has been facing a dilemma: on the one hand, it recognises the need to expand to other provinces and fulfil the political goal of developing a vocational higher education centred on teacher education; on the other, there is a shortage of the financial resources necessary for the institution to fulfil its promises and contribute to improving the quality of the programmes across its branches. New institutional trends can be seen as an attempt to minimise the current shortage of funding, which is exacerbated by a reduction in funding from the government. The financial situation is also aggravated by the fact that students are unable to pay fees for teacher education programmes, especially as teaching is still not considered an attractive profession.

## **1.1 Aim of the study**

This study explores teacher education development in the context of socioeconomic and political changes, such as a structural adjustment programme, the transition to plural democracy, war and poverty, in Mozambique, one of the poorest countries in the world.

The aim of this study is to address, through retrospective and interpretive analysis, the role of the Pedagogic University in preparing teachers for the National Education System in Mozambique. This is achieved by means of the following:

1. analysing the project of the Pedagogic University in terms of content, form, goals, assumptions, expectations and strategies;
2. identifying the legacy of secondary school teacher education;
3. interpreting the way in which the different actors involved responded to these developments;
4. analysing the influence of the internal and the external factors in the process of teacher education development; and
5. explaining the institutional changes that have been made, and why.

The study therefore examines the way in which teacher education has been delivered at the Pedagogic University. It continues to map out relevant teacher education policies, and their impact on the process of university-based teacher education. It also examines the way in which the university has expressed its mission, vision, content, form, assumptions and expectations, and explores the changes that occurred in the conception, organisation and delivery of the teaching programmes. This analysis is followed by a reflection on what the relevant drivers and mediators have been in dealing with the expectations, experiences and perceptions of developments in the University by academic staff and the fourth-year students, as well as by school principals and officials from the Ministry of Education.

## **1.2 Research focus and questions**

The focus of the thesis is on: (i) teacher education programmes at the Pedagogic University, and the role that has been played by that institution in preparing teachers for the National Education system in Mozambique; (ii) the level of alignment of the institutional policies and national policies regarding teacher education; (iii) the reasons why, since 2005, the institution has



diverted its attention to new programmes that are not related to teacher education, nor to education in general.

Thus, in order to develop a sound understanding of the problem, the research explores the following main question: what role has the Pedagogic University played in preparing teachers for the National Education System in Mozambique?

This requires asking the following sub-questions:

- How has the legacy of teacher education in Mozambique influenced the Pedagogic University?
- What national policies inform teacher education development in Mozambique and how coordinated are they?
- What strategies, programmes, processes, curriculum and modes of delivery have been introduced at the Pedagogic University for the preparation of teachers?
- What changes have been made and why?
- How have different stakeholders (academic staff, students, and government officials) responded to these developments?

The main question addresses how teacher education development has been delivered at the Pedagogic University. The second question examines relevant teacher education policies and their influence, if any, on the process of training teachers. The third question looks at the collective project of teacher education at the Pedagogic University in terms of content, form, assumptions, expectations, mission and vision. The fourth question looks at the changes, drivers and mediators. The fifth question deals with the constraints, expectations, experiences and perceptions of academic staff and students regarding these developments.

### **1.3 Motivation and contribution of the study**

Many significant changes have occurred since Mozambique became independent in 1975. Over the last 40 years, the country has moved from a revolutionary period, during which a single ruling party developed a central planning economy, to a market economy with a neoliberal form,

which is slowly becoming dominant. There has also been the introduction of political competition through the establishment of a multiparty system.

In my view, such rapid and fundamental change has not provided enough time for profound intellectual and academic reflection, especially when it comes to education. It is important to challenge the pessimistic idea that it is necessary to reject or justify everything that happened in the past, without any clear arguments as to why. This trend has been evident since the country first gained independence, a time when almost everything from the colonial period was seen as objectionable. Currently, there is a tendency to denigrate what happened during the revolutionary period when Frelimo (the Mozambique Liberation Front) was ruling without any formal opposition from 1975 until 1990, after which a new constitution was approved, opening the way for new political actors. This period was characterised by a lack of the evidence-based or research-based decision-making that should have driven education reform. Such research could have included many valuable experiences developed at different periods in the history of education in Mozambique.

When one examines Mozambican scholarship during the 1975-1990 period, it is also clear that the developments that took place were in line with the political, ideological and economic demands of the time. What emerges is that, post-independence, little research was conducted with regard to educational issues. This scarcity of research can be linked directly to: (i) the absence of a strong tradition of scholarship; (ii) the options relating to the process of development of scholarship in general; and (iii) the role of the government regarding this process; (iv) the fact that, during the First Republic period (1975-1990), research was weakened by a lack of freedom of speech. In this regard, Cross (2009, p. 4) asserts that there is a "scarcity of educational literature", particularly any that is focused on the period after independence. Cross identifies three reasons for this scarcity, namely: (i) Portuguese colonialism, which had suppressed all forms of research and academic expression, including the development of an educated elite; (ii) debates within Portuguese scholarship, which remained silent on colonialism and post-colonialism; (iii) the limited research conducted after independence, which was a product of a generation of scholars who were at large extent themselves engaged with the colonial regime" (Cross, 2011, p. 11)

A systematic review of studies on the Mozambican education sector during the period 1990-1998 highlights that education studies in Mozambique were not only donor-driven, but lacked an African perspective (Mário, Gómez, Kouwenhoven, Alberto, and Waddington, 2001). This study therefore aims to follow what Cross (2011) describes as one of the major goal of the development of scholarship in Africa, namely to encourage the tradition of examining our experience on the African continent, not as an unchangeable text, but as complex, contradictory and uneven process (p. 9).

When it comes to content, progression and approaches to teacher education development in Mozambique, a review of available literature reveals that these aspects have not been studied<sup>5</sup> systematically. Numerous new approaches to becoming a teacher were introduced during the postcolonial period and these are covered in this study; in most cases, however, little is known about the rationale and details that inform changes in approach. Unfortunately, neither the strategy for general secondary education, nor any other education policies, give clear guidelines for academic, pedagogic or professional development should be followed by teacher education institutions. This study therefore aims to generate debate among the different stakeholders in teacher education in Mozambique, namely universities, INDE, the Ministry of Education, school governing boards, ONP (the teachers union).

On a more personal note, my motivation to embark on this study arose during research for my Master's degree in Education, which focused on drop-out rates and repetition in secondary schools in Mozambique. I found that some of the issues emerging from the data were related to teacher education development in terms of selection, preparation and continuing professional development. It was clear that not all teachers were prepared to deal with the range of issues affecting secondary school learners. In some cases, the situation was aggravated by the fact that some teachers did not have adequate pedagogic training, and those who had been trained at the Faculty of Education of the Eduardo Mondlane University needed to upgrade their qualifications. I realised that the sole institution dealing with the preparation of secondary school teachers was

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<sup>5</sup> Most of the studies conducted so far relate to how primary school teachers have been trained and how the various programmes of teacher education have responded to the changes in curriculum resulting from socio-economic and political transformations in Mozambique.

the Pedagogic University, which was solely responsibility for the way in which teachers were trained. For this reason, I wished to understand more accurately how secondary school teachers were prepared to face the challenges occasioned by an unprecedented expansion in general secondary education.

I studied in the Faculty of Education of the Eduardo Mondlane University from the time it first opened in 1981-1982, and at the former Higher Pedagogic Institute (currently the Pedagogic University), where I have also lectured since 1992. I therefore see myself as simultaneously a *product* and a *producer* of the subject of the study, since at the university I participated in programmes to prepare future secondary schools teachers by delivering subject content.

This trajectory has led to a careful consideration of my academic and professional life, which has also informed this study. This might be considered both a strength and a weakness, since most of the facts narrated and described in this research are contemporary, as witnessed by the researcher; while my relationship with the research topic might be construed as less than impartial. This will be discussed further in Chapter 4, where I describe the methodological procedures I have employed.

### **1.3.1 Contribution of the study**

The study contributes to education development in various ways. Firstly, it explores the need to develop a teacher education framework through a fully coordinated and collaborative approach; as well as the development of teacher education programmes in which the roles, contributions and the interrelationships of the stakeholders are accurately described, including the role of the Pedagogic University. The Pedagogic University ought to be perceived as the major provider of secondary school teacher development programmes, with various responsibilities in that regard.

Secondly, the study involves the development of a theoretical basis intended to inform teacher education in Mozambique. Thirdly, it explores new directions in teacher education programmes at the Pedagogic University. Fourthly, owing to the lack of sufficient literature available on secondary school teacher education development in Mozambique, this study can be viewed as a contribution to the basic literature in this field, which policy-makers and decision-makers can refer to in order to design and implement new and appropriate strategies within secondary school

teacher education, incorporating the continuum teacher learning perspective outlined in this thesis.

This study can also contribute to the teacher education field in the developing world, especially in African contexts, since there are many similarities in historical background and in the problems which have been faced by countries that have achieved independence comparatively recently, in the 1970s and 1980s. Most of these problems were related to the formulation of policies in situations where financial resources were limited. As Meredith (2014, p. 623) put it:

Facing bankruptcy, however, African governments had little alternative but to accept the conditions set by the IMF/ World Bank. During the 1980s, some forty governments signed 'stabilisation agreements' and accepted 'structural adjustment programmes'. In all, total of 243 loan agreements were made. Foreign aid became an increasingly crucial component of African economies. Dozens of donor institutions and Western non-government organisations were involved, some taking over key functions of the state, notably in health and education.

The situation described had important implications for the formulation, adoption and implementation of education policies in general, and especially in higher education, where the international agenda has also followed neo-liberal principles. As Goswami (2013) stated:

Initially, the attempt to incorporate the neoliberal policy agenda was made primarily in the primary and secondary education sector. From the 1980s, it has been a worldwide trend for universities to adopt commercial models of knowledge, skills, curriculum, finance, accounting and management organisation. Under the influence of neoliberal ideology, government policy has deliberately facilitated the 'commercialisation' of universities. Governments have increasingly seen universities as economic institutions serving economic goals, specifically, power and profits in the global, knowledge economy. (p. 33)

All over the world, the neoliberal agenda continues to influence the ways in which higher education institutions operate, with serious consequences in low-income countries where the majority of the population are unable to pay fees that lead to the transformation of their roles. Therefore, according to Goswami:

Following the neoliberal policy agenda in the higher education sector, the role of higher education institutes is gradually constrained. The university's role as an independent institution is increasingly threatened by the interests of corporations. As a consequence of neoliberalism, higher education is being transformed from public to private institutions, in which students are forced to pay more for education. Hence, universities become

corporations selling products, knowledge becomes a commodity, professors become entrepreneurs, university administrators become managers, students become customers and consumers. (Goswami, 2013, p.33)

Although this study is concerned with the problems affecting an institution of higher education in Mozambique, what it addresses is related to global problems relating to the current trends. That is why it is relevant in a more global context and can provide a starting-point for discussing the impact of neoliberalism on higher education, principally in institutions concerned with the preparation and professional development of teachers.

#### **1.4 Thesis statement**

The argument underpinning this thesis is rooted in the following claims:

- The Pedagogic University has been developing a unique and ideal model, taking into account the existing socioeconomic conditions of the country. It is defined as programme developed at tertiary level, through a multiplicity of sites, such as faculties, schools and branches, which award higher degrees that enable current and future teachers, from primary education to tertiary level.
- Departing from a consecutive model to a concurrent model of programmes in which the professional component is provided at the same time as the general component, the programmes are delivered in an integrated way. In other words, the subject content and pedagogic content are delivered simultaneously, from the first year until the end of a course. Another characteristic of the ideal model is that it is delivered in an eclectic way, meaning that in-service and pre-service training run simultaneously.
- This ideal model seems to be suited to the socioeconomic conditions of a country which emerged from a civil war that caused the destruction of educational infrastructure. The ideal model also seems to be appropriate for an education system with scarce financial resources, that has expanded rapidly and therefore requires a large number of teachers.
- The ideal model has been constrained by several facts, which are highlighted as: (i) the lack of a National Teacher Development Framework; (ii) a lack of cohesiveness across the National Education Policy, Education Strategic Plan (I, II, III) and other legislation and policy statements relating to teacher education development; (iii) the diversification of programmes, characterised by the emergence of courses not related to teacher education and

(iv) the admission of students who are motivated to obtain a degree in order to advance their careers; (v) the lack of commitment to teaching experience; and last but not least, (vii) the fact that the institution has been facing budgetary constraints. The latter has resulted in the need for the diversification of sources of income generation in order to raise the money to extend the University's programmes to other parts of the country, as well as to improve of the quality of the programmes that are delivered.

- The financial constraints referred to above also have many other implications: firstly, the development of teacher education programmes based on institutional initiatives, and secondly by a loss of institutional identity, which can be noticed in programmes that diverge from the previous institutional goals. The institution has gradually become a Pedagogic University in name only, and is gradually offering an increasing variety of other programmes such as Civil Engineering, Geology and Law. Lastly, the international trend in careerism can now be seen to affect students at the University, among others in the region.

## **1.5 Structure and outline of the thesis**

Including this introductory chapter, this thesis is developed through nine chapters, in which I present, discuss, analyse and interpret different aspects emerging from a variety of data sets.

Informed by the research question, "What role has the Pedagogic University played in preparing teachers for the National Education System in Mozambique?", Chapter 2 reviews scholarship related to teacher education development. The chapter includes reflection on key themes emerging in the literature on teacher education development. The aim is to create an overview of scholarly literature and to locate general trends in studies within the field. This study argues for teacher education to be regarded as a continuum process of learning which begins in different sites, even before future teachers enrol for their courses. It also argues for teacher education as a form of vocational education, and for the need for a professional component that should be developed in the early years of the training.

From the body of literature and documentation reviewed, I have identified the following themes that are the focus of this review:

- concepts of teacher education;
- debates about the balance of power with regard to teacher education;

- pre-service and in-service teacher education trends;
- models, duration, and location of teacher education programmes;
- general concepts of knowledge underpinning the programmes, including the kind of content knowledge mediated and the kind of pedagogical preparation undertaken;
- the balance between theory and practice; and
- norms and standards for teacher education development.

The conceptual framework is mainly based on a “continuum of teacher learning” informed by this literature review, which provides a basis for exploring and analysing the case study of the Pedagogic University of Mozambique. This study therefore follows on from available literature, which considers teacher education development as a lifelong process beginning before the initial preparation teachers receive, whether at an institution of teacher education or by means of in-service training, and also as a professional education. This view of teacher education is espoused by authors including Britzman (1991); Feiman-Nemser (2001); Villegas-Reimers (2003); Schwille and Dembélé (2007); Morrow (2007); Conway, Murphy, Rath, and Hall (2009); and Musset (2010).

Chapters 3 and 4 focus on the rationale and methodology of the study. In it I discuss the options for the Pedagogic University as a case study in the context of teacher education development since the closure of the Faculty of Education of the Eduardo Mondlane University. The methodology of this research is informed by the following ontological and epistemological dimensions: the research methodology is mainly of a qualitative nature, which has enabled me to explore relevant themes, processes and patterns that have characterised the preparation of teachers at the Pedagogic University. The study argues for an interpretive approach which provides insight into “the complex world of lived experience from the point of view of those who live it” (Schwandt, 1994, p. 118). Interpretive research assumes that reality is socially constructed, and the researcher becomes the vehicle by which this reality is revealed (Walsham, 1995; Cavana.; Delahaye, and Sekaron, 2001).

The research model was developed as follows: a literature review examined theoretical and empirical studies on teacher education development and on documentary analysis. The documents collected and analysed included: statistics from the faculties and schools, policy and procedure documents at institution (strategic plan 2000-2010 and strategic plan 2010-2017),



faculty and school levels; interviews conducted at faculties and schools, as well as interviews conducted outside the institutions with school principals and officers from the Ministry of Education. Due to time and financial constraints, it was not possible to work with all the branches, as was planned initially. All the interviews were conducted in Portuguese, and all of them were transcribed. I used them for paraphrasing and quotation. In the case of quotation, an accurate translation was made into English. The methodological procedures are explained in detail in Chapter 4.

Chapter 5 describes the general socioeconomic and political background, since it is necessary to understand how it has influenced the development of the education system in general, and the education of teachers in particular. I maintain that the emergence and the development of the National Education System were influenced by the context described in this chapter. Teacher education constitutes one of the most important aspects of the schooling system, and the demand for both quantity and in quality in the provision of teachers is likely to be informed by the expansion that occurred in the whole system of education, from primary to tertiary levels.

This chapter seeks to answer the question: "What socioeconomic and political conditions have been underpinning the development of the National Education System and informing teacher education programmes in Mozambique?"

A major assumption is that the type of teacher education programme is a reflection of many factors embedded in the education system. These factors range from the socioeconomic to the political and include cultural and historical aspects.

The chapter deals with basic socioeconomic and political information and the origins of the National Education System and its organisation. It presents the current landscape of the different subsystems of education, bearing in mind that, in order to develop smoothly, all of them need a very sound system of teacher education, from primary schools to university level.

For methodological reasons, the policies and strategies related to teacher education development programmes are presented separately in Chapter 6. This chapter tries to explore a very complicated process of change that occurred in Mozambique, which was characterised by Cross (2011) as "two conflicting and contradictory processes of transition" (p. 1), namely: (i) the transition from the worst and most archaic form of authoritarian colonial system of government

to a totalitarian and centralised system rooted in socialist discourse; (ii) the departure from a failed socialist project *en route* to an unknown future dictated by a neoliberal discourse, liberal democracy and a free-market economy. Although I do not entirely agree with Cross's periodisation, I found it instructive. He distinguishes three important periods connected to these transitional processes as follow: (i) the time from independence to 1983, which he refers to as Frente de Libertação de Moçambique (Mozambique Liberation Front)<sup>6</sup> positioning, reflecting concerns with the transformation of the colonial legacy in education, the entrenchment of its structures and affirmation of its political orientation in-school practice; (ii) from 1983 to the 1990s, which Cross refers to a period he calls FRELIMO's policy enforcement, characterised by attempts to lay the education foundation for FRELIMO's socialist project through a much more explicit and systematic strategy based on the principles of Marxism and Leninism; (iii) from 1990s to the present, which Cross refers to as a time of policy revision, which reflected FRELIMO's shift from socialist policies towards the espousal of neoliberal and free-market policies (Cross, 2011).

In summary, the chapter includes a profile of the country where the major transformations occurred, and the process by which they could relate to the emergence and development of a genuine education system, as well as the formulation of a system of teacher education development. It is presumed that raising these issues makes it possible to understand the ways in which socioeconomic and political conditions have informed the emergence and development of the model of teacher education at the Pedagogic University of Mozambique.

Chapter 6 also maps relevant teacher education policies and the way in which they have impacted the process of developing programmes in different institutions, including the Pedagogic University. The focus is on the larger political and regulatory context in which teacher education has taken place. This chapter also discusses the road taken thus far by Mozambique to build up its teacher education system. The chapter deals with the legacy of teacher education and

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<sup>6</sup> Hereafter abbreviated to FRELIMO or Frelimo. To be accurate, there is a difference between FRELIMO and Frelimo: FRELIMO refers to the movement that aggregated all Mozambicans irrespective of their background. It lasted from 1962 until 1977, when it became Frelimo, a party with a Marxist-Leninist ideological orientation, which is now more associated with a neoliberal agenda.

addresses the role of the different actors; mapping out the providers of secondary school teacher education programmes and the origins of postcolonial teacher education programmes. It also addresses the question of what policies and strategies have been put in place for teacher education development in Mozambique. The aim of the chapter is a characterisation, analysis and interpretation of the different policies and strategies that have been introduced in Mozambique for the development of teacher education programmes. The major argument is that, although there many documents exist that relate to national education policy and strategic plans, there is a policy gap with regard to teacher education in Mozambique, resulting in a structure that is inadequate for the implementation of teacher education programmes.

Chapter 6 also claims that socioeconomic and political conditions limit the process of preparing primary school teachers, although models have been replicated in different provinces through the same kind of institution (teacher education colleges). Furthermore, when one looks at the preparation of a teacher through a university-based model, the same kind of constraints can be seen as the reasons why the same strategy was adopted over a longer period of time.

The chapter presents four sections dealing with the following issues:

- primary school teacher education programmes;
- secondary school teacher programmes;
- policies and educational strategies in place; and
- Current teacher education providers.

Chapter 7 examines how the Pedagogic University was founded, developed and transformed as the major provider of teacher education development; in other words, it presents a biography of the Pedagogic University. It narrates the reasons and assumptions influencing the processes that culminated in the inception of that institution, and how this has evolved through faculties, schools and branches spread across the country, and how these processes have transformed the Pedagogic University into the most important institution operating within the field of education in Mozambique. It also describes how the Pedagogic University emerged and developed as a vocational institution, and submits the argument that the Pedagogic University has emerged as the ideal type of institution for preparing teachers at tertiary level; however, it is debatable whether or not logistical issues and overall sustainability of the institution were thought through.

The chapter gives three main reasons for the establishment of the Pedagogic University. The first was the neglect of teacher education in the past. For example, the Faculty of Education lacked its own infrastructure and was dependent on the participation of lecturers from other faculties. It discusses the consequences of the increasing number of students registered with the Faculty of Education, which necessitated this 'borrowing' of staff. It also discusses the politics of teacher education under the new regime, in which the teachers' roles were linked to the ideological notion of the need to develop a new society, and therefore a 'New Manó'<sup>7</sup>.

Chapter 7 thus examines the origins of the Pedagogic University, the context in which it emerged and the way in which it has developed so far, the characterisation of the major actors and the development of faculties, schools and branches, which constitute a way of expanding programmes across the country.

Chapter 8 looks at the idealisation of teacher education programmes in Mozambique, through the Pedagogic University, an institution where a model has emerged under financial constraints, in a large country, with an education system in the process of huge expansion, which requires more teachers with better qualifications. The main aim of the chapter is to characterise the process of idealisation and to describe its implementation, as well as changes in the models and systems of teacher education programmes at the Pedagogic University, through curricular revision and reform.

The chapter also addresses the question of how teacher education programmes have been idealised, implemented and changed at the University, up to the present day. It is argued that the University has been developing programmes delivered in a variety of different sites: faculties, schools and branches spread across the country, all offering university degrees. This has also been achieved through integrated and eclectic programmes attended by students who are already teachers at primary and secondary schools, as well as students who more recently finished Grade

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<sup>7</sup> The creation of a 'New Manó was the cornerstone of the revolutionary process during the First Republic in Mozambique (1975-1990). It was strongly believed that only a 'New Manó would be able to transform the country in a modern society, free from the colonial legacy and free from the influence of traditional society, which were seen as a potential source of danger for the revolution. Therefore, the education system had to assume huge importance when it came to the process of creating such a 'Manó.

12. The programmes have been driven by university lecturers with different qualifications, unevenly distributed throughout the different sites. Since the creation of these programmes, the general process has been noticeably one of curriculum development, which sometimes involves curricular revision or curricular reforms, depending on the level of change introduced. Lately, changes are apparent, not only within teacher education programmes, but also in the diversification of programmes, where courses not related to education are introduced.

Chapter 9 deals with the discourse of constraints, mainly constructed on the basis of the perception of students and academic staff interviewed for this inquiry. The main goal of this chapter is to analyse how the different constraints, if any, have contributed to undermining the development of teacher education programmes at the Pedagogic University. It is proposed that the changes that have taken place in the Pedagogic University constituted symptoms of a crisis driven by two major factors: (i) the absence of a national teacher education development framework, and (ii) budgetary constraints which led to the deployment of teachers with lower qualifications, within a context where students likewise cannot pay reasonable fees for their studies

A major consequence noted in this study is that the institution is slowly becoming a Pedagogic University only in name, moving from a total education institution towards a university with a variety of programmes, including that of Civil Engineer, Geology and Law, with a new Medical Science Programme announced for 2015. Another consequence is the prevalence of careerism among students, and loss of a common purpose among academic staff.

Chapter 10 concludes the present inquiry, including a summary of the study, highlighting the subject of the research. Secondly, the chapter reflects on the insight emanating from the study, followed by a reflection on new possibilities for research that this inquiry makes available. I then make the final remarks, drawing conclusions that answer and expand on my research question: the major goals, and the methodology conducted, as well as the results obtained, offering suggestions for future research based on what I have argued.

Having presented the thesis structure, the next chapter presents a literature review on teacher education development, looking at theories, policies, strategies and models.

## **CHAPTER 2: A LITERATURE REVIEW REFLECTING ON THEORIES, MODELS AND STRATEGIES REGARDING TEACHER EDUCATION PROGRAMMES**

### **2.1 Introduction**

Informed by the research question “What role has the Pedagogic University played in preparing teachers for the national education system in Mozambique?” this chapter reviews the available scholarship related to teacher education development exploring its key themes. It is a reflection on key themes emerging in the literature on teacher education development. As Bless and Higson-Smith (2004, pp. 19-20) maintain, in order to conceive the research topic in a way that permits a clear formulation of the problem and the hypothesis, some background information is necessary. This is obtained mainly by reading whatever has been published that appears relevant to the research topic. This process is called the literature review.

The aim of this chapter is to capture the voices of other scholars in order to provide an overview, and to locate general trends of studies within the field. It argues for teacher education as a continuum of learning, which begins even before future teachers enrol for their preparation in their different study contexts. It also argues for teacher education as a form of vocational education, and for the need for a professional component, which should be developed in the early years of the course of study, in order to contribute towards the process of becoming a teacher before it begins.

The literature review was an ongoing process throughout the formulation of the argument. The literature focused on teacher education development at international, regional and national levels and assisted in reframing the conceptual framework. Literature was sourced through journals, textbooks, yearbooks, PhD theses and research reports. The areas of the review included: (i) the conceptualisation of teacher education; (ii) debates on balances of power regarding teacher education; (iii) pre-service and in-service teacher education trends; (iv) models, duration, and site of teacher education programmes; (v) general concepts of knowledge underpinning the programmes: what kind of content knowledge is needed, and the nature of the pedagogical

preparation; (vi) the balance between theory and practice; (vii) issues of teacher professionalisation.

The conceptual framework based on a continuum of teacher learning is informed by this literature review, which provides a basis for exploring and analysing the case study of the Pedagogic University of Mozambique. In other words, I argue for teacher education development as a professional education training, which has to be well-coordinated through norms and standards, and within a perspective of lifelong learning.

## **2.2 Conceptualisation of teacher education**

According to ISCED (International Standard Classification of Education) (UNESCO, 1997), Education as a university discipline is divided into two broad but closely linked fields, namely Teacher Education and Education Science. ISCED was designed by UNESCO in the early 1970s to serve as an instrument suitable for assembling, compiling and presenting of statistics on education both within individual countries and internationally (UNESCO, 2006, p.iii). The ISCED classification from the section entitled "Broad Groups and Fields of Education" (p.41) reads as follows:

(1) Teacher training and (2) Education Science Teacher Training for preschool, kindergarten, elementary school, vocational, practical, non-vocational subject, adult education, teacher trainers; and for handicapped children, general and specialised teacher-training programmes (UNESCO, 2006, p. 42).

Education science covers curriculum development in non-vocational and vocational subjects, educational assessment, testing and measurement, educational research, and other education sciences (ibid.).

The terms "teacher training" and "teacher education" are often used interchangeably in the literature to refer to the professional preparation of teachers. Many prefer the term "teacher education" since "training" can imply unthinking habit-formation and an over-emphasis on skills and techniques; while the professional teacher needs to develop theories, an awareness of options, and decision-making abilities. This process seems better defined by the word "education". Others have made a different distinction: that "education" is a process of learning that develops the moral, cultural, social and intellectual aspects of the whole person as an individual and member of society, whereas "training" (even though it may involve some

educational components) has a specific goal: it prepares a person for a particular function or profession.

According to Lynd (2005), the trajectory taken by teacher training has been from on-the-job training, to training by religious orders, to government-based training in normal schools, to teachers colleges, and finally, to university faculties, schools and departments of education. In time, the term teacher training came to be used in developing countries to encompass teacher preparation in a pre-service mode, and teacher upgrading (skills and/or qualifications) as an in-service mode.

Tatto (1997, p. 213), provides the following definition, stating that teacher education refers to formally organized attempts to provide more knowledge, skills and dispositions to prospective or experienced teachers. Thus, teacher education refers to (1) pre-service, as well as in-service preparation; and (2) a variety of ways of bringing about learning or formally organised attempts, rather than simply the inculcation of skills.

The definition put forward by Morrow (2007), introduces the notion of professionalism thus: "Teacher Education is a kind of education which enables someone to become more competent in the professional practice or organising systematic learning, and nurtures their commitment to do so" (p. 69). The author states further that professional development of teachers includes, but is not limited by, teacher education. He maintains that teacher education has an important contribution to make to the professional development of teachers, but it is not equivalent to, nor a substitute for it. Therefore, professional development is generated within the profession itself and the institutions and organisations dedicated to teaching; teacher education can be seen as a deliberate intervention into the ongoing process of professional development (p.74). In conclusion, Morrow (ibid) states that teacher education should be understood as professional vocation.

I find the concept of a "continuum of teacher learning" as supported by Villegas-Reimers, (2003), Schwille and Dembélé (2007), Conway, Murphy, Rath and Hall (2009) particularly meaningful. A "continuum of teacher learning" is a comprehensive framework for organising and understanding the way in which professional educators acquire and improve their capability to teach. This term implies being concerned not only with formal teacher preparation, induction



and continuing professional development programmes, but also with the many informal influences that contribute to what and how teachers learn to teach. According to those researchers, the notion of a continuum of learning calls for an integrated approach to meet the training needs of teachers.

In conclusion, teacher education development is best defined as a lifelong process, which begins with the initial preparation that teachers receive (whether at an institution of teacher education or on-the-job). This thesis therefore considers (i) initial teacher education as a pre-service course before entering the classroom as a fully responsible teacher; (ii) induction, which is the process of providing and support a teacher during the first few years of teaching or the first year in a particular school; and (iii) teacher development or continuing professional development, as an in-service process for practising teachers.

### **2.3 Policy, balance of power regarding teacher education**

The literature shows that there are some divergences of opinion with regard to who should play the major role within the context of teacher education development. In my own view, the political climate of each country influences the degree of control regarding the process of design and implementation of teacher education programmes. In other words, it determines who plays the major role when it comes to teacher education.

To elaborate on the historical antecedents, and to elucidate the preoccupation with the preparation of teachers as a major concern at international level, the Special Intergovernmental Conference on the Status of Teachers, which was held in Paris in 1966, recommended several issues that require consideration in programme design: guiding principles; educational objectives and policies; preparation for the profession; further education for teachers; employment and career; the rights and responsibilities of teachers; conditions for effective teaching and learning; teachers' salaries; social security; and teacher shortages.

The Conference suggested that:

- Teaching should be regarded as a profession: it is a form of public service which requires of teachers expert knowledge and specialised skills, acquired and maintained through rigorous

and continuing study. It calls also for a sense of personal and corporate responsibility for the education and welfare of the pupils in their charge.

- Policy governing entry into preparation for teaching should rest on the need to provide society with an adequate supply of teachers who possess the necessary moral, intellectual and physical qualities and who have the required professional knowledge and skills.
- Admission to teacher preparation should be based on the completion of appropriate secondary education, and the evidence of the possession of personal qualities likely to help persons concerned to become worthy members of the profession (UNESCO, 1966).

With regard to teacher preparation programmes, it was proposed that these should include:

general studies;

study of the main elements of philosophy, psychology, sociology as applied to education, the theory and history of education, and of comparative education, experimental pedagogy, school administration and methods of teaching the various subjects;

studies related to the students' intended fields of teaching; and

practice in teaching and in conducting extra-curricular activities under the guidance of fully-qualified teachers (UNESCO, 1966).

The document that emerged from the Conference also recommended that

all teachers be prepared in general, special and pedagogical subjects in universities, or in institutions on a level comparable to universities, or else in special institutions for the preparation of teachers;

the content of teacher preparation may reasonably vary according to the tasks the teachers are required to perform in different types of schools, such as for handicapped children or technical and vocational schools;

a teacher preparation programme may provide for a professional course either concurrently with subsequent to a course of personal academic or specialised [sic] education or skill cultivation;

education for teaching should normally be fulltime; special arrangements could be made for older entrants to the profession and persons in other exceptional categories to undertake all or

part of their course on a part-time basis, on condition that the content of such courses and the standards of attainment are on the same level as those of full time courses (UNESCO, 1966).

By including the recommendations of the Conference, my intention is to emphasise that there is variety of policies and strategies, available at international level, which can be borrowed and adjusted in accordance with the national contexts. I therefore argue that the existence of such documentation can contribute to guiding decisions-makers in designing national policies related to teacher education development. This is particularly important as one of the major problems in Mozambique is the absence of a clear teacher education development framework.

Menter, Hulm, Elliot, and Lewin (2010) argue that teacher education has been the subject of much reform over the past twenty years. A longer review of the history of teacher education shows that, in many countries, it has often been a site of social and political debate. The interrelated themes of this contestation include the following:

- struggles for 'positioning' and the 'ownership' of teacher education;
- attempts to define teaching as a profession - and to establish whether teaching has a distinctive intellectual knowledge base;
- debates over teachers' terms and conditions, as well as pay, and the role of teachers' unions;
- the emergence of professional bodies to uphold professional standards and to control entry into the profession; and
- the economics of teacher supply and demand (p.17).

These themes have created a range of responses and have led to considerable diversity in provision of teacher education. These differing approaches to teacher education may be informed by different notions of professionalism and may have repercussions in terms of teacher quality, recruitment and retention (ibid, 2010).

In addition, the processes by which teachers are educated is often the subject of political discussion, reflecting both the value attached by societies and cultures to the preparation of young people for life, and the fact that education systems consume significant financial resources (of which teachers' salaries is often the largest single element). Avalos (2000) argues:

Teacher education is a concern of the state insofar as it has the responsibility for the education of its young people. However, the power of the state to affect what happens in teacher education programs depends on the administrative organization of each country and the nature of the teacher education institutions themselves. In many countries teacher education appears to have several centres of control rather than one [...] Change will thus depend on the relative power over teacher education of national or provincial/state governments, the institutions themselves, and the individuals within them. In a number of countries in the developing world, primary teacher education is carried out in non-university institutions, sometimes below tertiary level, funded mainly by the state even when privately owned and administered. In these situations, strong decision-making power is vested in the Ministry of Education to determine the curriculum, appoint lecturers or teacher educators, and set their salary structure (p. 463).

In many systems, teacher education may be the subject of detailed prescription (e.g. the state may specify the skills that all teachers must possess, or it may specify the content of teacher education courses). In other countries neither the central government nor the state or local authorities have much power over teacher education other than in setting conditions for entry to the teaching profession. In such a situation, curricular change is largely initiated by the institutions; and the quality of these initiatives will depend on who proposes these within the institutions, as well as on the balance of power within each institution. The quality of overall teacher education in turn will depend on the nature of coordination among institutions (ibid.).

What can be seen is that the issue of control is always present, but that the degree of influence of the state regarding the development of teacher education programmes depends on different factors, among which arises the question of autonomy, normally given to institutions of tertiary education.

What is also significant is whether the programmes of teacher education are conducted in such a way that future teachers will be able to address issues related to the challenges that schools have been facing in improving the quality of education they provide.

## **2.4 Pre-service and in-service teacher education trends**

The models, location and combination of pre- and in-service teacher education vary in different contexts, depending on budgetary constraints and on the demand for new teachers. There are different ways of dealing with the process of teacher education in either pre-service or in-service situations. The literature suggests that trends are determined mainly by the demand for teachers within an education system.

An important trend in teacher training is the increasing use of in-service training for the delivery of initial training. Whereas pre-service training is by definition initial training, (because it occurs before a teacher begins teaching), initial training can also occur after a teacher begins teaching, becoming what Perraton (2000) calls 'initial training delivered as in-service'. This type of training is increasingly provided for teachers who have been recruited to meet a suddenly expanding demand. Thus, the training they receive is in fact initial training, even if it is delivered as part of an in-service format. Another prominent trend in the world of teacher training is the convergence of pre-service and in-service training programmes. Perraton (2000) notes the example of Ghana, where the MoE (Ministry of Education) planned a new structure for teacher education in which materials used by student teachers in pre-service programmes would also be used by teachers in in-service programmes, who were working towards a teaching qualification. Currently, the dominant view is of teacher preparation and professional development that begins pre-service and continues as a process of lifelong learning throughout a teacher's career (Villegas-Reimers, 2003; Husen and Postlethwaite, 1994).

In this section I outlined trends relating to pre-service and in-service teacher education development. In the next section I analyse the models and duration of teacher education and discuss where teacher education has been located throughout the history of education.

## **2.5 Models, duration, and where teacher education takes place**

As stated in Chapter 1, the decision to go for one or another model of teacher preparation, and the place where the programmes of teacher education ought to be placed, is reliant on many factors. One of them is the socioeconomic situation in a country. This overview provides a picture of different options in different countries. The idea is also to show that even in developed countries the process of preparing teacher is historically defined by many factors, among them the development of the education systems. Although there are differences in terms of contexts, developing countries ought to see historical events as mere indicators of the complexity of the process of teacher preparation, which it is not straightforward.

Historically, many secondary school teachers were prepared at university or other post-secondary institutions, while elementary school teachers were not. However, as the twentieth century

progressed, more and more teacher preparation for elementary school teaching was moved into universities, especially in industrialised countries (Schwille and Dembélé, 2007).

Currently, many countries offer different programmes to elementary and secondary school teachers (see Section 2.6). However, the nature and extent of these differ greatly. In some countries, elementary and secondary school teachers are prepared in the same university, faculties of education or in special-purpose post-secondary institutions, but in other countries they are not.

The variation in the duration of initial teacher preparation programmes is quite striking across countries, ranging from a few months to eight years. There are also variations within countries with regard to primary and secondary teaching. Programme duration depends on a set of interrelated conditions such as economic constraints, the relation of demand to supply teachers, and so on. The literature suggests that programmes of less than a year's duration tend to be most prevalent in developing countries (see Section 2.6), whereas longer programmes are more widespread in industrialised countries. The shorter duration of programmes in developing countries is primarily a consequence of the difficult situation created by the call for universal primary education, especially since the 1990 Jomtien Conference (ibid, 2007).

In spite of the differences in terms of models or duration of teacher education programmes across the world, there is general agreement about course content. Authors such as Grosso De Leon, 2001; Reynolds, 1992; Jegede, Taplin and Chan, 2000; Borko and Putman, 1995; cited in Villegas-Reimers (2003) propose different kinds of the skills, knowledge, dispositions, and values in which effective teachers must become proficient. From a long list, one can highlight three main aspects: (i) general pedagogical knowledge: this includes knowledge of learning environments and instructional strategies; classroom management and knowledge of learners and learning; (ii) subject-matter knowledge, which includes knowledge of content and substantive structures and syntactic structures (the equivalent of knowledge of a discipline); (iii) pedagogical content knowledge: a conceptual map of how to teach a subject, knowledge of instructional strategies and representations; knowledge of students' understanding and potential misunderstandings and knowledge of curriculum and curricular materials.

## **2.6 The structure of teacher education programmes: the concurrent and consecutive models**

Every initial teacher education programme operates within certain structural and institutional parameters, linked to the kind of teachers that are needed, how they are expected to learn, and what the existing resource constraints are. Looking at the ways in which teacher education programmes are organised throughout the world, two dominant modes exist: the concurrent model and the consecutive model. In the former, theory and practice are combined during the initial phase of education. In the latter, the teaching qualification is achieved by undertaking pedagogical studies/training after the initial education is completed. Also, a higher level of teacher qualification, or a qualification for another teaching position, can be achieved through additional studies by an individual teacher during their career. In terms of structure, teacher education at Master's level can be organised in several different ways. In most cases, this will entail: (i) combining pedagogical and subject studies in the same institution or department of a university; (ii) combining studies for a Master's degree in education and subject studies in the same or another department of the university/college; or (iii) combining pedagogical studies in a specific department of the university/college and studies for a Master's degree in a specific subject in another department of the university/college. In other cases, it implies that students with a degree in a specific subject will subsequently receive pedagogical training (ETUCE, 2008).

### **2.6.1 The advantages and disadvantages of each model**

The major benefit of the current model is that it allows for a more integrated learning experience, since pedagogical training and subject-matter (content knowledge) training takes place at the same time. However, this kind of programme can also have disadvantages, notably that they are less flexible than consecutive models, since the students are required to decide whether or not they want to become a teacher at a very early stage in their university studies. If teacher education is accessible only through concurrent programmes, it can cause difficulties for those who have studied something other than education in the first place, as well as for people who are interested in becoming a teacher, but who would also want to be able to re-enter other labour markets (Musset, 2010).

Regarding the consecutive model, Musset (2010) argues that its main advantage lies in the fact that it allows a flexible entry into teacher education. Since the aspirant teachers already have another degree, they can convert themselves more easily, if they change their interest or job perspectives. She goes on to say that this flexibility in relation to their coursework also makes them better equipped if there is a change in labour-market conditions. She concludes that it is important to acknowledge that in certain subjects it is essential for the teacher to have strong subject expertise, which can often be achieved only through prior studies in that field (examples are mathematics and history). She points out that in this model of initial teacher education programmes, teachers might develop a weaker knowledge of learning techniques in particular and of pedagogy in general. Since they have studies in two different cycles and learnt two different aspects of the teaching profession, their learning process is fragmented rather than integrated. In the majority of the OECD countries, initial teacher education for secondary schools is consecutive, which means that their professional identity, compared to that of a primary school teacher, is not constructed around teaching but around the subject in which they have specialised.

The following section presents a brief overview of how teacher education is implemented in different regions and countries. Although this is only a partial representation, it shows how diverse the process of preparing teachers can be when it comes to discrepancies between developed and developing countries.

### ***2.6.1.1 Europe***

According to ETUCE<sup>8</sup> (2008), teacher education in Europe takes place in many different institutions, bearing many different names. It may take place in universities, university colleges or specialist institutes. Duration varies between countries. The length of teacher education programmes for primary education is three years in eight EU<sup>9</sup>/EFTA<sup>10</sup> countries, four years in 15 countries, and around five years in seven countries. Two countries, Ireland and Romania, have

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<sup>8</sup> European Trade Union Committee for Education.

<sup>9</sup> European Union.

<sup>10</sup> European Free Trade Association which includes: Iceland, Liechtenstein, Norway and Switzerland.



teacher education programmes of both three and four years in length. Within the UK,<sup>11</sup> Scotland has teacher education programmes of both four and five years.

For lower secondary education, the average length of teacher education is four and a half years, and for upper secondary education the average is 4,8 years. The general trend has been for the length of initial teacher education to increase. In many countries, primary teacher education has been increased to four years as it has reached university level, and secondary teacher preparation has increased by a year as it has become a postgraduate qualification.

### ***2.6.1.2 Latin America***

Perry (2006) describes teacher education in Latin America and Caribbean, noting that throughout the region, teachers are educated in various types of institutions, both public and private. There is no uniformity when it comes to the types of institutions that educate teachers. Prospective students frequently have to choose within their home country to attend either teacher training institutes or universities. Most countries require the completion of secondary studies and an entrance examination for admittance into either institutes or universities (ibid). The number of years of study varies according to institution type rather than according to the country. In most countries, teacher institutes generally require two to three years of post-secondary study (ibid). At university level, the length of study follows that of other careers, which is four to five years of study. In some cases, the grade level in which a future teacher will teach determines the amount of study necessary.

### ***2.6.1.3 Sub-Saharan Africa***

In sub-Saharan countries, different models of teacher education have been developed; some of them are presented below. The descriptions of the processes are based on online publications from the Department of Education at the University of Sussex, which presents a diverse range of studies on Teacher Preparation and Continuing Professional Development in Africa (TPA). The cases of Mali, Ghana and Tanzania are presented to illustrate what has been happening in West

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<sup>11</sup> United Kingdom.

and East Africa with regard to teacher education development. After that, the systems in some Southern Africa counties are discussed.

#### **2.6.1.4 Mali**

Teacher education policies and structures in Mali have undergone a number of changes in the fifty years since its independence. Currently, the majority of teachers are trained at colleges known as *Instituts pour la Formation des Maîtres* (IFM). The largest group entering these colleges comprises students who have just passed the school-leaving examination after nine years of basic education. They take either a subject specialist course to become secondary school teachers, or a generalist course to teach in the primary sector. In both cases, training takes four years: three in college, followed by a year of practice during which they take responsibility for teaching in a school. Students only return to the college in the fourth year for their final examinations. Much of the training time – particularly in the first two years – is spent on general education rather than on education and activities relevant to learning to teach.

Alongside this group of trainees, each college also recruits a substantial cohort of students who have completed senior secondary education. Their training programme consists of just one year at the IFM and one year of school-based practice. Like their colleagues, they can choose to follow a generalist primary course or a specialist secondary course. Many of the IFMs have emerged from older institutions, but the sector is expanding to address the growing demand for teachers. There are currently fifteen IFMs spread throughout the country.

#### **2.6.1.5 Ghana**

Teacher education in Ghana has passed through many stages, resulting in various categories of teachers who possess different professional qualifications, namely certificate, diploma or degree. Currently, the training of teachers is located in the colleges of education (formerly teacher training colleges) and at two universities. The colleges of education train teachers for primary education, while the universities prepare teachers for all levels of education.

The requirements for entering a college of education have shifted from a Middle School Leaving Certificate to a Senior High School Certificate. The minimum entry requirement for the teacher education universities has been a Senior Secondary Certificate since the outset. At both levels, teaching experience is not a mandatory requirement.

The duration of teacher training in the colleges of education is three years; in the universities, the duration ranges from two sandwich semesters for candidates with university degrees in their subject areas, to four years for entrants with only a secondary education. The emphasis of training is on both content and methodology for candidates with only a secondary education, but the emphasis is on methodology for entrants with appropriate qualifications in their subject (content) areas.

#### **2.6.1.6 Tanzania**

In Tanzania, teacher education is divided into two categories: pre-service and in-service training.

**Pre-service training.** This training enables future teachers to comprehend educational theories, educational philosophy, teaching methodologies and educational ethics, while gaining social skills, knowledge and skills in the different subjects considered necessary for a successful teaching career. A teacher is expected to master his or her area of specialisation in order to be in the best position to help learners.

Teacher education is offered in three clusters:

6. **Grade A teachers** – These are teachers who are trained to teach pre-primary and primary school students. Normally, teachers who are eligible are supposed to be Form 4 graduates who hold ordinary-level secondary education certificates. Training lasts for two years and the emphasis is on teaching methodologies.
7. **Diploma teachers** – This training equips students to teach in secondary schools, although most will also teach in primary schools. Normally, employment will follow completion of a teacher training course at a college. The training for a Diploma in Education lasts for two years. Because of current shortage of teachers in the country, however, diploma trainees study theories of education in college for one year, with the following year spent in schools as part of block teaching practice. The teacher trainee curriculum at this level emphasises teaching methodologies and ethics.
8. **Degreed teachers** – This is the highest level of teacher education. Degree holders are trained to teach in secondary schools and teacher training colleges. Training should take three to four years, but the demand for teachers means that training is currently a maximum of three years. Teacher training at this level varies in the specialisations they offer: teachers train as college

tutors specialising in teaching methodologies and education psychology, and teachers train to teach in secondary schools. Both these groups learn a broad range of academic subjects, but relatively few teaching methodologies.

**In-service training.** This training is given to teachers who are already working. It is supposed to be provided constantly and consistently and differ in approaches. The aim of in-service teacher training is to improve the quality of teaching, as well as to acclimatize new teachers so they can carry out effective teaching and learning. Without this training, teachers' knowledge will become outdated, they will be unable to cope well with change and they will lose their ability to work effectively and efficiently. Most in-service training is offered through short courses, seminars, workshops, meetings and other formats. The training is offered by the government and other education stakeholders within or outside the country.

#### ***2.6.1.7 Southern Africa***

In this region, many changes have been influenced by global changes in higher education provision around the world, mainly as a result of the implementation of the Bologna Process, which covered teacher education. Currently, one can find two different trends in the region. For example, in Angola and Mozambique, primary school teachers have been prepared in teacher education colleges, and secondary school teachers are prepared at tertiary level. In South Africa, a process of merging has occurred, so that teacher education for primary and secondary teachers has been developed at tertiary education level through faculties of education or schools of education within different kinds of universities.

In the region, the process of preparing teachers for secondary schools occurs within Faculties of Education or Schools of Education at tertiary education institutions. In terms of curriculum, a concurrent model is in place, in which prospective teachers are prepared both academically and professionally. In some cases the proportion of content knowledge and pedagogic knowledge is defined in terms of percentage. Thus, the package of teacher education in the region includes:

9. the general component, which is given over to courses covering general education and study of the one or more specific subjects to be taught;

10. the professional component, which provides prospective teachers with both the theoretical and practical skills needed to be a teacher, and includes in-class placements. The professional component is provided at the same time as the general component.

### ***2.6.1.8 South Africa***

Analysing teacher education and institutional change in South Africa, Krauss (2008) considers that institutional change in South African teacher education has occurred in the context of a "double dynamic" driving teacher education globally, namely of changes relating to education and teacher policy on the one hand, and changes occurring in higher education on the other. She adds that:

The South African trajectory is strongly shaped and constrained by the inherited, fragmented, inefficient system described by the National Teacher Education Audit in 1995. The initial focus of change was to rationalise the inefficient and costly college sector, by incorporating teacher education into the universities and technikons [í ] However, insufficient attention was paid to the capacity of higher education institutions to bear the full responsibility for teacher education; and teacher education policy-makers did not foresee the process of institutional mergers that would in turn, change the higher education institutional landscape a few years later (Krauss, 2008, p. 4).

Parker, cited by Krauss (ibid.), reminds us of the legacy of the 1910 Constitution, which divided responsibility for teacher education between the national and the provincial governments. Secondary teachers were produced by universities and later by technikons, as a national competence. Primary teachers were produced by colleges of education which were under provincial control (and later under Bantustan or homeland control). Immediately prior to 1994, there were seventeen departments of education responsible for teacher training.

Based on the Norms and Standards Policy introduced in 2000,<sup>12</sup> qualifications and programmes offered by the teacher education providers have been streamlined and a degree of uniformity has been created. The structure of the initial teacher education qualification has shifted towards either an integrated four-year B.Ed. degree, or a three-year degree, while a postgraduate certificate remains (PGCE) (Krauss, 2008). These two broad pathways lead to a first professional

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<sup>12</sup> Replaced by the Minimum Requirements for Teacher Education Qualifications.

qualification for teachers. The first pathway is the 480-credit Bachelor of Education (B.Ed.) degree, which includes the equivalent of a year's supervised practical teaching experience, pegged at Level 7 on the National Qualifications Framework (NQF). The second is a 360-credit degree (for example BA, B.Sc., B.Com) followed by a 120-credit Advanced Diploma in Education (DOE, 2007).

#### **2.6.1.9 Angola**

In Angola primary school teachers are trained for two years in primary teacher training centres for first-level primary teaching and in *Institutos Medios Normales*, where courses are four years long. Teachers for the first cycle of secondary education are trained in teacher-training schools. Second-cycle secondary school teachers are trained at the *Instituto Superior de Ciências de Educação* (ISCED). Higher education teachers are trained at the university. ISCED also offers distance education programmes to provide qualifications to unqualified teachers.

#### **2.6.1.10 Mozambique**

The process of teacher education development in Mozambique has been driven by many factors, mainly related to socioeconomic, political and ideological changes, as well as pressures from donors, who are keen to reduce the length of teacher education for financial reasons.

The tradition of secondary school teacher education in Mozambique is very recent when compared to primary school teacher education, which has been developed since the colonial period. The Faculty of Education of Eduardo Mondlane University can be considered the pioneer of the process of preparing teachers for secondary school. The Pedagogic University replaced it in the late 1980s.

According to Passos (2009), Mozambique has had several models of teacher training since independence, and the weakness of the education system can be attributed to some extent to the lack of a coherent teacher training policy. She adds that because the decision-makers did not take into consideration the results of research in the teacher training field, new policies and programmes tend to replicate the problems inherent in the previous ones. Thus it is clear that there is an absence of a coherent and aligned policy as far as teacher education is concerned in Mozambique.

Little is known about the rationale and details informing changes in approaches. For instance, some studies (Machili, 2000; Niquice, 2005; Lauchande and Guro 2008, Passos, 2009; and Guro, 2010) show that during the post-independence of the country, more than 23 models of teacher education have been developed. The successive models of teacher education, and their change without an informed research foundation, do not contribute to the formulation of a consistent, long-term direction for teacher education in Mozambique. Teacher education has been driven in accordance with what some scholars consider as an *emergency mentality* (Lauchande and Guro, 2008). In other words, the government has been adopting a more reactive than proactive approach in relation to teacher education development.

Machili (2000), analysing the development of the education system in Mozambique, maintains that the quality of teacher training and the performance of teachers were the weakest links.

Some of the issues mentioned are no longer relevant due to the further development of the education system, as well as the institutional development of the Pedagogic University. During the first decade of this century, many academic staff members were sent abroad for post-graduate studies, under the auspices of agreements with universities in Brazil, France, Portugal, the USA and Australia. Currently there are many Masters and PhD graduates in Curriculum Development, Didactics, Teaching Methods and other fields related to education. This situation contributes to the revitalisation of the debate, introducing different visions regarding the ideal framework for teacher education in Mozambique. There has as yet been no consensus regarding the models of teacher education, with "coalitions" inside and outside the Pedagogic University attempting to influence the system of instruction. There have been discussions about whether training should be more focused on the subject than on pedagogical knowledge, and the length of courses is also controversial. The absence of a national teacher education framework seems to introduce a lacuna. This aspect is largely explained in the Chapter Five where policies and strategies are discussed.

Prospective teachers for primary schools are now trained at teacher training colleges all over the country. In each province, there is at least one teacher training college. The level of entrance to these institutions is Grade 10. After two years of study, the students are awarded a middle-level degree. Teachers for secondary schools are trained at universities, with an entrance level of Grade 12 or equivalent. After four years of training, the students are awarded an Honours degree.

Recently, due to the higher demand for secondary school teachers and the financial constraints, the former Ministry of Education and Culture have introduced two controversial models, namely: 10+1 and 12+1 teacher training for primary schools and junior secondary schools teachers, respectively. These models were regarded as temporary, with new models planned for implementation in 2012.

The development of teacher education programmes in Mozambique through different periods of time, along with the current situation and future developments at the Pedagogic University are presented and analysed in the next chapters.

## **2.7 How much theory and how much practice on teacher education: an eternal question**

Teacher education is still a field of tension because the role of the teacher is crucial to the broader preparation of new generations. Questions have been raised regarding the role of the government and the institutions of teacher education in the preparation of teachers. There are ongoing debates about how much content and how much pedagogic training should be included in the courses, as well as where the preparation of teachers ought to take place.

Achieving the right balance between theory and practice includes ensuring the correct balance between teaching practice, as an element in formal teacher education programmes, and teaching practice, arranged as separate periods in school. The proportion of time spent on professional training varies from country to country. Both conceptual and content knowledge and pedagogical knowledge are necessary for effective teaching, together with the students' willingness and ability to reflect on their own practice (Schon, 1983; 1987) and to learn from the learners' own experience of being taught. These elements need to be integrated, so that teachers can confidently apply knowledge-in-practice in a self-reflexive way.

Current literature tends to highlight the need of a balance between theory and practice. The question is how this should be done in some countries where there is an urgency with regard the preparation of future teachers to attend the excessive demand for educational services, put by the process of massification of education within a context of paucity of financial resources.



## 2.8 The process of mentoring

Internationally, the development of mentoring in schools in conjunction with partnerships between universities and schools has become a key feature of re-designed teacher education. It is common for formal partnership arrangements to be developed between higher education institutions and schools, in order to provide structured support for student teachers. The matter of such arrangements varies considerably. Maandag, Deinum, Hofman, and Buitinik (2007) provide a useful framework for characterising the nature of university-school-based collaborations. Based on five cross-national studies (from England, France, Germany, the Netherlands and Sweden), they describe how these partnership vary along a continuum, from the school playing a host role (the work-placement model), to shared responsibility between the school and the higher education institution (the partner model), to the school providing all training (school-training model).

The following table shows the five models of university-school partnership in Initial Teacher Education. It must be emphasised that these models are developed in higher-income countries in Europe, where the trend has been to place teacher education development at university level. This table is included as a reference, for the comparison of possible models. Again, each country needs to identify the most suitable model for their context, taking into account not only socioeconomic conditions but also the major goals with regard to the preparation of teachers.

**Table 2.1: Models of university-school partnership in initial teacher education**

<p>Model A: Workplace/host model</p>	<p>In this model, the school is the location where the student teachers undertake a placement. The tertiary institution provides all course work. This model typically involves some coaching by supervising teachers.</p>
<p>Model B: Coordinator model</p>	<p>In this model, the school has a central supervision or liaison teacher with the tertiary institution. This is a variation on model A. The difference is that in this model, the school takes on the task of supervising student teachers, by appointing an experienced colleague to coordinate teacher education.</p>

Model C: Partner model	A teacher in the school acts as a trainer of professional teachers. The school is partly responsible for the course curriculum. In addition to coaching the student teacher, the school also provides some of training itself.
Model D: Network model	In this case, the trainer in the school is the leader of a training team in the school. The school is only partly responsible for the course curriculum. The school has a teacher education training team consisting of one or more trainers at school and coaches who are trained in teaching methods.
Model E: Training school model	In this model, the entire training course is provided by the school. The tertiary institution functions as a backup or support institution, focusing on training the trainers at school and developing teaching and training methods.

Source: Maandag et al., 2007.

Having discussed the significance of the mentoring process, in the next section I discuss how a well-coordinated process of developing norms and standards for teacher education can play an important role in providing guidelines for the successful preparation of teachers.

## **2.9 The coordinating process, norms and standards**

Many bodies and institutions have to cooperate on teacher education. The ministry recognises that each of them has its own responsibilities in the system, and it also recognises the need for improving coordination between them, since their roles may intersect or depend on one other. In many countries there is a council, which is a professional body that regulates the teaching profession. Generally it has a statutory duty to determine who may become a member of the teaching profession: student teachers must meet a set of standards in order to qualify to begin teaching. In New Zealand these are called ‘graduating teacher standards’ while in England they are referred to as ‘professional standards for qualified teacher status’.

The process of establishing a regulatory framework for teacher education programmes varies from country to country. In South Africa it began in 1995. The Norms and Standards for Educators<sup>13</sup> (2000) and The National Policy Framework for Teacher Education and Development in South Africa (DOE, 2007) stipulate the minimum standards that pre-service teachers must reach before they can be accredited as teachers in the country. The NPFTED (DOE, 2007) recognises that the art of teaching can only be developed through experience in the classroom, and that schools are the only suitable places for learning how to teach. In line with this recognition, the policy document requires that HEIs, schools and student teachers should form partnerships to monitor student teachers' acquisition of professional skills and knowledge. For instance, HEIs collaborate with schools to determine whether or not a student teacher has successfully attained Qualified Teacher Status (QTS). In order to achieve QTS, student teachers have to demonstrate to the partnership that they have reached a particular level of professional competence, by displaying satisfactory synergies of teaching knowledge and skills.

The publication of norms and standards for teacher education may offer guidelines and a framework for the design of future programmes. This does not guarantee, however, that existing programmes will improve as a result of this new framework. In my view, it is better to have a clear framework, as there is widespread discontent over the way in which teacher education has been conducted without guidelines. Therefore the major concern regarding secondary school teacher education in Mozambique is the absence of norms and standards.<sup>14</sup> There is a strategy in place for secondary education development, indicating the duration of secondary teachers' education programmes. The existing strategy does not present academic, professional or occupational requirements for one to become a teacher, so a policy framework is needed for pre-service and in-service teacher training and professional development

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<sup>13</sup> Since 15 July 2011 a new policy has been in entitled 'Minimum Requirements for Teacher Education Qualifications' This policy aligns qualifications for teacher education with the Higher Education Qualifications Framework of 2007.

<sup>14</sup> Standards refer to what teachers are expected to know and to be able to do: generic standards are broad descriptions of teacher competences, while specified standards state more precisely what would constitute evidence of meeting the standard. Specified standards define a performance element that would enable an assessor to make judgments about teacher performance. Generic standards can be defined loosely in a way that would invite local interpretation by principals, inspectors, teacher educators, and other concerned parties.

## 2.10 The conceptual framework

To formulate an optimal framework that can help to answer the major question of this study, concerning the role played by the Pedagogic University in preparing teachers for the National Education System; this inquiry is based on a multiplicity of concepts. First and foremost, this study is grounded in the concept of a *continuum of teacher learning* supported by Villegas-Reimers, 2003; Schwille and Dembélé, 2007; and Conway et al., 2009. A continuum of teacher learning is a comprehensive framework for organising and understanding how professional educators acquire and improve their ability to teach. The term implies that they are concerned, not only with formal teacher preparation, induction and continuing professional development programmes, but also with the many informal influences that contribute to what and how they learn to teach. According to these researchers, the notion of a continuum of learning calls for an integrated approach that will meet the training needs:

Whatever is done in any one phase should be informed and will be influenced by what has been learnt before and what is likely to be learnt later, as well as the opportunities to learn that co-exist during the phase in question. In other words, when designing opportunities to foster teacher learning and development at any phase, one must keep long-term professional goals in sight while remaining cognizant of what happened in the past ( Schwille and Dembélé, 2007, p.29).

and:

The continuum of teacher education has become a key policy focus for national governments, trans-national agencies and intergovernmental bodies. This is evident in the proliferation of reforms focus on teacher education over the professional life-cycle (not just initial teacher education). It focuses on five dimensions: teacher's roles, quality teaching; the professional life-cycle, teacher learning and relationships (Conway et al., 2009, p.xiii).

**Table 2.2: The continuum of teacher education**

Apprenticeship of observation	Initial teacher education	Induction	Early professional development	Continuing professional development
14 or more years	1 to 4 years	1 year	Years 2 and 3 of	Rest of the career

			teaching	
Observation and experience in preschool, primary and secondary school.	University, college of education plus school placement.	School-based (in collaboration with teacher education provider).	School-based (in collaboration with teacher education provider).	Includes scope for leadership and/or mentoring, as well as individual professional development.

Adapted from: Conway et al., 2009.

Table 2.2 presents apprenticeship through observation as the first stage of teacher learning, which continues for the rest of the career. It is descriptive in terms of tasks to be done during the several stages of teacher learning development. It underlines the interconnectedness of teacher education processes.

Secondly, this study owes to Morrow (2007) the concept of teacher education as a form of professional education. Morrow (ibid) underlines that professional education is a kind of career education that straddles the commonly-assumed boundary between vocational and academic education, and includes an ethical dimension; whereas professional education develops the professional knowledge of the learner; the goal of any education programme is to prepare the learner to become more competent in a certain aspect of his/her practice (or practices).

For Morrow (ibid.), the purpose of professional education is to develop teachers' competence in a professional practice, and to inculcate a proper understanding of and commitment to teaching as a form of service. He emphasises that

[O]ne of the marks of a professional practice is that it is constituted in terms of theoretical concepts. A professional practice is shaped and guided by the theory that inform it, and by the concepts, beliefs and principles of those who participate in it. In that sense, a professional is 'cognitive' and socially constructed and maintained, in a much stronger sense than in case of other practices such as, for example, driving a bus or playing tennis. The quality of a professional practice is, thus, much more crucially dependent on the quality of the thought of its practitioners than is the case of other practices (Morrow, p. 77).

He also affirms that in order to design programmes of teacher education, one requires an analysis of professional practice that distinguishes between different elements of that practice, namely the distinctions between 'subject knowledge, methodology and theory' (Morrow, 2007, p. 82)

Thirdly, this study borrows from Britzman (1991) the critical concept of chronologies, which constitutes the process of becoming a teacher: (i) students who enter teacher education bring with them their first chronology negotiated throughout their cumulative classroom lives. This sense of chronology is composed of their prior educational biography and particular ideas about the nature of knowing and the roles and performative rituals of students and teachers; (ii) their student experiences in the university and teacher education constitute the second chronology; (iii) student teaching furnishes the third chronology; once in schools, student teachers become privy to aspects of the teacher's world and departmental politics, and construct relationships with teachers, administrators and students that were unavailable during their past student lives; (iv) a fourth chronology begins once the student teacher becomes a newly-appointed teacher, where at that time, areas of influence and negotiation broaden; the teacher must mediate the influences of the schools system, students, the teachers' union, the community, public policy, professional organisations, and the cumulative effect of their classroom lives. Each of the above chronologies represents 'different and competing relations to power, knowledge, dependency, and negotiation, and authorizes frames of reference that effectuate discursive practices in teaching' (p. 56).

Fourthly, from the Norms and Standards of Teacher Education Development in South Africa, this study borrowed three distinct dimensions or requirements for the process of teacher education development: (i) requirements for academic qualification; (ii) requirements for professional qualification; and (iii) requirements for occupational (or employer) qualification (DOE,2000).

The **dimension of academic qualification** concerns the way in which and where Teacher Education runs (e.g. at colleges or universities) and which degrees are awarded; it is also concerned with the knowledge and understanding that is required;

The **dimension of professional requirements** concerns issues such as a code of conduct with which teachers have to comply, and where teachers have to register in order to practice as qualified teachers;

The **dimension of occupational requirements** concerns who the employer is, what the conditions of employment are and how these conditions are negotiated; it is concerned with the skills that are required;

Fifthly, still in the domain of the South African Norms and Standards Policy document, the combination of seven roles, and a set of associated competences, provides key organisers for the design of teacher education programmes. These are divided into **practical, foundational and reflexive** competences and are aimed at removing the dichotomy between theory and practice.

**Practical competence** is defined as the ability, in an authentic context, to consider a range of possibilities for action, make considered decisions about which possibility to follow, and to perform the chosen action;

**Foundational competence** refers to the student teacher (or for that matter, qualified teacher) demonstrating an understanding of the knowledge and thinking which underpins the action taken;

**Reflexive competence** refers to the ability to integrate or connect performances and decision making with understanding and with the ability to adapt to change and unforeseen circumstances, and explain the reasons behind these actions (DOE, 2000, pp. 15-16).

There is a great deal of variation between countries concerning how and to what extent, if at all, the skills and key competencies for the teaching profession are mentioned in teacher education curricula and in other teacher education documents. Many of the skills and key competencies referred to in various countries' texts are quite general, simply listing subject or pedagogical competencies, or mentioning integrating theory and practice. In fleshing out the various competencies, including the degrees of skill required to achieve them and the manner and context in which these competencies are best acquired, there is an assumption that the quality of teacher education can be substantially improved. The range of concepts and policies which feed the conceptual framework led to the following assumptions being employed in this study: first of all, both conceptual and content knowledge are necessary for effective teaching, together with the teacher's willingness and ability to reflect on practice and to learn from the learners' experiences of being taught. Secondly, the current systems of teacher education often fail to give teachers the skills and key competences they need. Thirdly, programmes of teacher education

development should take into consideration the whole spectrum of teacher learning, i. e. teachers' opportunities to learn from their own schooling (apprenticeship of observation) and throughout their teaching careers. Fourthly, the preferable way of designing training programmes is to align them to economic, political, cultural and historical aspects of the education system;

I use this conceptual framework mainly as a lens to help to interpret how the socioeconomic, political and cultural aspects influence teacher education development programmes in Mozambique. Analysing and interpreting the different policies and strategies introduced since independence in 1975 helps to give a perspective on how the Pedagogic University was conceptualised, as well as the ethical, economic and pedagogic assumptions underpinning the process of idealisation, implementation and the changes of models and systems of teacher education programmes. This conceptual framework also helps in understanding how the tension between the different components of teacher education has been addressed at the university: in other words, the *biography* of the students

## **2.11 Conclusion**

The literature reviewed has led to the following conclusions:

The conceptualisation of teacher education development seems to be currently more dynamic, and tends to present a scope which includes different aspects of the preparation of teachers. Thus, teacher education development is better defined as a form of professional education and includes the particularities associated with it. It is an ongoing process that begins before the enrolment as a prospective teacher and follows interconnected phases, namely: apprenticeship of observation, initial teacher education, induction, early professional development, continuing professional development. These constitute what different authors consider to be a continuum of teacher education development.

From the literature it is also clear that teacher education is still an area of tension. Debates include: (i) questions regarding the role of the government and the institutions of teacher education in relation to teacher preparation; (ii) the balance between pedagogy and content; (iii) the location of teacher preparation; and (iv) the duration of teacher education programmes.



In my view, some of these tensions occur because the whole society recognises the importance of education in the preparation of a new generation, as well as the role that teachers play in this process. The way in which teachers have been prepared is therefore becoming central to the development of education systems across the world, varied as they may be.

One of the most important issues highlighted in the literature is the part played by norms and standards, as well as a national teacher education framework, which may help in guiding the different institutions of teacher education in their task of aligning their programmes with national challenges.

The issues related to teacher education policies in general, particularly those regarding norms and standards in the national teacher education framework. Topics for discussion include the following: the role governments and the institutions of teacher education should play; and where teacher education should take place. These debates constitute the foci of the present study.

Having presented and discussed throughout this chapter the concepts, debates, and process of preparing teachers in different parts of the world for their professional life, and arguing for teacher education as a continuum process of learning, which begins even before future teachers enrol for their preparation in different sites, the next chapter examines the methodological aspects of this enquiry.

## **CHAPTER 3: METHODOLOGY**

### **3.1 Introduction**

In this chapter I trace my research journey, describing why I chose to explore the research question in the way that I did. I explain my research design, data collection methods, data analysis and other methodological considerations. I argue for the use of a qualitative paradigm and case study approach, as better suited to my research questions. The chapter also includes an account of the challenges that I experienced and how I dealt with them. In summary, this chapter focuses on: (i) how I addressed my research questions; (ii) the rationale for the methods and processes used in this research; (iii) the options for the Pedagogic University of Mozambique, as a case study.

### **3.2 Epistemological and ontological perspectives: an interpretive perspective**

An understanding of what constitutes knowledge or knowing affects the ways in which research approaches are developed. The type of research to be conducted, the methodologies adopted and strategies for analysing the data are informed by the epistemological and ontological orientation of the researcher.

My personal history lends itself to an interpretive approach, as my experience as a social science and humanities student is rooted in an interpretive perspective. I strongly believe that reality is socially constructed and that subjects have different perceptions and understanding of the world. Interpretive social scientists study social action, which is located in subjective meaning. In many instances, these approaches reject the notion of truth and objectivity (Moore, as cited in Adam 2009, p. 45). This research calls for an approach that provides insight into the complex world of lived experience from the point of view of those who live it (Schwandt, 1994, p. 118). Interpretive research assumes that reality is socially constructed and the researcher becomes the vehicle by which this reality is revealed (Walsham, 1995; Cavana et al. 2001). This approach is consistent with the construction of the social world characterised by interaction between the researcher and the participants.

Diaz (2009) establishes a distinction between qualitative research and an interpretive approach. Quoting Klein and Myers, 1999; and Neumann, 1997, he highlights that they are not equivalent and interchangeable terms. Interpretive research assumes that our knowledge of reality is gained only through social constructions such as language, consciousness, shared meanings, documents, tools, and other artefacts (Klein and Myers, p. 69). Diaz (2009.) adds that qualitative research is a broader term, and that it generally refers to a study process that investigates a social, human problem, where the researcher conducts the study in a natural setting and builds a full and complex representation by a rich description and explanation, as well as by careful examination of the study informants' words and views.

In sum, I put forward this approach as one way to understand how we know what we know; it is an epistemological approach to study the knowing subject and researcher positionality (Cary as cited in Slattery, 2006, p. 333). In the next section I discuss the research paradigm.

### **3.3 Research paradigm: a qualitative approach**

It is broadly accepted that scholars operate within a scientific paradigm, either explicit or implicit. A paradigm is an overall conceptual framework within which a researcher may work, the basic belief system or worldview that guides the investigator (Guba and Lincoln 1994, p. 105). There are many philosophical assumptions supporting different paradigms of social science relating to ontology, epistemology and methodology. Generally, scholars choose between quantitative and qualitative methods, or mixed methods based on the research question. Corroborating this view, Creswell (2014, p.6) states that

I see worldviews as holding a general philosophical orientation about the world and the nature of research that a researcher brings to a study. Worldviews arise based on discipline and orientations, students' advisors/mentors inclinations, and past research experiences. The types of beliefs held by individual researchers based on these factors will often lead to embracing a qualitative, quantitative, or mixed methods approach in their research.

As my interest is in understanding the nature of teacher education development in the context of postcolonial Mozambique, and, more precisely, the role that the Pedagogic University has been playing in preparing teachers for the National Education System, a qualitative research paradigm has been adopted because it is better suited to the nature of the research endeavour. I see as very meaningful the definition put forward by Creswell (2014). For the author,

qualitative research is a means for exploring and understanding the meaning individuals or groups ascribe to a social or human problem. The process of research involves emerging questions and procedures; collecting data in the participants' setting; analysing [sic] data inductively, building from particulars to general themes; and making interpretations of the data. The final report has a flexible writing and structure (p. 246-247).

This study was qualitative in nature, which enabled me to explore relevant themes, processes and patterns that have characterised secondary teacher education development in Mozambique, by exploring a case study of the Pedagogic University of Mozambique. Acknowledging the strengths that it offers, many studies advocate developing qualitative studies in the social sciences. Mouton (2005) argues that the strengths of a qualitative paradigm are that it (a) studies people in terms of their own definitions of the world (the insider perspective), (b) focuses on the subjective experiences of individuals, and (c) is sensitive to the context in which people interact with each other (p. 194). Discussing qualitative and quantitative orientations of research, Neuman (2003) emphasises the importance of understanding the distinct orientation of researchers, as qualitative researchers often rely on interpretive or critical social science. According to him, qualitative researchers speak a language of 'cases and contexts' (p. 139). This research addresses the socioeconomic and political differences in the context in which teacher education has been developed in Mozambique: a context that informed the emergence of the Pedagogic University, as well as the context of change and the perceptions of change by different actors who participated in this inquiry.

### **3.4 A qualitative case study**

There are several qualitative modes of inquiry which have been conducted through different disciplines and that have emerged with distinctive methodologies (Yin, 2007; Creswell, 2014). Again, the research questions must be suitably matched to the research approach. In other words, the research question informs the nature of research design that is adopted. Therefore, the mode of inquiry selected for this study is the case study.

The case study is an empirical inquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context, especially when the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident (Yin, 2003, p. 13). For Creswell (2014, p. 241),

Case studies are a qualitative design in which the researcher explores in-depth a program event, activity, process, or one or more individuals. The case(s) are bounded by time and activity, and researchers collect detailed information using a variety of data collection procedures over a sustained period of time.

Since the case study design is conducted in a natural setting, with the intention of comprehending the nature of current processes in a previously under-studied area (Benbasat, Goldstein, and Mead, 1987), it allows the researcher to gain a holistic understanding of the phenomenon under investigation (Yin, 2007; McMillan and Schumacher, 2001; Eisenhardt, 1989). Instead of seeking answers to questions such as 'how much' or 'how many', case study design is useful for answering questions of 'how' and 'why' (Benbasat et al., 1987; Yin, 2003).

It is recognised that case studies can follow either quantitative or qualitative approaches (Doolin, 1996; Stake, 1994) or any mix of both (Yin, 2003). Walsham (1995) notes the particular value of interpretive case studies. In qualitative and interpretive case studies, the researcher is directly involved in the process of data collection and analysis (Neuman, 2003; Klein and Myers, 1999; Morgan and Smircich, 1980; Morse, 1994).

Bassey (2002) defines this kind of study as an empirical enquiry, conducted within a localised boundary of space and time, into interesting aspects of an educational system, mainly in its natural context, in a respectful way. According to Neuman (2003), in a case study, a researcher may intensively investigate one or two cases or compare a limited set of cases, focusing on several factors. Case studies use analytical logic instead of enumerative induction. The researcher carefully selects one or more key cases to illustrate an issue, and analytically studies them in detail. The researcher considers the specific context of the case and examines how its parts are configured.

Yin (2007, p. 14) recognises that, in spite of the case study being a distinctive form of empirical inquiry, many researcher investigators nevertheless disregard the strategy, as case studies have been viewed as a less desirable form of inquiry than either experiments or surveys. Yin notes the various concerns put forward regarding case studies as follows: (i) lack of rigour, where 'too

many times in the case study the investigator has been sloppy, has not followed systematic procedures, or has allowed equivocal evidence or biased views to influence the direction of findings and conclusions (ibid); (ii) they provide little basis for scientific generalisation (ibid, p.15); (iii) they take too long, and result in overly large and unreadable documents; (iv) renewed concern over randomised field trials or true experiments, where such studies aim to establish causal relationships, that is, whether or not a particular treatment has been efficacious in producing particular effect (ibid. p.16).

The strengths of case study methodology are that it has high construct validity; it provides in-depth insights; and it establishes rapport with research subjects (Mouton, 2005). On the other hand, the weakness of the methodology is that the results lack generalisability; the measures are not standardised, and the data collection and analysis can be time-consuming (Mouton, 2005).

### **3.5 Selection of the case and definition of its parameters**

The selection of the Pedagogic University for this study was a pragmatic one, informed by access and convenience. Being a lecturer at the university allows for easy access to a range of institutional documents and other sources of information which would otherwise be very difficult to obtain. The selection criterion was also based on the following:

The Pedagogic University is the biggest institution offering teacher education programmes, created after the closing of the Faculty of Education of the Eduardo Mondlane University.

It is the only tertiary education institution in Mozambique that prepares school teachers using multiplicity sites namely branches, faculties, schools and departments, replicating the programmes throughout the country.

The institution has been introducing a number of transformations, perceived as a change, regarding its core business. In other words, the Pedagogic University offers a broad range of non-teaching specialisations, allowing it to fit slowly into the category of a traditional university.

The faculties, schools and departments are responsible for teacher education across the country at the branches where the different courses are replicated. The deans of faculties and the heads of

department are based in the country's capital, Maputo. From the above-mentioned faculties and departments, fourth-year students and academic staff with at least five years of experience were selected as subjects, in order to gain an accurate understanding of the process of teacher education development within the institution, including the changes that have occurred to this process over time.

### **3.6 Managing data**

After I identified the sites through which information would be acquired, and where and when it could be obtained, data collection was conducted through literature, national and institutional documents and interviews.

### **3.7 Conclusion**

In this chapter I went on to justify my choice of a case-study approach as appropriate for investigating the complex social nature of teacher education development I explained my choice of interpretive approach which has enabled me to explore relevant themes, process and patterns that have characterised the preparation of teachers at the Pedagogic University, and understand the changes that have been occurring and why. Next chapter I look at data collection and analysis process as well as issues regarding reliability, validity and ethic procedures

## CHAPTER 4: DATA COLLECTION

### 4.1 Introduction

On obtaining ethics clearance through the protocol number 2011ECE139C, I organised all the procedures necessary for approaching the relevant authorities in order to gain access to potential informants. In some cases it was necessary to use credentials obtained from the MoE of Mozambique.

The data collection took place in Maputo between August 2011 and July 2012. It was extremely difficult to find and convince prospective informants to participate in this research. It proved more difficult to convince students than lecturers. In spite of exhaustive explanations that the interviews were for academic purposes only, some students did not want to be recorded<sup>15</sup> (5 out of 20). In order to make it easier to access the students, it was necessary to hire two graduate students from the Faculty of Social Sciences. I trained them in the course of a week and we discussed the first interviews, so we could correct some mistakes and to have a common understanding regarding the information to be collected. On the other hand, being a lecturer at the university made it less difficult to deal with the colleagues from other departments. After sufficient clarification with regard to the objectives of the interviews, they felt comfortable about participating.

In this process of data collection, I was aware that I was exploring a topic in which I was not only the researcher, but could also have been one of the participants. Since 1981 I have been part of the academic environment and the reality which this research intends to explore. I have a lived experience regarding some of the facts which I narrate throughout this research: first as a student

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<sup>15</sup> Some sort of 'culture of anonymity' seems to be present in a society that, in my view, is still not freed from a past marked by a colonial rule. Mozambique was under colonial, fascist rule between 1930 and 1974. This was followed by a period of dictatorship (supposedly proletarian) during the First Republic, where the freedom of speech was prohibited (see Chapter 5). Generally speaking, people seem scared of retaliation even now, when, in theory, the country is developing a neoliberal society.



at the Faculty of Education of the Eduardo Mondlane University, where I completed my Bachelor's degree in 1982, and secondly, as a student at the Higher Pedagogic Institute/Pedagogic University, where I completed my undergraduate studies where I was awarded the Licentiate degree in 1992, and thirdly as a lecturer at the Pedagogic University since 1992. In addition, I worked as a teacher in various secondary schools in the country from 1983 to 1996. I made what could be considered the risky decision to utilise my experience throughout the research process: in the identification and framing of the research issue, when collecting data, in discussions, and when analysing and writing up results. Depending on the paradigm orientation, this can be seen as strength or as a weakness. For instance, from a positivistic research orientation this could be considered a potential source of bias, since a clear distinction could not be made between the subject and object. But as mentioned previously, I am adopting an interpretive approach in which my role as a researcher and the role of the subjects are clearly defined.

Positivist research divorces the research subject from its context, by attempting to control for, rather than to include, contextual influences. The objective of research conducted from a positivist position is to generate general laws through a (largely deductive) process of abstraction, by assuming fixed and pre-existing relationships between observed phenomena (Burrell and Morgan; Giddens; Orlikowski and Baroudi as cited in Gasson, 2003, p. 2834). Positivist researchers tend to ignore the role of social influence and human agency in shaping observed phenomena (Klein and Myers; Orlikowski and Baroudi, as cited in Gasson, 2003, p. 2834).

I opted for three data-collection methods, namely, a literature review, documentary analysis and interviews. The literature review was undertaken in order to gather data about trends and debates relating to the topic. It focused on theoretical issues, empirical studies and policy and implementation. The literature served as a means of establishing a picture of the field. The interviews were conducted to obtain facts related to the history of the institution, and the perspectives of key actors in the process. Documents were used to corroborate evidence from other sources, to understand official policies, to reconstruct the path followed by the Pedagogic University, and to triangulate data obtained from the interviews where possible.

## **4.2 Document analysis**

This section discusses why and how I included document analysis as a research method. Document analysis provides accurate and tangible products for an inquiry. According to Yin (2007, p. 103), the most important use of documents is to corroborate and augment evidence from other sources, They are helpful in verifying the correct spellings, titles or names of organisations that might have been mentioned in an interview. The author goes on to say that documents can provide details to corroborate information from other sources. Because of their overall value, documents can play an explicit role in any data collection when doing case studies. One of the challenges in the document analysis process is deciding which documents to analyse. Because of their overall value, documents play a role in any form of data collection when conducting case studies. Therefore, systematic searches for relevant documents are important in any data collection plan (Yin, 2007).

For this thesis, documents selected included, at national level, the National Education policy (1995); National Education System Act (1983); National Education System Act (adjusted) (1992); Education Strategic Plan I (1999-2005); Education Strategic Plan II (2006-2011); Education Strategic Plan III (2012-2016); Higher Education Act (1993); and Higher Education Act (adjusted) (2009). At institutional level, the documents selected included statistics for the faculties and schools, policy and procedure documents; strategic plans for 2000-2010 and 2010-2017; year-books, speeches by different rectors of the Pedagogic University; reports on institutional evaluation. The information collected from these documents is particularly relevant to subsequent chapters, in which I discuss contextual issues and the dynamic of teacher education development within a context of the emergence, development and adjustment of the National Education System, where massification has been the dominant policy. Regarding the case study, I also collected documents relating to access to the programmes, the structure of the programmes, pedagogies, student learning and the academic unit.

## **4.3 Interviews**

One of the most important sources of case-study information is the interview (Yin, 2007). The interview process was the way in which the researcher was able to understand different perspectives since, for different reasons, certain documents do not raise the debates that occur

within the institution. A range of interviews was conducted in order to obtain a diversity of perspectives and to have access to facts and opinions about events and information not available from other sources. In some cases one encounters a gap in institutional memory. This is exacerbated by the absence of minutes, speeches, reports, and other documents relating to some periods of development of the institution. The practice of keeping this type of text is only developing slowly, since the recognition of archival lacunae. The initiative made by the Faculty of Social Sciences to compile available information and to write a book about the history of the Pedagogic University should be appraised. I acknowledge that I benefited from that, because I interacted with certain members of the team constituted for that purpose, sharing information which in some cases was in personal archives.

The study included interviews with the coordinator of the Central Commission of Curricular Reform, who coordinated the two recent reforms at the Pedagogic University; heads of departments; academic staff from each department with a minimum of five years of experience; and fourth-year students from each department. As Nieuwenhuis (2010) has pointed out, the aim of the qualitative interview is to see the world through the eyes of the participant, as they can be valuable source of information provided they are used correctly. The aim is always to obtain rich descriptive data that will help to understand the participant's construction of knowledge and social reality (ibid.). I decided to do semi-structured interviews rather than structured ones, because I intended to interact with the participants.

The semi-structured interview is commonly used in research projects to corroborate data emerging from other sources. It requires the participant to answer a set of predetermined questions. It allows for the probing and clarification of answers. A semi-structured interview schedule is structured to open up the line of enquiry (Nieuwenhuis, 2010), and an open-ended question format of semi-structured interviews provided me with the opportunity to probe participants' responses.

In addition, in-depth interviews were held with pre-service students teachers registered for teacher education programmes from the five faculties and two schools which have been developing teacher education programmes, namely Natural Sciences and Mathematics (with four departments: Mathematic, Chemistry, Physics and Biology); Education Sciences and Psychology (with three departments: Basic Education, Educational Planning and Psychology); Physical

Education and Sports (with three departments: Didactic of Physical Education, Socio-Anthropology and Biodynamic); Languages, Communication and Art (with three departments: Portuguese, English and French); and Social Sciences (with five departments: History, Geography, Sociology, Anthropology, and Philosophy). In-depth interviews were also held with academic staff with at least five years as teacher educators at Pedagogic University. In this group of interviewees, I highlight the interview with the coordinator of the curricular revision and the curricular reform within the Pedagogic University, in 2003 and 2008, respectively. The interview with that person was very useful because it made me find new themes for the next interviews with academic staff and students and to be focused on the main issues.

Purposive sampling strategies were used to select the participants. Purposive sampling involves selecting information-rich cases for in-depth study when one wants to understand something about issues without needing or desiring to generalise to all such cases (Patton as cited in McMillan and Schumacher, 2006, p. 242) Therefore, on the basis of a purposive sample, the prospective interviewees were directly contacted, as long as they were within the target group. I considered as key informants:

Lecturers with at least five years experience at Pedagogic University. Within this group, former students of the Faculty of Education of Eduardo Mondlane University were selected in order to glean from their experience in both institutions as far as teacher preparation was concerned.

Fourth-year students from different faculties and schools at the Pedagogic University. Those students were selected for their experience and their ability to compare their expectations at enrolment to their subsequent experience.

Officials from the MoE were selected for their authority over teacher education development issues. The school principals are from schools where students from the Pedagogic University undertake their practice, and from where students are deployed as secondary school teachers after the conclusion of their studies.

One of the critical challenges associated with the qualitative research approach is in deciding how many interviews should be conducted. Darlington and Scott (2002) suggest that there is no easy answer in making decisions about the number of interviews required for a qualitative study. I interviewed 16 academic staff from five faculties; eight heads of department from all faculties;

twenty fourth-year students from five faculties and one school. The tables below show the characteristics of the informants. In sum I interviewed 46 people, 44 from the Pedagogic University; one from the MoE and one from a secondary school where students do teaching experience and students are placed after concluding their studies The academic staff and heads of departments were interviewed in their offices or staff lounge at the Pedagogic University; students were interviewed at the university campuses where each faculty is located. The interviews with people from outside the Pedagogic University took place in their offices at school and at the MoE. Each interview had a duration of a minimum of 45 minutes and a maximum of 1 hour and 30 minutes.

**Table 4.1: Academic staff interviewed**

#	Code	Gender	Years of Experience as a Teacher	Years of experience at UP	Academic Qualifications	Faculty
	AS1	F	31	21	PhD	FLAC
	AS2	F	29	15	Master	FLAC
	AS3	M	6	6	Licenciate	FLAC
	AS4	M	30	19	PhD	FSS
	AS5	M	32	20	Master	FSS
	AS6	M	35	18	Master	FSS
	AS7	F	29	19	PhD	FSS
	AS8	M	32	21	PhD	FPES
	AS9	M	10	10	Licenciate	FPES
	AS10	F	7	7	Licenciate	FPES
	AS11	M	28	18	PhD	FNSM
	AS12	F	11	8	Master	FNSM
	AS13	M	8	8	Licenciate	FNSM
	As14	M	32	17	PhD	FSEP

#	Code	Gender	Years of Experience as a Teacher	Years of experience at UP	Academic Qualifications	Faculty
	AS15	F	12	12	Master	FSEP
	AS16	M	6	6	Licenciate	FSEP

This table shows the characteristics of the academic staff interviewed for this study. In total 16 academic staff were interviewed, seven female and nine male, with at least five years of lecturing at the Pedagogic University were interviewed over the period between August 2011 and July 2012. Their professional experience as teachers is as follows: between 5 and 9 years, three academic staff, between 10 and 15- three academic staff; between 25 and 29, three academic staff, over 30 years, seven academic staff. Their Pedagogic University experience as lecturers is lower than their experience as teachers; Most of the interviewed were secondary school teachers before they joined the Pedagogic University. Therefore their experience at the Pedagogic University is as described: Five academic staff between 5 and 9 years of experience were interviewed; three between 10 and 15 years; five between 16 and 19 years; and three between 20 and 24. In terms of academic qualifications, six academic staff were holding a PhD degree; five a Master's degree and five with a licenciate.

Regarding the heads of departments interviewed the table below presents a characterisation of them

**Table 4.2: Heads of department interviewed for the study**

Nr	Code	Gender	Years of experience as a teacher	Years of experience at UP	Academic qualifications	Faculty
1	ASD1	M	12	6	Licenciate	FLAC
2	ASD2	M	22	6	Master	FPES

3	ASD3	F	5	5	Licenciate	FPES
4	ASD4	M	33	22	Master	FNSM
5	ASD5	M	29	19	PhD	FNSM
6	ASD6	M	12	12	Licenciate	FSS
7	ASD7	F	29	18	PhD	FSS
8	ASD8	F	20	15	Master	FSEP

As shown in the table, I interviewed eight heads of departments, five males and three females. According to their experience as teachers before they joined the Pedagogic University, the distribution is as follows: one head of department had five years of experience, two with between 10 and 15 years of experience, one with 20 years of experience, one with 22 years of experience; two with 29 and one with 33 years of experience. Their experience at the Pedagogic University is shorter compared to this. Therefore the years of experience range between six and 19 years. In terms of qualifications only two heads of departments held a PhD degree. This may lead to a situation where people with lower qualification are heading a department with people highly qualified. The position of head of department has been seen as more administrative than academic

Regarding the students I interviewed for this thesis the table below presents their characteristics.

**Table 4.3: Students interviewed for the research**

Nr	Code	Gender	Age	Course	Faculty
1	SS1	M	27	Geography	FSS
2	SS2	F	23	Geography	FSS
3	SS3	F	28	History	FSS

Nr	Code	Gender	Age	Course	Faculty
4	SS4	M	30	Philosophy	FSS
5	SC5	M	29	Biology	FNSM
6	SC6	M	37	Chemistry	FNSM
7	SC7	M	25	Physics	FNSM
8	SC8	M	28	Mathematics	FNSM
9	SC9	F	25	Mathematics	FNSM
10	SD10	M	27	Physical Ed	FPES
11	SD11	F	25	Physical Ed	FPES
12	SL12	F	47	Portuguese	FLAC
13	SL13	F	36	English	FLAC
14	SL14	M	25	French	FLAC
15	SL15	F	26	Portuguese	FLAC
16	SP16	F	25	Basic Education	FESP
17	SP17	M	26	Basic Education	FESP
18	SE18	M	22	Computing	TS
19	SE19	M	27	Drawing	TS
20	SE20	F	24	Drawing	TS

As I stated another part of this thesis, I interviewed 20 fourth year students from five faculties and one school, being 11 male and nine female. The interviews took place between May and July of 2012. Their ages ranged from 22 to 47 years.



The additional interviews comprised in-depth discussions with a deputy principal from a high school that received graduates from the Pedagogic University, along with an interview with the newly appointed National Director for Teacher Education who at the time of the interview had been in the position for eight months. After the interview, I was invited by him to attend a seminar, whose main objective was to initiate contact with different personalities and institutions that provide teacher education programmes in Mozambique, in order to reflect on the status of secondary school teacher education programmes in the country. The seminar was very useful and many issues raised by the participants contributed to enhancing my understanding, particularly in relation to the problem of a lack of coordination between the teachers' education providers and the Mozambican MoE.

My first intention was to record and transcribe all interviews verbatim. During the process of interviewing some interviewees, mainly students, for various reasons, did not accept being recorded. As far as I understand it, in spite of the existence of a regulatory framework which ostensibly allows for freedom of speech, some people still prefer to maintain a culture of anonymity. This can be related to the fact that the process of democratisation of the country needs to be consolidated. I was therefore required to take notes after which I tried to reconstruct the major aspects of the interviews. Official documents were yielded by the MoE and other institutions related to the development of the education system in general and particularly to secondary school teacher development.

All interviews were conducted in Portuguese, which is the official language in Mozambique, and all of them were transcribed. I used them for paraphrasing and quotation. Cognisant of the power dynamics of language and the interview format in particular, in case of citation, it was incumbent upon me to translate accurately into English. In some cases, the translation was made by colleagues with translation experience. Therefore, a huge effort was made to assure some fidelity to the Portuguese.

Information was recorded and analysed related to education policies at national level; secondary school teacher education policies and strategies at national level and at Pedagogic University level; student and academic staff background; programmes delivered by the institution; student and academic perceptions related to the institution and its programmes; the legacy of secondary school teacher education; research developed by the institution; the degree of autonomy of the

Pedagogic University in relation to design and implementation of teacher education programmes; and the role of the MoE regarding teacher education development.

Quotations from all interviewees were coded using letters and numbers as follows: S for students followed by one or two letters which indicate the faculty and a number in the sequence of interviews. The same is applicable to academic staff, whose code is designated as AS, to which was added the initial of the faculty, where for heads of departments the code HD was used, to which was added the initial of the faculty and the number of order in the interview sequence. For the two school principals interviewed, the code used was SP, with a number. One official from the National Directorate of Teacher Education was coded ND, along with a number.

#### **4.4 Data analysis**

The data analysis was based on the following assumptions underpinning the use of a general inductive approach expounded by Creswell (2002): (i) data analysis is determined by both the research objectives (deductive) and multiple readings and interpretations of the raw data (inductive). Thus the findings are derived from both the research objectives outlined by the researcher and findings arising directly from the analysis of the raw data; (ii) the primary mode of analysis is the development of categories from the raw data into a model or framework that captures key themes and processes judged to be important by the researcher; (iii) the research findings result from multiple interpretations made from the raw data by the researcher who coded the data. Inevitably the findings are shaped by the assumptions and experiences of the researcher conducting the research and carrying out the data analysis. In order for the findings to be usable, the researcher (data analyst) must make decisions about what is more important and less important in the data; (iv) different researchers are unlikely to produce different findings and components which do not overlap; (v) the trustworthiness of findings can be assessed by a range of techniques such as: (a) independent replication of the research; (b) comparisons with findings from previous researches; (c) triangulation within a project; (d) feedback from participants in the research; (e) feedback from users of the research findings.

The information collected was analysed through thematic content analysis, which is considered appropriate for qualitative research (Doovan-Hall, 2004). It is a common qualitative technique involving the identification of recurrent themes. Thus, the preliminary processing of the material

included identification and characterisation of emerging themes (or categories) developed by studying the transcripts. It was an interactive process, which started with an initial categorisation of data, in terms of what was said and located at the literal level. The first round of analysis was focused on the questions and responses across the interviews. An attempt was made to understand what was common across the responses and what was different. The first analysis also focused on the perceptions of different interviewees, without making any inference about what they might mean. The second round of analysis was an attempt to categorise the findings into various themes. Several rounds of categorisation and re-categorisation occurred in order to emerge with a few key themes. Themes were changed and added as the analysis proceeded. At this point, I managed to create narratives around each of the key themes, which informed the chapters. For example, narratives were created pertaining to themes on teacher education legacy; background of students and academic staff; the process of recruitment and selection of students for teacher education programmes; strategies within a context of change marked by a neoliberal agenda; and perceptions regarding new paths and new challenges

#### **4.5 Ensuring validity and reliability**

This section looks at the principles of validity and reliability. According to Neuman (2003, p. 184) most qualitative researchers accept the principles of reliability and validity, but use the terms infrequently because of their close association with quantitative measurement. He goes on to say that reliability means dependability or consistency and that a "qualitative researcher wants to be consistent (i.e. not vacillating and erratic) in how over time, they make observations, similar to the idea of stability reliability" (p.184).

The judgement that qualitative analysis is trustworthy is based fundamentally on the rigour of the process for collecting, coding, analysing and presenting data. For Neuman (ibid, p. 185) validity means "truthful. It refers to the bridge between a construct and the data." For him, "qualitative researchers are more interested in authenticity than validity". Thus, authenticity means giving a fair, honest and balanced account of social life from the viewpoint of someone who lives it every day.

The validity of the study is ensured by providing thick description for the case study. I have also applied a methodological triangulation. As Neuman (2003, p. 137) emphasises, "surveyors and

sailors measure distances between objects by making observations from multiple positions. This process is called triangulation and applied to social research, it means it is better to look at something from several angles than to look at it in only one way. Patton (as cited in Yin, 2007, p, 116) discusses four types of triangulation in doing evaluations of the triangulation: (i) of data source (data triangulation); (ii) among different evaluators (investigator triangulation); (iii) of perspectives to the same data set (theory triangulation); and (iv) of methods (methodological triangulation. Yin (ibid, pp.116-117) underlines that,

with data triangulation, the potential problems of construct validity also can be addressed because the multiple sources of evidence essentially provide multiple measures of the same phenomenon. Not surprisingly, one analysis of case study methods found that those case studies using multiple sources of evidence were rated highly, in terms of their overall quality, than those that relied on only single sources of information.

By using multiple methods to approach the case study of the Pedagogic University, namely interviews, analysis of documents, and observation, this study tried to assure validity. As Yin (2007, p. 114) put it, a major strength of case study data collection is the opportunity to use different sources of evidence. I have also applied data triangulation by using a variety of data sources. I interviewed people with different statuses and positions and with different points of view, namely heads of departments, academic staff from different faculties and schools, students from five different faculties and two schools; school principals and officers from the MoE. I have already indicated the use of multiple sources of evidence and, in addition, I followed the case-study protocol and offered participants an opportunity to review the report.

In terms of reliability the major goal is to ensure that the process is transparent and rigorous. This was achieved through ensuring that a case study protocol was followed and by ensuring that all actions were documented in detail. Regarding data analysis I utilised an independent transcriber to ensure that the raw data was not manipulated. This approach ensured a sequence of evidence between data collected and findings (Cohen and Manion as cited in Adam, 2009, p.64), which is important for ensuring the trustworthiness of the research (Yin, as cited in Adam, 2009, p. 64).

Having discussed issues regarding validity and reliability, in the next section I present the ethical procedures followed by this research.

## **4.6 Ethics procedures**

In this section I present how ethical procedures were taken into account within the process of development of this research. As Mouton (2005, p. 238) aptly put it,

The ethics of science concerns what is wrong and what is right in the conduct of research. Because scientific research is a form of human conduct, it follows that such conduct has to conform to generally accepted norms and values. As in any sphere of human life, certain kinds of conduct are morally acceptable, whereas others are not.

This means that ethical considerations are critical in ensuring the protection of communities under study. That is why they are a mandatory component of research studies at the University of the Witwatersrand. Thus, I applied to the Ethics Committee, which gave me permission through the Protocol number: 2011ECE139C, to conduct my research. I conducted the study in line with the requirements set out by the university's Ethics Committee. Therefore I went through a process that included: requesting and obtaining permission to study the site and access institutional documents; requesting and obtaining signed permission from interviewees to conduct interviews; obtaining signed permission to record interviews; ensuring that participants' identity is not revealed if requested; and providing participants with sufficient information to ensure that they are fully aware of the reasons for the study, as well as of their right to withdraw from the study at any stage during the interview. In Mozambique, I was required in a parallel process to apply for permission to do research within the institutions under the umbrella of the MoE. The data collected are confidential to the project and have been securely stored. Apart from myself, the only other people who had access to the data were the transcribers and I ensured that electronic copies of the data were erased from the machines on which they worked.

## **4.7 Conclusion**

Throughout the development of this inquiry, I became aware that doing research is a very complex process, more conceptual than technical. It is not a linear, but in a permanent state of adjustment, drawing conclusions which are always provisional.

In spite of the existence of different textbooks where one can acquire knowledge of various research procedures, doing research is a more practical process, but informed by theories. It is a process demanding construction and deconstruction, adjustment and readjustment from beginning to end. It is also about making decisions regarding what paradigms to be followed,

what methods, strategies, and instruments are most suitable to the research question, and which point of departure to choose for the entire journey. The options always leave room for debate, which is beneficial, taking into account that there are different ways of addressing a problem. What remains important is that each research has the intention of making a small contribution to the field irrespective of the methodology in which it is rooted.

The next chapter addresses the economic and political context and the implications of the several changes with regard the development of teacher education in Mozambique and particularly the role of the Pedagogic University in preparing teachers for the National System, which have been expanding thanks to policies of massification of education.

## **CHAPTER 5: UNDERSTANDING THE SOCIOECONOMIC AND POLITICAL CONTEXT FOR ITS IMPLICATIONS ON TEACHER EDUCATION IN MOZAMBIQUE**

### **5.1 Introduction**

A policy change is normally a response to a problem or a set of problems in the education sector, and must start with an appreciation of the educational sector and its contexts (Haddad, 1995). The analysis of the broader political environment is necessary for an understanding of the national decision-making process, and the role that education must play in the socio-political process. The institutional structure of the political sector has implications for educational development (ibid.). The World Bank (2003) also points out that the characteristics of an educational system and the development of education are determined largely by macroeconomic and demographic conditions, and by the capacity of the larger socioeconomic system to absorb the existing and increasing resources and to use them efficiently. It goes on to add that:

Other important aspects relate to social, cultural, and religious context within which the system operates. Although these constraints and conditions set the framework under which an education system can develop, the level of education, in turn, is determinant of economic development and depending on the choices made, has an impact on poverty alleviation in the country (p. 12).

Further to this, I found a framework developed by Sabatier (1988, p.131) to be meaningful to understand the process of policy change. It has at least three basic premises: (i) that understanding the process of policy changes and the role of policy-oriented learning therein require a time perspective of a decade or more; (ii) that the most useful way to think about policy change over such a timespan is through a focus on policy subsystems, namely the interaction of actors from different institutions interested in policy area; (iii) that public policies (or programmes) can be conceptualised in the same manner as can belief systems, i.e. as a set of value priorities and causal assumptions about how to realise them. The framework distinguishes between relatively stable (over several decades) parameters, as well as those aspects of the subsystem that are susceptible to significant fluctuations over the course of a few years, and thus serve as major stimuli to policy change (ibid, p. 134).

Furthermore, policy-making in any political system or policy subsystem is constrained by a variety of social, legal, and resource features of the society of which it is a part (Heclo et al., as cited in Sabatier, 1988, p. 134).

This chapter aims to characterise the socioeconomic and political background of Mozambique, in order to understand how it has come to influence the development of the education system in general, and the preparation of teachers in particular. I presume that the emergence and development of the National Education System were influenced by the context described throughout this chapter. Teacher education constitutes one of the most important pillars of the schooling system described in this chapter. The demanding for teachers, both in quantity and in quality, is likely to be informed by the context of expansion of the whole system of education from primary to tertiary subsystems.

The chapter explores the question of what socioeconomic and political conditions have underpinned the development of the National Education System and informed teacher education programmes in Mozambique.

The major assumption is that the type of teacher education programme is a reflection of many factors embedded in the education system. These factors range from socioeconomic to political, and include cultural and historical aspects.

The chapter is organised into sections dealing with basic socioeconomic and political information and the roots of the National Education System and its organisation. It presents the current landscape of the different subsystems of education, bearing in mind that in order to develop smoothly, all of them need a sound system of teacher education, from primary schools to university.

For methodological reasons, the policies and strategies related to teacher education development programmes are presented separately in Chapter 6.

The next section presents the characteristic of the country.



## 5.2 An overview of the country

This section looks at a brief characterisation of the country with reference to its location, population and socioeconomic factors.

Mozambique is located along the eastern coast of Southern Africa. Its territory covers 799 380 km<sup>2</sup> in area (of which 786 380 km<sup>2</sup> is land and 13 000 km<sup>2</sup> is inland water) and its border extends for 4 330 km. Mozambique's location on the eastern flank of Southern Africa gives it a position of unique importance as one of Africa's *outlet* countries. It is the most strategically placed because of the length of its coastline, the quality and size of its harbours, and the number of countries whose trade routes to the sea it controls (Arnold, 2005, p. 462).

According to the 2007 population census, Mozambique has a population of 20 530 714 people (INE, 2007). Administratively, Mozambique has 11 provinces (including the capital city-Maputo, which has the status of a province), 151 districts and 43 municipalities, all with huge socio-cultural, linguistic and geographic diversity. There are 18 national languages and many more dialects. Approximately 70% of the population lives in rural areas. About 5.3% of the population lives in the capital of the country, Maputo. Almost 40% of the population lives in the two most populous provinces, Nampula and Zambézia. According to Census 2007, more than half of the population (51.8%) is female (INE, 2007). The annual population growth is 2.6%.

The economy has recently been growing at an approximate rate of 7% a year (GDP). The inflation rate is about 10%, and state spending represents about 30% of GDP. The expenditure financed by external funds through donations and credit accounts for 45% of the National Budget. Despite the economic growth witnessed since the end of the civil war, 54% of the population still lives below the poverty line (MINED, 2012). More than half of the population (52%) is in the 0-18 age group, and 20% in the 6-12 age group (ibid.). This shows that the country still faces a huge challenge in expanding its education system in order to accommodate out of school people.

By 1975, the year of independence, about 93% of the 10 million inhabitants in the territory did not have access to the 'modern school'. This is one of the indicators reflecting the low level of 'modernisation' allowed by the colonial regime, and aggravated by the 'undeveloped stage of the Portuguese colonial ruler, whose development was based in the exploitation of the cheap

working force, which as a consequence, did not require the expansion of schools in the colonial territories (UNDP, 2000, p.31). Since its independence in 1975, after centuries of colonisation, the country underwent a series of rapid changes, which are briefly described in the following sections.

### **5.3 The real versus the ideal society (1975-1990)**

This section examines the socio-political and ideological pathways followed by FRELIMO in the first years of independence, and its transformation into a so-called party of vanguard. I argue that although the intention of the ruling party was to build a new society based on socialist principles, what occurred in practice was the inadequacy of most of those principles, with several cultural aspects embedded in Mozambican society under influence of the colonial system, which produced new elites; some of them through the process of assimilation as well as the resistance of the traditional authorities against some ideological aspects.

In the course of their quest for independence, the Mozambican leadership developed a vision of a new society, which would free them not only from colonial oppression, but from other forms of economic, racial and sexual domination as well. The experience of armed struggle convinced them that the fight for freedom did not mean merely changing the skin colour of those in power (Barnes, 1982, p. 407).

The independence of the country was achieved in 1975. Immediately after the declaration of independence, the country embarked on a several political reforms. The new government chose Marxism-Leninism as the way of initial development. During the first years of independence, mainly after the III Congress in 1977, Frelimo tried to move towards the rule of a vanguard party. This meant (i) creating a much leaner organisation than had existed before, excluding large numbers of old-time FRELIMO sympathisers, and moving towards a system where policy choices were dictated by ideology; and (ii) dismantling the participatory forms of political organisation which were part of the FRELIMO tradition (Ottaway, 1988, p. 217).

Economically, Frelimo tried to create a centralised, planned economy. The socialist sector was undoubtedly centralised, although it is questionable as to what extent it was successfully planned, due to two major reasons: (i) Frelimo was not strong enough to capture the population politically, for example through a process of forced collectivisation; and (ii) the government was

too bankrupt economically to launch a successful development process, expanding state farms and industrial enterprises, thus absorbing more of the population into the socialist sector (ibid. p. 217).

For many reasons, some doubts still remain among scholars in relation to what model of society had been developed during that period. In this regard, Taimo (2010, p. 113) argues that despite the constant use of terminology such as 'colonial bourgeoisie', 'peasants and workers alliance', 'class struggle', 'Marxism-Leninism', it is not possible to state categorically that Mozambique or Frelimo had been Marxist-Leninists, or Socialists. He goes on to say that in some way, many actions of Frelimo as a party can lead us to understand that socialism had been built.

Known as the First Republic (1975-1990), this period was not linear in terms of its development. Although it had a theoretically revolutionary character, in fact, the country also went through conservative economic reforms such as the Structural Adjustment Programmes (SAP). In Africa, Senegal became the first African state to obtain a structural adjustment loan from the World Bank, in 1979, and one by one, others followed (Meredith, 2006, p. 369).

Meredith (ibid.), also underlines that 'among the measures stipulated in return for their assistance, the IMF/World Bank required governments to: devalue currencies; remove subsidies; reduce tariff barriers; raise agricultural commodity prices; cut back bloated bureaucracies; sell or close state enterprises; deregulate prices; reduce budget deficits and public borrowing; and lift restrictions on foreign investments' (p.370). I explain the implications for this later on in this research.

Mozambique joined the World Bank and the International Monetary Fund in late 1984 (Ottaway, 1988). The reason for joining the IMF was due to economic crisis. The crisis was manifested in several ways, for instance: (i) the inability of the national economy to address the needs of the internal market; and (ii) the inability of the State to accomplish its international obligations. Three years later, in 1987, the SAP was introduced. First priority was given to the economic sector, targeting the recovery of the productivity. The context in which Mozambique decided to join the Bretton Woods system was highly complex, and strongly dominated by the context of its civil war, which was responsible for the large-scale destruction of infrastructure, as well as the overwhelming loss of human life. About one million people were killed (Tompson, 1995),

thousands were displaced, and about five million were forced to move abroad where the majority stayed in refugees camps (ibid.).

Regarding the education sector, the programme targeted the development of human resources for economic growth, and the improvement of the quality of education. Furthermore, it privileged the improvement of secondary education and higher education and selective expansion of primary education. According to the agenda of the SAP the social services, including education, were at secondary level of importance. For instance, the education budget declined from about 12% in 1980 to 4% of the national budget in 1987, which created a financial crisis in education (MINED, 1990, p. 2). Salaries declined in real terms and with this, the motivation of teachers. In other words, the structural adjustment programme did not include an adequate policy for the education sector.

In spite of the economic reforms introduced by the SAP, there was rapid movement towards an open market, where the political situation at that time did not change significantly. In that regard, Ottaway (1988) points out:

These reforms have been adopted without any modification in the political system or change of personnel. There are no new faces in the party. Even Samora Machel's death in October 1986 served to underline the continuity in the leadership of Frelimo, rather than marking a turning point. He was replaced as President by Joaquim Alberto Chissano, the Foreigner Minister and a member of the inner circle, in a very orderly and apparently undisputed transition. The political bureau is still composed of the same mixture of moderate and hard-line Marxists, who were responsible for the socialist policies of the first post-independence period. There have been no purges, and no changes of ideology either, with Frelimo still committed to socialism, at least in theory. For all the political continuity, however, Frelimo seems genuinely committed to following the path of economic reform (pp. 212-213).

What was in fact taking place was that economic transformations were moving more rapidly than political changes, which occurred later on in the 1990s.

It can be concluded that economic liberalism chronologically anticipated political liberalism, which commenced with the adoption of a new constitution in 1990. This is a clear example of a case in which economic and political liberalism do not always come together. In sum, until 1990, Mozambique was officially a socialist, one-party state. By the end of the 1980s, Frelimo realised that the socialist model had failed. It abandoned its Marxist-Leninist vision, and adopted a more

liberal-economic approach of governance. The government began to introduce economic and political reforms aimed at transforming Mozambique into a more pluralistic society. In November 1990, this culminated in the enactment of a new constitution, which created a multiparty democracy. The following section briefly presents some aspects regarding political developments thereafter.

#### **5.4 Transformations under political liberalism (1990–2010)**

This section deals briefly with the transformations in the country under the influence of the civil war and the international changes that happened in those countries part of what used to be called Socialist Block.

The constitution of 1990 opened the path to political liberalism in the country, but it did not signify the end of the civil war. Only in 1992, after two years of negotiation, was a peace agreement signed in Rome. Then, in 1994, the first multiparty elections took place. Regularly the electorate was called to cast its vote for local and general elections. In spite of this, it did not mean that the democracy was already consolidated. For different reasons, the exercise of citizenship is still weak.

In order to accommodate the new reality, the two major parties, Frelimo and Renamo, embarked on negotiations within the parliament, which culminated in the adoption of a new constitution. Therefore, in 2004 the new Constitution was introduced. The revision of the Constitution was subsequently announced in 2011, then a Commission of Constitution Revision was created by the Parliament without producing any significant results.

The process of democratisation of the country is therefore still young, and brings several challenges. What has been perceived by different actors is that until now, democratic process is limited to electoral voting, rather than forming part of the everyday lives of citizens in the country. The lack of the exercise of democratic citizenship can be seen to be a result of the significant role played by political parties, which to some extent may contribute to weakening civil society. Therefore, as a relatively young democracy, Mozambique faces the challenge of strengthening pluralism to ensure a dynamic exchange of ideas, providing policy options for consideration and debate, and implementing checks and balances to prevent the abuse of power.

The new context propitiated the development of a new paradigm of education, based in neoliberal values, as encapsulated in the new Constitution, adopted in 1990. In that period, the education sector witnessed several transformations in terms of the design and implementation of novel policies and strategies aiming to conform to political reform. The following section discusses the process of the emergence and development of the National Education System in Mozambique.

## **5.5 Building a new education system: the roots and implications for teacher education development**

This section looks at the roots of the National Education System in late 1970s and early 1980s.

Since the independence of the country in 1975, according to MINED (2012), Mozambique has witnessed three distinct periods of evolution as far as the education system is concerned. The first was developed between 1974/5 and 1979, and is characterised by a huge expansion of the schooling network and learner enrolment as a result of post-independence nationalisation. The second took place between 1980 and 1992, during the period of the armed conflict, in which there was significant reduction of the school network and in the number of learners. The third period began in 1992 right after the signing of the peace agreement, until the present day. The period is characterised by an expansion of the school network, first at primary education level, and thereafter, at secondary education level.

The process of introduction and development of any educational system is strongly related to values to be produced and reproduced within a specific society. As Bourdieu and Passeron (1990, p. 54) have pointed out, every institutionalised [sic] educational system owes the specific characteristics of its structure and functioning to the fact that, by the means proper to the institution, it has to produce and reproduce the institutional conditions whose existence and persistence (self-reproduction of the system) are necessary both to the exercise of its essential function of inculcation and to fulfilment of its function of reproducing a cultural arbitrary which it does not produce (cultural reproduction), the reproduction of which contributes to the reproduction of the relations between groups or classes (social reproduction).

The first step towards the design and implementation of a Mozambican system of education which could reflect the new reality brought in by the movement of liberation took place in Beira.

A meeting took place between the end of December 1974 and the beginning of January 1975, under the Transitional Government. The seminar brought primary and secondary teachers and university staff from all parts of the country into contact with FRELIMO cadres for the first time, for ten days of discussion (Barnes, 1982; Cross, 1993; Mazula, 1995; Cross 2011).

The main objective of that meeting was to discuss the future of education in the country, to make curricular changes, to find mechanisms for the implementation of FRELIMO's ideas constructed during the war against Portuguese colonialism, as well as to analyse the syllabus of the various subjects, in order to remove the contents considered to be contrary to the new ideology (Mazula, 1995, Johnston, 1984). As Cross (1993, 2011) has aptly put it, the Beira Seminar was an opportunity to question the values, bias and stereotypes entrenched in the curriculum and to some extent, the minds of all those in the education field. At the meeting it was decided to remove Morality and Religion as a school subject at all levels and types of schooling.<sup>16</sup> At the same time, a subject called Political Education was introduced.<sup>17</sup> In terms of curricular changes, subjects such as History of Mozambique and Geography of Mozambique were introduced, replacing the History and Geography of Portugal, while subjects dealing with cultural activities as well as practical activities were also introduced.<sup>18</sup> The issue regarding the practical activities is well elaborated by Barnes (1982). She points out that,

since independence, physical labor has been part of the school experience and has had three goals: (1) to give students the necessary training and skills to be productive workers, (2) to raise students' consciousness concerning the production process in general and the importance of work in a developing economy, and (3) to contribute to the maintenance of the school. During the school vacations as well as during the term, students are organised [sic] to work in factories or government agencies or to do other types of community service. Students are not paid for their labor [sic]. These projects are seen as educational experiences that will ensure that, as they move up the school ladder, students do not choose a life apart from their community and the rest of the society (p.418).

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<sup>16</sup> Decree-law 38/75.

<sup>17</sup> Decree-law 39/75.

<sup>18</sup> That subject matter was concerned to the link between theory and practice.

The changes that were to be introduced reflected the new ideological principles of Frelimo as I said, developed even during the struggle against colonialism. For instance the removal of the subject called Morality and Religion, which had a relative importance within the colonial context intended to show the rupture with the Catholic Church, which had an important role in promoting the Portuguese colonialism. The History and Geography taught during the colonial were more related to Portugal. The learners were taught little about Mozambique and Africa. Therefore according to the new reality, it was necessary to reverse the situation.

In order to implement the changes approved by the Beira summit, the Ministry of Education and Culture created two commissions. One was in charge of reviewing the syllabi and producing new teaching material for educators and learners. Another was responsible for curricular development and teacher training programmes.

Besides the introduction of new curricula, one month after independence on July 24, 1975, education health services and land were nationalised according to the new constitution of the republic. According to the government of the day, it was necessary to return all these goods into the hands of Mozambican. The objective of the ruling party was to address and redress issues of poverty and inequality imposed within the context of the development of the Portuguese colonialism.

Two distinct yet related paths were followed simultaneously. First, it was decided to build on the educational practices developed in the liberated areas during the war; on new organisational forms, teacher and student roles and curricula; on the participation of school production; and on the link between the school and its surrounding community. Secondly, emphasis was placed on dismantling the education system inherited from colonial society (Barnes, 1982). The intention for this was to sort out the problem of racial and social discrimination developed under colonial rule. It seemed that the independence of the country constituted a good opportunity for adoption of new education policies.

Based on the ideology of Marx and Lenin and guided by socialist principles and values, the education system was expected to precipitate some sort of 'Cultural Revolution', which would alter the mentality of the people in order to eradicate negative traditional cultural practices, such as superstition, fetishism, obscurantism and magic (Cross, 1993).



I concur with Cross (ibid.) where he argues that what was unique in this experience was the challenge made to negative forms of traditional culture. He maintains that “this was based on the assumptions that, in traditional societies, given the low level of knowledge that characterises them, superstition and similar practices take the place of science and block any scientific analysis of the material and social milieu in the favour of the supernatural” (p. 77). He goes on to say that “for FRELIMO, traditional education creates passivity and takes for granted respect towards inherited ideas; it encourages the belief in the infallibility of the elders; it also tries to justify historically women’s submission to men and other sexist values” (p. 77). All those ideas had serious implications when it came to the relationship between the new authorities, which ultimately tried to impose a so-called modern society, and the traditional leaders, who in practice, represented the precise structures of society to be dismantled. As the majority of the population (more than 80%) lived in rural areas, it is easy to imagine how great the threat of conflict would have been.

It was in this context that emerged what is considered one of the major innovations in Mozambican education, the National Education System, which, approved in 1982, began to be implemented in 1983 by one grade per year. Its main objectives and principles included: educating the “New Man” for the tasks of socialist development; eradicating illiteracy; introducing a system of free and compulsory education; training highly qualified specialists for national economic and social development; disseminating through schooling the use of Portuguese language in order to consolidate national unity; developing a sense of aesthetics, art and appreciation of beauty among the youth; and turning learning institutions into bases of consolidation of people’s power (RPM, 1985, p. 7). Cabaço (2010), states that the model utilised for creation of the “New Man” projected by FRELIMO during the war of liberation repudiated the “colonial” and the “traditional” (p. 284). After independence, the construction of “New Man” marked a cornerstone of the revolutionary process, led by FRELIMO. Therefore, Education was aiming to create the “New Man”, living in a society that served the interests of the peasants and working class with a Mozambican identity and a scientific, materialistic and dialectical outlook (Kouwenhoven, 2003).

During the Third Congress of FRELIMO, in February 1977, policies for development and for transition were debated and outlined. As far as ðNew Manö is concerned, a document called the *Programa e Estatutos* (FRELIMO,1977) from that Congress states that:

The triumph of the revolution depends fundamentally on the creation of the ðNew Manö, and the creation and development of a new mentality. Within this context, the Party gives special attention to education and culture, for it is within these two areas that the formation of the ðNew Manö, free from unscientific and superstitious beliefs and with the capacity to critically assimilate political, scientific, technical and cultural learningø, will take place (p. 21).

Although there were dogmatic principles established during that period, the question of what the concept of the “New Man” might be was subject to a degree of debate. According to Barnes (1982), a widely circulated paper entitled *The “New Man” Is a Process* from the National Education Conference in 1977, cautions against thinking that the ðNew Manö and womanö can be created didactically, merely by repeating new slogans. In line with that perspective, it was a question of changing the mentality, or better yet, acquiring a new mentality, which meant to ðlearn new habits, to have a new relationship between people [í ]ö (Vieira, as cited in Barnes, 1982). In my understanding, the “New Man” was an ideal man, projected in a utopian context.

After the drafting of the 1990 Constitution, education was characterised by an attempt to develop a curriculum for national reconciliation or national unity for building a Mozambican nation, as opposed to a curriculum for socialist transformation (Cross, 1993, 2011). Besides that, there were also challenges to reconceptualise the ðNew Manö.

The introduction of the National System of Education marked the beginning of a more systematic reformulation of the syllabi. This task was attributed to INDE (Cross, 1993; Kouwenhoven, 2003; Gómez, 2000). In 1992, in accordance with the transformation that had taken place since the introduction of a new Constitution in 1990; the law concerning the National Education System was adjusted. In sum, the National System of Education was introduced in 1983 in the basis of Law 4/83 of 23rd of May, integrated in a framework of social, political and economic changes initiated in 1975. Following the social and economic changes in the country, in 1992, the National System of Education was adjusted according to Law 6/92 of the 6th of May, which is still in place. The National System of Education is based upon the following general principles:

Education is the right and duty of all citizens;

The State, in the framework of the law, allows for the participation of other entities, including communitarian and cooperative entities, and the private enterprises in the process of education; and

The public education is laic.

The National System of Education comprises five-subsystems (which are presented and discussed below), namely: General Education, Adult Education, Technical/Vocational Education, Teacher Training and Higher Education. It is organised into three levels, namely: primary, secondary and higher education. The general objectives of the National System of Education aim to eradicate illiteracy and provide access to knowledge. It is structured into different subsystems.

Therefore, apart from preschool education, which is offered in nurseries and kindergartens for children under the age of six, the system is developed as it is explained below. Whether or not the objectives of the National Education System have been accomplished, is described in the following sub-sections.

#### **5.5.1 Primary education: looking for new approaches and qualified teachers to address expansion and quality**

This section examines primary education as one of the subsystems of education whose expansion needs to be addressed by a large number of qualified teachers, within a context of scarcity of financial resources and an absence of a clear strategy regarding the development of teacher education programmes in the country.

In Mozambique, primary education is compulsory. This subsystem is subdivided into two levels, namely, the lower primary level, which consists of five years of schooling, (Grades 1 to 5) and upper primary, which comprises two years (Grades 6 and 7). The official age of entry into school is six years. Usually, primary schools operate in two shifts. However, because of the shortage of school places at this level, some primary schools operate three shifts. After seven years of primary education, the pupils have a choice of enrolling for general secondary education, lower primary teacher training colleges, basic technical and vocational schools, or secondary education

for adults. According to the National Education Policy (1995), Primary Education has the following general policy:

Education is a key instrument in promoting growth and social development and in promoting the well-being of individuals has its foundations firmly entrenched in primary education. In Mozambique today, primary education is that form of basic education which the government endeavours to endow to all citizens, as laid out in the Constitution of the Republic, and the world declaration undersigned by Mozambique.

Primary education is the backbone of the education system. It derives this role from the process of socialisation of children, in transmitting essential knowledge, such as reading, writing and arithmetic, and in transmitting experiences and values which are commonly accepted by our society. Primary education is therefore crucial to the further development of the children.

The objectives defined by the same document for primary education are presented as follows, to:

- provide a basic education in areas of communication, Mathematics, natural and social sciences and physical, aesthetic and cultural education;
- encourage the child to observe and think, and to develop an increasing sense of autonomy;
- prepare the child to develop values and attitudes which are relevant to the society in which it live;
- assist the child in fully developing its potential; and
- develop knowledge about health and nutrition and protection of the environment.

For many years, basic education has been facing many problems related to efficiency. In relation to that, Mozambique shares the same problems and challenges as the other countries in Africa. Nsamenang (as cited in Nsamenang and Tchombe, 2011, p. 10) states that the newly universal conviction from the advent of formal education in Africa was that it would provide a good life and that it would develop society. Paradoxically, the African school, the social institution officially mandated to deliver relevant education, has been responsible for Africa's inability to

ensure a good life, to renew and strengthen its own culture, and worse yet, to generate and share its culture's knowledge and know how.

In that regard, Nsamenang and Tchombe (ibid.) argue that "the problem of educational relevance persists today in Africa [í ] we can see evidence that African education does not prepare graduates satisfactorily for productive personal life and the world of work in public services and the private sector" (p. 10).

In the same way, the Strategic Plan for Education I (MINED,1998) recognises the problems of internal efficiency as follows: the internal efficiency of the educational system is very low. In EP1 (Lower Primary) the rates of repetition and drop-out average 25% and 15%, respectively, at each grade level. As a result, barely 25% of students who enter the first grade successfully complete the five grades of EP1. Transition rates to EP2 (upper primary) are also low (p. 15)

With regard to the structure and content of the curriculum in primary schools before the reform the same Strategic Plan I goes on to say that "much of what it is taught in primary schools is of doubtful relevance or practical utility, despite the fact that the vast majority of students end their schooling at this level". This shows that much needed to be done in order to revert the situation. Therefore taking into account this dramatic situation, the Ministry of Education and Culture (MEC) decided to introduce a new curriculum for Basic Education in 2004. The main challenge of the new curriculum is:

To make education more relevant, in order to prepare citizens capable of contributing to improving their personal life and the circumstances of their family, the community and the country, within the spirit of the preservation of the national unity, maintenance of peace and national stability, deepening of democracy and respect for human rights, as well as the preservation of Mozambican Culture (INDE, 2004, p. 7).

The major innovations of the new curriculum entail:

- the creating of learning cycles: Grades 1-2; Grades 2-5 and Grades 6-7 corresponding to first, second and third cycles, respectively;
- the advent of integrated subjects;
- bilingual education in Mozambican languages;

- semi-automatic promotion, where pupils receive automatic promotion within each grade cycle and the promotion between cycles is based on school exams, where in practice, there is no exam to enter Grade 3;
- new subjects (English, musical education, moral and civic education);
- subject matters teachers in the third cycle;
- learner-centred approach; and
- options of developing up to 20% of the curriculum at the sub-national level (province or district).

Despite the importance of all the above innovations, I consider the introduction of a bilingual education as one of the most important, which has contributed to correcting a mistake made in the past, one responsible for increasing the rates of drop-out and repetition within this subsystem of education. Right after independence and for ideological reasons, the issue of national unity was always present. Thus, the Frelimo government declared Portuguese as the official language of the country. In contrast, no official status was granted to African languages (Chimbutane, 2011). A first analysis of curricular changes in primary education carried out by INDE between 1983 and 1986 observed that many of the problems in 1979/80 ó particularly those related to the teaching of Portuguese ó had not been resolved yet, and that the methodology of Portuguese Language teaching as a second language did not promote the learning of children, in whose social environment no Portuguese was used (INDE as quoted in Mário, Gómez, Kouwenhoven, Alberto, & Waddington, 2001). In the same vein, Barnes (1982) argues:

The consequences of the decision to use Portuguese have been significant. Portuguese creates special learning problems at the primary level and for adult literacy. At independence, fewer than 20% of people spoke any Portuguese at all. Progress at school has been slowed down by the fact that Portuguese is the medium of instruction at all levels above the equivalent of kindergarten, and most children begin to learn Portuguese as soon as they enter school (p. 412).

Chimbutane (2011) also states that since 2003, there have been in place at primary level in Mozambique both a monolingual Portuguese programme and a bilingual programme. So far, the bilingual programme has only been gradually introduced into selected rural schools. The trend is that the number of schools with bilingual programme has been increasing. The introduction of bilingual programmes seems to be an effort in addressing issues related to inclusion and

relevance as well as the process of learning itself. The mother tongue of most of the primary school learners, mainly in rural areas, is not Portuguese

In order to address the cause of low enrolment at this level of education, the government also enacted other reforms, namely reduction in direct costs for households and provision of free textbooks. Thus, national tuition and other fees were abolished and textbooks were provided free of charge to schools, increasing funding at the school level. Schools received additional funds channelled through the Direct Support to Schools (ADE), which provides funds on a capitation basis to primary schools for non-salary expenses (Fox et al., 2012).

A study conducted by Fox et al. (ibid.), shows that:

- primary school reforms were accompanied by a surge in enrolment at the lower (Grade 1-5) and upper primary levels (Grade 6-7);
- despite spectacular growth in the past decade, efficiency rates remain low and many children who ought to be in school are not;
- most children who enter lower primary do not complete this level when they should;
- the transition to upper primary remains an elusive goal for most Mozambican children;
- it is likely that significant demand-side barriers remain in upper primary; and
- other reasons, in addition to financial ones, also impede children from starting school on time and successfully finishing the lower and upper primary levels.

In practical terms, the reforms introduced in 2004 contribute considerably to increasing the number of learners accessing primary school so that “formal access”, in Morrow’s terms, is guaranteed. The major concern is that of “epistemological access”. According to Morrow (2007), access to education has two dimensions:

One is access to the institution, the other is access within the institution to the goods that it distributes. The former is a matter of institutional policy or the issue of how many students the institution formally admits. For convenience we might call this “formal access”. The latter is the issue of how the institution provides access to the goods it distributes to those it formally admits. Since the main goods distributed by the educational institution, especially higher education institutions, is knowledge, we might conveniently call the latter “epistemological access” (pp. 38-39).

Morrow (2007, p. 77), points out that “it is obvious that mere formal access to the institutions that distribute knowledge is different from, and not a sufficient condition for, epistemological

accessö. In other words, to enrol as a learner at school is not yet to have gained access to knowledge. Thousands of learners are concluding primary school without knowing how to read and write. The general perception is that these problems have been transferred to the next levels of the education system, namely secondary education and eventually the tertiary (based on my experience as a lecturer, it is not rare to find students at this level with many difficulties regarding writing and reading). I strongly agree with Postlethwaite (2004) where he argues that öenrolling large numbers of children in schools is, however, not the objective. The objective is to make sure that children learn to a sufficient level to perform well as future citizens in societyö (p. 7).

Apart from the problems that still undermine basic education, it can be observed that at this level of education, there has been an increase in the number of learners who complete their studies, requiring space for them at secondary education level. The number of learners enrolled at primary education increased from 3,6 million in 2004 to 4,6 million in 2007 and 5,7 million in 2011 (MINED, 2012). The enrolment rate for children between six and 12 years, which was 88% in 2007, was about 93% in 2011. The completion rate<sup>19</sup> in Grade 7 increased from 34% to 49% during the same period of time (ibid.). Thus, there has been pressure on general secondary schools in accommodating all the potential learners.

Above all, the major focus is the need to address quality of education. For this reason, it is necessary to provide preparation for teachers with programmes that can enable them to address this new challenge for basic education in order to make it relevant, and provide learners with the necessary instruments for development.

The next sub-section examines general secondary education in terms of objectives, and the process of development, under the pressure of a growing level of primary education across the country.

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<sup>19</sup> This is the percentage of children that have completed by age group. The gross completion rate is given by the total number of learners completing the final year of EP1 or EP2, regardless of age, expressed as a percentage of the population of the official graduation age. The official graduation age for EP1 is 11 and for EP2 is 13.



### **5.5.2 General secondary education: expansion under pressure, using unqualified teachers**

This level of education has seen a large increase in the number of schools and learners due to the development of basic education, which has been a priority for the government. For that reason, as stated above, thousands of learners have been concluding the primary level of education and looking to enter the subsequent level. The increase of the demand leads to a huge pressure on infrastructure, particularly on teachers, who need to be prepared and whose qualifications require upgrading.

General secondary education is divided into two cycles. The first cycle, junior secondary, consists of three years (Grade 8 to Grade 10). The second cycle, senior secondary school or high school, also known as pre-university, comprises two years (Grade 11 and Grade 12). After Grade 12, learners can enrol for higher education institutions.

The policy of general secondary education presented in national education policy (1995) is as follows:

General secondary education aims at furthering and consolidating the knowledge acquired at primary level, in order to prepare students to participate in higher education, or in productive activities. Graduates of secondary education must therefore have a solid knowledge of the Portuguese language, as well as Mathematics and sciences;

General secondary education must offer a high quality of education, which is open to a continuously increasing number of students. This level of education must cater for courses which allow students not only to develop skills and attitudes which will allow them to carry on studying, but which will also make it possible for them to find work;

Multiple and coordinated efforts will be made to improve access to this level of education, to reduce disparities between the provinces, and between the districts of the same province, and to reduce repetition and drop-out; and

The equal participation of girls and boys must be central to policies aiming to increase access and quality of education.

The objectives of general secondary school are as outlined below, to:

- consolidate, increase and strengthen the knowledge acquired at primary level in natural and social sciences, mathematics and the areas of culture and aesthetical education;
- prepare the students to carry on studying at higher levels or to participate in productive activities; and
- promote knowledge about health, nutrition and protection of the environment.

The curriculum of general education, 1<sup>st</sup> and 2<sup>nd</sup> cycle of general secondary school, has been criticised due to its encyclopaedic character. There are ten subjects for the 1<sup>st</sup> cycle (from Grade 8 to 10), and seven in each option of 2<sup>nd</sup> cycle (Grade 11 and 12). The curriculum for both levels of general secondary school is particularly academic and emphasises aspects that function as a preparation for further formal studies in the 2<sup>nd</sup> cycle, and at universities, respectively. As a consequence, those learners who graduate from secondary school are not prepared with specific skills and knowledge that provide a sound base for the labour market, for primary teaching or for proceeding to other specialised courses in vocational and technical education.

For that reason, the general secondary education has been subject to reforms that intend to make it more relevant, and give opportunity to learners to be prepared for working after completing that level of education.

In relation to this subsystem of education, Fox et al. (2012) present the following findings: (i) increased access and permanence in primary school also put pressure on secondary schools; (ii) serious supply constraints persist despite a large expansion in the network of secondary schools; (iii) the rapid growth in the private secondary school sector suggests that supply-side constraints are a key barrier to access; (iv) pressures on the limited network of public secondary schools and the amount of resources needed at this level has affected quality; (vi) considerable demand-side barriers to accessing the secondary level still exist, cost being an important issue for many families; and (vii) the pressure on secondary schools is only likely to get worse.

The general trend is that due to the increase of the number of students who complete the primary level of education, the number of students pursuing secondary education has expanded significantly, where the number of schools countrywide doubled from 226 in 2004 to 561 in 2011. The number of schools for ESG2 increased from 70 in 2004 to 228 in 2011 (MINED, 2012). When it came to the evolution of student enrolment, what can be seen is that within the

ESG1, from about 286 185 in 2004, the number increased to about 761 589 in 2011. During the same period of time the number of learners enrolled in ESG2 also increased from 45 685 to 191 320, where the gross enrolment rate<sup>20</sup> for ESG 1 in 2011 was 46%, as compared to 35% in 2007 and 21% in 2004, respectively. During the same period the gross enrolment rate for ESG2 was 19% and 6% respectively (ibid.).

In spite of the transition rates<sup>21</sup> from EP2 to ESG1 (Grade 7 to Grade 8) and from ESG1 to ESG2 (Grade 10 to Grade 11) increasing, the number of youth who are not in secondary schools having failed to complete Grade 7, or who have dropped out, is still high.

The expansion of this level of schooling calls for a significant increase of teachers both in quantity and quality. The next section examines how vocational education has evolved so far.

### **5.5.3 Technical and professional education in expansion, and implications for teacher education**

This type of education has been recently well supported by the government. Apart from the vocationalisation of the general secondary school, the development of technical and vocational education seem to be a major point of emphasis, at least in theory, of the developmental agenda of the country. However, this type of education is very expensive, because of the equipment required and the specific need of specialised teachers in different fields of vocational education. Some of the potential teachers for this level ought to be trained at tertiary level.

For the professional technical education, the national education policy and strategies for implementation present the following general policy:

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<sup>20</sup> Gross enrolment rates are calculated as the ratio of all learners enrolled in a given education level (without age restrictions) over all children in the age range corresponding to each education level. The age ranges corresponding to each education level are: 6-11 for EP1, 12-13 for EP2, 14-16 for ESG1, and 17-18 for ESG2. They are different from net enrolment rates, which are calculated as the ratio of all children in a given education level, who are in the age range corresponding to that education level over all children in the age range corresponding to that education level. Normally, the large difference between gross and net enrolment rates reflect the high percentage of over-aged learners at each education level.

<sup>21</sup> This is the percentage of students advancing from one level of schooling to the next.

- Technical education is responsible for adequately training a sufficient number of qualified labourers and technical staff to respond to the demand for qualified manpower in the different economic and social sectors of the country. Hence, technical professional education must be planned in such a manner as to reflect the development of the national economy.
- In terms of coverage, priority will be given to the re-opening of arts and crafts and basic agricultural schools, as these will play an important role in the reactivation of production in rural areas, and in the resettlement of populations. At other levels of technical education, the current network of schools will be maintained, while priority will be given to the introduction of qualitative improvements, by reducing the number of students at basic level, and by equipping workshops and laboratories.
- In addition to the formal courses, the technical schools will be open to non-formal courses, which aim to develop the specific technical and professional capacities of students.
- All policies for the development of technical education will pay particular attention to the participation of girls.

In relation to the overall subsystem of technical and vocational education, the national education policy presents the following objectives, to:

- provide a complete technical training for school-age adolescents in order to prepare them for a profession;
- develop the basic qualities of the personality of adolescents, in order educate them to assume a correct attitude towards work;
- develop in students the capacity to analyse and synthesise, to investigate and innovate, to organise and to provide scientific direction to work;
- promote knowledge about health and nutrition, and the protection of the environment.

Technical and vocational education under the MoE has been taking place at three levels: elementary, basic and medium levels. According to Mbele (2005), technical and vocational education has been developed as described below.

The elementary level was originally designed by the colonial administration in 1950s, in order to provide limited vocational training for Mozambicans. These schools were aimed at consolidating the class structure as envisaged by the colonial order. Access to elementary schools was mostly

limited to the children of chiefs. After independence, most of those schools were phased out, and some transformed into primary schools, while others were destroyed during the civil war. The schools have an entry requirement of Grade 5, and their programmes take two or three years to complete.

The basic level came into existence after independence. This level of technical education was seen as an important instrument to fast-track previously-disadvantaged Mozambicans. The schools provide a three-year technical vocational education within four main areas: accountancy, agriculture, construction and industrial trades. The entry level is Grade 7. After completing this level, learners receive certificates equivalent to Grade 10 in the academic route.

The middle institutional level provides education in various areas. The requirement for entry is Grade 10, and upon successful completion, the graduate holds a certificate equivalent to Grade 12. Students graduating at this level are intended to become technicians.

Following its implementation in 2006, the Integrated Programme of Technical-Professional Education Reform (PIREP) was approved by presidential decree 16/2007, of December 17, after consultation with partners in productive sector, civil society, research institutions and cooperate partners. The PIREP philosophy is based on the transformation of TVET providers in a demand-driven system, creating a modular training framework.

Currently, the technical and professional education has been seen as the major solution for the problems of unemployment among youngsters in the country, but requires significant investment, which the government cannot independently afford. That is why many stakeholders ought to be involved in the development of this subsystem throughout the country.

The preparation of teachers for technical and vocational education has largely until now been driven by small number of institutions, due to its cost. However, if the government needed to support this level of education, it would be beneficial to find partnership within the private sector, which currently already invests heavily in the mining sector, services and other industries.

The next section I look at the evolution of tertiary education, and the role it has been playing, if any, in the development of programmes of teacher education.

#### **5.5.4 Higher education: the vertex of the pyramid**

Higher education in Mozambique is as in many countries, the vertex of the education pyramid, with primary education as its broad base. That is to say, from this base up to tertiary level, the number of learners decreases significantly. Higher education in Mozambique has a participation rate of about 2%, which is below the average for sub-Saharan countries, of about 6%.

In spite of the increase in institutions of higher level, most for a variety of different reasons are not embracing programmes of teacher education.

The policy for higher education placed in the national education policy and strategies for implementation is presented below:

Higher education is responsible for providing training at the highest possible level, for technical staff and specialists in the various fields of scientific knowledge essential to the development of the country, and takes place in direct coordination with scientific research;

The medium term policies for developing higher education place a priority of increasing access, and improving the quality of education. The expansion of higher education must not take place to the detriment of improved quality of education. Increased effectiveness is, in this sense, seen as referring to quality and relevance of graduates, research, services, the diversity and regional representativity of students;

In general, policies for the development of higher education will give due priority to the expansion of equal gender access, both for students and teaching staff.

The document presents the next major objectives of higher education as to:

- equip professionals, namely technical staff and scientists, with high level qualifications in different fields of knowledge;
- stimulate scientific and technical research as a means of training students, solving problems of relevance to society and to support the development of the country;
- disseminate extension activities, mainly by means of the interchange of technical and scientific knowledge; and

- develop activities at postgraduate level, which aim to provide scientific and technical in-service training opportunities for teaching staff and professionals at a higher level, in various fields and sectors.

### **5.5.5 An overview of the subsystem of tertiary education**

During the post-independence period of the 1960s, 1970s and 1980s, African higher education played an important role in providing higher-level manpower in areas pertaining to social and economic development, and in promoting research. Most universities received generous funding from the former colonising powers and established links with universities in the global North (Mohamedbai, 2008).

In the 1990s, African universities more broadly suffered from neglect. Due to financial and political crisis in many African countries, the university could not be adequately financed to cater for the ever-increasing student enrolment. This was partly due the fact many international donors and funding agencies focused attention on basic education and secondary education in developing countries, to the detriment of higher education (ibid.).

The situation changed at the turn of the 21st century. Higher education is now recognised by all as playing a very important role in economic development. The World Bank (2002) affirms that tertiary education is essential for the facilitation of nation building, as well as for the promotion of greater social cohesion, inspiring confidence in social institutions, as well as encouraging democratic participation through open debate.

The first higher education institution in Mozambique was created in 1962 by the Portuguese, as a branch of the Portuguese universities. Called initially *Estudos Gerais Universitários*, it was an institution for educating the settlers' children in Mozambique. Later on, that is in 1968, it became the University of Lourenço Marques. At that time nine programmes were offered: Pedagogical Sciences; Medicine and Surgery; Civil Engineering; Mechanical Engineering; Chemical Engineering; Agronomy; Silviculture; and Veterinary Science. New programmes were added in stages as the university grew, totalling 17 degrees by 1974 (one year before independence).

Since its foundation until the independence, the abovementioned university actively discriminated against indigenous Mozambicans. Until 1974, indigenous Mozambican students

constituted less than 0,1% of the student population, as documented by several reports (Brito, 2003, p. 1). The independence of Mozambique in 1975 contributed to ideological change at the University of Lourenço Marques. It was renamed Eduardo Mondlane University (Mário, Fry, Levey, and Chilundo, 2003), and when the university reopened in January 1975, the previous staff and student body had largely fled the country, in an atmosphere where Portuguese colonists were afraid of an African government with socialist tendencies (ibid.). In the next sub-sections, I present the way in which the situation has since evolved.

### **5.5.6 The development of tertiary education in Mozambique: from elitism to an uncontrolled process of massification**

When one examines the development of the higher education in Africa, one can find that the Portuguese colonies were late in creating such institutions. Therefore, only since the mid-1960s can an institution of tertiary education be found in Mozambique.

Looking at the policies, strategies and processes related to higher education, it is possible to identify many phases of development and transformation of institutions of tertiary education during the postcolonial period. Three interrelated periods can be suggested. The first took place immediately after independence, until the beginning of the 1990s. As a legacy of colonialism, the country had only one higher education institution, the University of Lourenço Marques, which was turned into Eduardo Mondlane University in 1976. Independence thus brought the opportunity for redressing inequality, and opened the space for access to the university by students with different backgrounds, in accordance with the project of national unity, and the construction of a modern society, embraced by Frelimo. As Mário et al (2003) have noted:

To justify its existence, the university adopted a utilitarian approach, training human resources for what were considered the pressing needs of the new socialist economy. Courses such as Biology, Chemistry, Physics, Geology, Mathematics, Geography, History, Modern Languages and Educational Sciences were considered of lesser priority, and those that had very few students were closed. Some of the teachers in these disciplines were deployed to the pre-entry *propaedeutic* (preparatory) courses to augment the number of university entrants (p. 8).

Until 1985 the Eduardo Mondlane University was the sole HEI. In 1985 and 1986, the second and third public institutions, the Higher Pedagogic Institute (ISP) and the Higher Institute for International Relations (ISRI) were opened. A new era of the development of higher education had started. This first period ended in 1990, when the new Constitution was approved, (this has



been discussed elsewhere), which introduced the possibility of developing a new system of governance within the context of an open market.

The second period began in the middle of the 1990s, up to early 2000. New challenges faced higher education around the world, which had a large impact in Mozambique. Due to the policy changes, as far as tertiary education was concerned, this period of time was marked by a huge increase of higher education institutions, some without basic conditions required for functionality. Many institutions were without their own spaces for the development of their various activities. They hired buildings belonging to state and private institutions for instance, including primary schools, and secondary schools. In some cases, they hired former military buildings. A few institutions had capacity to construct their own campuses.

The first non-governmental institutions of higher education emerged between 1996 and 2000. The Higher Polytechnic and University Institute (ISPU) emerged in 1995. It was followed by the Catholic University of Mozambique (UCM) and the Higher Institute of Science and Technology (ISCTEM) emerged in 1996. The Islamic Mussa Bin Bik University (UMBB) and the Institute of Transport and Communication (ISUTC), were then founded in 1998 and 1999, respectively. Since then, institutions of higher education mushroomed all over the country. Therefore, dozens of institutions have been operating, each with specific characteristics as an organisation.

To some extent, it was easy to obtain permission for opening such institutions from the MoE. There has been speculation that the government loosened legislation in this regard, for political reasons. In my view, the major objective was to facilitate the expansion of the tertiary education throughout the country, in order to avoid the criticism that higher education was centred in Maputo, in the south of the county, undermining those prospective students in central and northern regions. Although this may have been a legitimate concern, it was also the case that the government with or without political will, would not be able to afford expanding the higher education system. The intervention of the private sector was crucial in that regard.

Matos and Mosca (2009) based on their experience and perceptions; present a critical analysis of the situation of the higher education development in the country, covering the period in question. They develop the following claims:

The expansion of the university sought to meet the rapid increase of the number of learners, who had completed secondary education, and wanted and could afford to continue their studies.

The state seemed not to be prepared to address the large demanding for higher education and did not create either conditions for new courses and new universities, or conditions for uplifting the levels of education to Masters and PhD.

The deficit of public higher education had been overcome with the emergence and development of private universities, which exist without trained lecturers in sufficient number to address the bolster universities and student numbers.

The investments made by these institutions was more focused on basic infrastructures for the process of teaching and learning, and that libraries, laboratories, teaching equipment, organisations and university management had been put in second place.

Public and private universities put in place campuses to develop their programmes, without scientific and pedagogical conditions, where courses were offered without a clear framework and educational project.

The authors also criticise what they call *õdemagocõ* and *õpopulistõ* currents of massification without attention to quality, which likewise took place during this period in public education. In their view, there is an absence of a strong justification for the reduction of the number of years of training followed by certain institutions of tertiary education.

In spite of these claims not being accompanied by what may be seen as sufficient evidence, they are in line with what has been the general perception concerning the development of tertiary education in Mozambique. I also partially concur with their subjective assessments.

The third period is ongoing. It started with a crisis, due to the rapid growth, without quality of HEI. It is marked by the call for policy adjustment, in order to address issues of quality assurance, the development of a system of certification, accreditation and massification without a loss of quality, student mobility and the internationalisation.

There are signs that the government seems to be committed to certain change. In my view, the problem is not the fact of expansion itself, but the way in which it has been done. When one looks at the figures related to participation rates, one can find that there is much to be done in

order to reach an acceptable level, when compared at least to other sub-Saharan countries. For instance, according to UNESCO's Institute for Statistics (2008), in 2006 the participation rate, which is measured as the total headcount enrolment as a proportion of the population between the ages of 20 to 24, was as follows: 15% for South Africa; 5% for sub-Saharan Africa; and an average of 31% for Latin America and Caribbean; 25% for Central Asia; 25% for East Asia and the Pacific; and an average of 70% for North America and Western Europe. In Mozambique participation is roughly 2%, which is below the sub-Saharan average. This situation has been officially acknowledged by the government. Thus, there is an ongoing process underway to monitor the situation, in order to find a balance between expansion and quality of HEI, where it has been announced by the MoE that all HEI will henceforth have to follow government regulations.

As put forward by MINED (2012), higher education has expanded explosively in recent years, where the number of students has almost tripled, and the number of institutions has doubled. The number of public institutions has increased by 84% between 2004 and 2010, while private education has risen by 163%. The network of institutions of higher education currently covers all provinces. There has also been a significant diversification of courses and types of institutions. Alongside this, the number of students has increased between 2004 and 2010, rising from 15 113 to 72 636 in 2004 and 2010 respectively, in public institutions. In private institutions student numbers increased from 7 143 to 28 726 during the same period of time for private education. Overall, students from private schools accounted for about 29% of school-goers. Access to public institutions outside Maputo, the capital of the country, has increased, contributing to geographical equity. As a result of the increase in the number of institutions, the number of graduates of higher education institutions has been rising, from 2 878 in 2004 to about 8 600 in 2010, corresponding to a 250% growth (ibid.).

In terms of investment, this level of education has benefitted from the contributions of families, namely parents or guardians, and the private sector, as well as the improvement of the national education budget in absolute and relative terms, where the percentage allocated to higher education from the MoE increased from 15% in 2005 to 18% in 2010 (MINED, 2012).

The prospects for the development of higher education in Mozambique fall into a vision of a higher education expansion, with balance and quality, guided by the principle of democracy,

which promotes knowledge-producing activities that are subject to national and international recognition” (ibid.).

By looking at the development of the tertiary education institutions in Mozambique, what can be seen is that most of them are only concerned about programmes that can attract a significant number of students. They try to open what they consider to be the most profitable programmes. This is one of the implications of neoliberal principles developed in the country. In that regard, Goswami (2013, p.33) underlines that:

As a consequence of neoliberalism, higher education is being transformed from public to private institutions, in which students are forced to pay more for education. Hence, universities become “corporations selling products”, knowledge becomes a commodity, professors become “entrepreneurs”, university administrators become managers, students become “customers” and “consumers”.

Within this logic, teacher education programmes are not part of the majority of the higher education institutions, because those programmes are not profitable due to the fact that they do not attract students. This must be related to the deterioration of teachers’ work conditions.

In the next section, I examine the administration of the national education system.

## **5.6 Administration and management of the education system: who is who?**

This section examines the level of coordination of the administration and management of the system of education. This aspect can contribute to an explanation of the relationship between the MoE and the HEI, particularly those that are involved in programmes of teacher education, such as the Pedagogic University, the Eduardo Mondlane University and the Catholic University of Mozambique, among others.

The Ministry of Education (MINED) has been responsible for planning and managing and monitoring the National Education System, ensuring that it works in a unified manner. The School Curricula and programmes are national, and are defined by MINED through the National Institute for Educational Development (INDE). Nevertheless, whenever necessary, adaptations of a regional nature may be introduced. These adaptations ought to be approved by the ministry. National examinations are prepared and administered by the National Council for Examination, Certification and Assessment.

Through the Ministry of Education, the government:

- establishes pedagogical guidelines and teaching programmes;
- determines norms for the recruitment, training and management of teaching and non-teaching staff;
- defines operational norms for educational establishments and provides them with the necessary number of teaching and administrative staff, in accordance with their size;
- supervises and inspects teaching activities; and
- determines the public education calendar.

The Minister of Education is assisted by two consultation bodies, whose role is to provide information and to draft proposals. The consultative council includes the heads of the bodies of the top- and mid-ranking areas, as well as of subordinate institutions. The tasks of the consultative council are to analyse and provide opinions on the basic questions of MINED activities. The coordinating council consists of the members of the consultative council and the Provincial Directors of Education, and is in charge of coordination, planning and control of activities undertaken by central and local educational bodies.

Despite the centralised character of the administration of the education system, some functions have been transferred to the provinces districts and schools. At provincial level, the administration of education is under supervision of the Provincial Education Directorate (DPE), which follows and implements education policy as defined by the ministry. In their activities, the DPE is led by a provincial director, appointed by the Minister of Education, after consulting with or on the proposal of the provincial government. In articulation with the districts, the DPEs ought to have a joint overall vision of the quantitative and qualitative education needs that school attendance requires in the short and long term. Under the country's administrative division, the district is the territorial basis for educational planning, with the exception of higher education. For that reason, based on the procedures of micro-planning methodology, the district is understood to be the basis for identifying educational needs at the local level. The district's education directorates are led by a district director who is appointed by the Provincial Governor, on the proposal of the Provincial Director of Education. A school principal is appointed for each education establishment, assisted by a deputy principal for pedagogy, and a deputy principal for administrative issues.

In the previous sections, I have elaborated on the length and scope of the different subsystems of education in Mozambique, in order to understand their strengths and weaknesses, as well as how they have evolved. The administration and management of the system is also briefly presented.

The following section deals with the major policies and strategies in place since independence, some of which have been touched upon in previous sections.

## **5.7 Analysis of the educational policies and strategies currently in place**

The section presents some major policies and educational strategies that have been introduced since the advent of independence in the country. Ideas previously introduced will not be repeated here.

The educational policies of the country are to be found in a number of laws and policy documents. As previously indicated, all of these evolved in line with the transformations that have taken place since independence.

Despite the changes that have been witnessed since 1975, education seems to be a priority of the country, regardless of the political orientation of the incumbent government. In this particular case, one cannot talk about changes as a result of the process of replacement of the political parties through the electoral system. Frelimo ruled in different contexts of economic and political development in Mozambique. Chronologically, the major education policies can be presented as follows.

First of all, since 1975, the Constitution of the Republic of Mozambique has promoted the central role of education within the process of socioeconomic, political and cultural development in the country. For that reason, education is acknowledged as a duty and a right for all citizens. In terms of the design and implementation of educational policies, explained elsewhere, the ideology was a strong element informing the whole process. I use the term ideology by borrowing from Wilkin (1996). In the author's view, any government regarded as ideological will exhibit three characteristics:

- õ1. A strongly articulated system of beliefs concerning matters of a fundamental social, political, economic or moral nature. Although the form that these beliefs and principles themselves take may evolve and change over time, their advocacy should

be consistent. No necessary internal consistency within the belief system itself is implied however;

2. Firm or persistent attempts to introduce widespread institutional change in accordance with these beliefs
3. The hope and intention that by these means, its values will become first of all accepted by the majority of the populace and will in time attract their complete commitmentö (p. 2).

Wilkin goes on to add that õideology is not only a system of beliefs, but also a process therefore. It is the process of power that links the three dimensions above” (p. 3).

Looking at the postcolonial history of Mozambique the successive governments under the Frelimo party, moved from an ideology based on Marxism-Leninism to an ideology rooted in the neoliberal principles. Therefore the emergence and the development of the national education policy system reflect the nature of ideology embraced by Frelimo in different periods that I explained previously in this thesis.

A document presented by a delegation from Maputo to the Conference of Ministries of Education of African Members States of UNESCO, held in Lagos from 27 January to 4 February 1976, encapsulated the major ideas underpinning the polices of the Mozambican government, as far as education was concerned. The document states that:

The new revolutionary education is aimed at forming a Mozambican African personality, a õNew Manö, free from all complexes of superiority and inferiority, freed from superstitious beliefs, [who is] self-reliant and ready to make his scientific knowledge the basis of the new society based on unity and equality. In sum, education for us is the principle instrument for our liberation, economic, social and cultural independence (MEC, 1976).

As a result, until 1990, according to what has been already explained in another part of this chapter, the major concern was the creation of a õNew Manö, inspired in the ideology of scientific socialism, which in real terms, represented the Marxist-Leninist philosophy adopted by FRELIMO during the III Congress. After the beginning of the Second Republic, many transformations were sustained, which influenced the overall process of educational policy development.

In 1995, the Government of Mozambique adopted the National Education Policy (PNE), a document that sets out the vision of the education sector and the main intentions and priorities for developing it. This established the policy framework for the national education system in Mozambique. It identified the government of Mozambique's main aims for the education system as a whole, and defined specific policies for every sector within the system. Due to a shortage of finances and human resources, the document identified basic education and adult literacy as top priorities.

After the approval of the National Education Policy in 1995, the Ministry of Education put in place strategic plans, which have played an important role in highlighting the priorities of the education sector, as well as how it responds to different challenges. Therefore, the vision and government actions in the education sector are placed in the Five-Year Plans and operationalised by so-called Education Strategic Plans. These strategic plans incorporate the major measures for the development of education, with three strategic plans having developed so far.

Strategic Plan I was implemented during the period between 1998 and 2005. The plan emphasised the central role of the basic education in guiding the priorities and commitments of the Government of Mozambique. It gave substance and focus to the Ministry of Education's mission through three key objectives: (i) the expansion of access to basic education; (ii) the improvement of the quality of education services; and (iii) the strengthening of the institution and the administrative framework for effective and sustainable delivery of education.

It furthermore identified the following ways of improving educational quality: (i) curriculum reform; (ii) providing training for teachers; (iii) enhancement of qualifications and training of school directors; (iv) improvement of monitoring and assessment; and (v) ensuring the essential learning materials. Primary education was described as the top priority; however, preschool, special education, formal and adult education, technical education, secondary and higher education do not receive mention.

Strategic Plan II follows on from Strategic Plan I and further lays out the government's vision for the future of the Mozambique's education system, and identifies the main lines of action to pursue in the short and the medium term. This Strategic Plan was implemented during the period between 2006 and 2011. Therefore the Strategic Plan II was based on the National Education



Policy (MINED, 1995), as well as on Strategic Plan I. It continued to affirm education as a basic human right, and a key instrument in improving conditions in order to reduce poverty. The Strategic Plan II also reflects government's commitment to Education for All and the Millennium Development Goals, as endorsed by the international community. It therefore explicitly aims to ensure completion of seven years of primary education by every Mozambican child, to be achieved by 2015.

Strategic Plan III for the period 2012-2016 was built after the analysis and evaluation of progress and challenges identified during implementation of the Strategic Plan for Education and Culture 2006-2010/11, with the aim of improving the performance of the sector, taking into account the lessons learnt.

The Strategic Plan for Higher Education (2000-2010) was published by the former Ministry of Higher Education, Science and Technology of Mozambique (MESCT,2000). The plan includes lists of positive and negative aspects related to the improvement and constraints in the field of higher education in Mozambique. Seven detailed recommendations are given as a conclusion of the plan, including meeting labour market demand and national needs through flexibility and responsiveness, and diversifying sources of finances and methods of funding for both institutions and students. The vision of the Higher Education Strategic Plan (2000-2010) directed attention towards the following issues.

The Strategic Plan for Higher Education for the years 2011-2020 is now in place. Its main objective is to promote equitable participation, and respond to the needs of the country in a dynamic way, in accordance with a developing society, through the construction and strengthening of institutions with flexible, diversified and better coordinated programmes. It further aims for the acquisition and development of knowledge, skills, investigation and relevant innovations and for the strengthening the intellectual, scientific, technological and cultural capacities of students and graduates (MINED, 2012).

After describing the vision and the mission of the secondary education, the Secondary Education Strategy for the years 2009-2015 identifies several problems, which ought to be addressed in the medium term. According to this document, the government ought to look for responses to the question of how to:

- ensure the expansion of secondary education with quality;
- shape the curriculum to the new demands of socioeconomic development of the country and regional integration;
- reduce education wastage (reduce high rates of repetition and drop-out);
- meet the needs of learners who have no space in secondary schools;
- involve the private sector, civil society, parents and guardians in the functioning of education; and
- increase funding of secondary education without prejudice to other subsystems and levels of education.

The same document establishes the following objectives:

- to increase the gross enrolment rate from 35% in 2009 to 70% in 2015, including private schools, which ought to enrol 15% of the total number of learners;
- to reach the number of 1.2 million of students enrolled in the first cycle of general secondary education (ESG1) of them 1.1 million in the public education system and about 180 thousand in private education, i.e. an average of 11% growth per annum;
- to achieve 37% in 2015 of gross enrolment, starting from 7 % in 2009, the number to be reached should be 390 thousand, from which 80 thousand should be in private schools. The Second cycle (Grade 11 and Grade 12) of general secondary should reach an average growth of about 20% annually; and
- to ensure training for learners who do not manage to complete the ESG1 or do not enter ESG2.

In order to reach all those objectives, I am quite sure that the government should look seriously to teacher education development. This has to be done by a clear vision of the type of teacher to be prepared and which role ought to be played by the institutions of teacher education, including the Pedagogic University. In my view the strategy of hiring cheaper teachers only serves to augment their availability but with serious risks for the quality of education.

Currently, besides the legal provision, the programmes of the education sector are geared by the government's five-year programme (2010-2014) and the Strategic Plan (2012-2016), which embraces the primary, secondary adult and professional and technical education. The five-year

programme and the Strategic Plan for Education define the access, improvement of quality, and strengthening of institutional capacity as the major issues to be addressed.

## **5.8 Conclusion**

This chapter brought different contextual aspects together that might be interconnected with the major issue of this research, which is of teacher education development in Mozambique from the postcolonial period initiated in 1975.

From this chapter, a number of conclusions can be drawn.

Two different contexts have informed the development of the education system as a whole, namely the political-ideological context of the creation of a “New Man”, and its attendant concept of the creation of a Mozambican Man. A paradigm that rejected the colonial legacy and the role to be played by the tradition was introduced, after which, a paradigm defined by a context of democratisation was developed. In both contexts, changes were made in order to accommodate a new paradigm of education, so that this might reflect the socioeconomic and political interest of each period. Therefore, by recognising the importance of socioeconomic and political changes, this chapter highlighted them in order to understand how the education system was projected and developed in different periods. The policies and strategies regarding the subsystems of education as well as their trends were presented.

Furthermore, the chapter underlines that the major reforms after independence to the education system, occurred under influence of the programmes of structural adjustment introduced in the middle of 1980s. Due to these programmes, the Mozambican economy moved from a context of central planning introduced after 1975, to a market-based economy. The measures determined by the Bretton Woods system were largely reflected in the way policies and education strategies were negotiated, formulated and implemented. The rapid changes within a short period of time have had a significant influence concerning the development of policies and education strategies. The situation can partially be explained by the way in which the process of training teachers has been conducted.

Despite the socioeconomic and political changes put in place since the proclamation of national independence, a constitutional principle that articulates education as a fundamental right of every

citizen has nonetheless been established. This precept is translated into government policies, where education is considered an instrument for the promotion and integration of individuals in social, economic and political areas, an indispensable factor for the continued construction of a Mozambican society and for fighting poverty. In this context, emphasis has been directed towards ensuring that all children have access to and complete a primary education of seven classes.

At the same time, it is recognised that primary education is not sufficient to support and sustain the national development of the country. Therefore, the government ought to move towards a holistic view of development of the education system, involving the universalisation of primary education and, in parallel, developing post-primary education, namely secondary, technical and tertiary education, as a way of responding to the needs of a lifelong education and the development of human capital necessary for developing the national economy.

The education system is again undergoing huge expansion, thanks to the reforms put in place by the government. The increase of the number of learners enrolled at primary school as well as the bolstering of the completion rates, has put pressure on secondary education, which has also been expanding widely all over the country. Whatever the paths to be followed by the education system, these ought to be accompanied by new policies on teacher education. For this reason, an adequate system of teacher education development is needed, so that the system might grow with desirable quality. It is acknowledged that teachers constitute one of the central pillars as far as quality of education is concerned. However, due to the process of development of the education system through increased access, it is noticeable that teachers without specific training are nonetheless recruited, and that other teachers trained for primary education have been recruited to teach in secondary schools. It goes without saying that this does not bode well for the quality of education the system is able to provide.

The rapid changes to teacher education development can be partially justified by the socioeconomic and political changes described in this chapter. The following chapter looks at the policies and strategies regarding teacher education development carried out in the country in the postcolonial period.

## CHAPTER 6: THE ROOTS OF POSTCOLONIAL TEACHER EDUCATION POLICIES, STRATEGIES AND PROGRAMMES – NATIONAL AND INSTITUTIONAL PATHWAYS

### 6.1 Introduction

This chapter outlines relevant teacher education policy and its influences on the process of secondary school teacher education development. The focus is on the larger political and regulatory context in which teacher education has been taking place in Mozambique. It commences with a brief description of policies and teacher education strategies, where particular emphasis is given to secondary school strategy that points out the perspective of expansion of this subsystem of education. This chapter is an attempt to understand the road taken by the Mozambican government to building its teacher education system. The chapter also deals with the way in which teacher education has evolved, and in which circumstances that process has been happening.

The chapter therefore addresses the question: *what policies and strategies have been put in place for teacher education development in Mozambique?* It provides a characterisation, analysis and interpretation of the different policies and strategies that have been introduced in Mozambique for the development of teacher education programmes after its independence in 1975.

The major assumption is that the design of the teacher education policies and strategies and programmes has to respond to the specific needs of each education system. This is corroborated by Musset (2010). She underlines that

[T]he situation can be different from country to country: some countries experience teacher surplus and others have to cope with teacher shortage. The shortage of teachers may be general (all types of school, all types of teachers), or focused on certain subjects (Mathematics, languages, etc.), locations (rural areas, impoverish neighbourhoods), or special kinds of schools. Teacher attrition is also a problem. Finally, teachers face a third challenge: the necessity to improve teacher quality in a socioeconomic context of broader expectation towards teachers (p. 3).

I argue that despite the existence of many documents such as national education policy, strategic plans and other proclamations, there is a gap in policy regarding teacher education in

Mozambique, which leads to a situation where the institutions providing teacher education programmes rely on guidance that is pieced together. Therefore, teacher education programmes have been developed without a national framework and, to some extent, in an uncoordinated way. In other words, there are no clear national policies on teacher education that stand as a reference for teacher education providers.

Many countries have what are referred to as Qualified Teacher Standards, namely a “set of standards that student teachers must meet in order to begin to teach” (Conway et al., 2009). In New Zealand these are called Graduating Teacher Standards; in England, Professional Standards for Qualified Teacher Status; in Scotland, Standards for Initial Teacher Education; and in South Africa, Norms and Standards for Teacher Education Training and Development. The Qualified Teacher Standards play an important role in guiding different teacher education providers. What exists in Mozambique instead is a range of different proclamations from documents such as National Education Policy and Education Strategic Plans (I, II and III), which are described below. The implications of the lack of standards are teacher education programmes based on institutional initiatives and the absence of a clarity with regard the adoption of a teacher education development which could include a framework based on a continuum of teacher learning.

This chapter likewise argues that socioeconomic and political conditions have contributed to restricting the process of preparing primary school teachers through the adoption of single models replicated in different provinces, in the same kind of institution (teacher education colleges).

The following section examines teacher education policies and strategies developed mainly during the postcolonial period.

## **6.2 Policies and teacher education strategies in retrospect**

There are normally three major reasons for changing teacher education policies strategies and programmes. The first is the need to conform to political changes. That is what happened in the country after independence in 1975, and after the political transformation as a result of the adoption of new constitutions in 1990 and 2004, respectively. There was a need to change curricula and textbooks, in order to reflect these political changes. Secondly, there was a need to

improve the quality of teaching, and thirdly, there were financial constraints, which lead to the need to reduce teacher salaries.

As Schwille and Dembélé (2007) have argued, mass education requires a higher demand for teachers and that in developing countries, the need to expand systems quickly with very limited resources has led to hybrid systems, in which only some teachers have permanent appointments, while others teach on short term contracts. Without a doubt, education policies intending to increase access of learners to different levels of schooling, normally face the problem of a shortage of teachers, which leads to options such as double (sometimes triple) shifts,<sup>22</sup> multiple classes<sup>23</sup> and the reduction of teacher salaries in order to recruit more teachers using the same limited budget. According to each situation, different measures can be introduced in order to reduce unit costs of schooling. In that regard, Colclough and Lewin (1993) have aptly put it that it is well known that the two items which dominate the determination of the unit costs of education are the earning of teachers and the size of the teacher/pupil ratio, since, at the school level, salary costs typically account for around 90% of recurrent expenditures (p 142). This is corroborated by Morrow (2007) where he points out that:

The most costly item in any education budget is the salaries of teachers, with estimates for different parts of the system ranging from 75% to 90% of the total budget. Clearly the most effective way to reduce the costs of any education system – including universities – is to reduce the number of teachers it employs. However, more students, limited resources, fewer teachers, this leads to declining teacher-to-student ratios, which in general, means larger classes. Simple arithmetic tells us this (pp. 37-38)

In fact, according to Musset (2010), the general trend sees unit cost for primary education much lower in developing countries than it is in richer countries. The reason for this is that developing countries have a larger number of learners, and teacher salaries are lower. Another factor is that primary school teachers generally have less training than their colleagues at secondary schools, and therefore their salaries are generally around 30% of the salaries of teaching graduates (ibid.).

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<sup>22</sup> One way of making more intensive use of teachers is to introduce some form of multi-shift schooling. Under such a system, two or more entirely separate groups of pupil may be accommodated for regular teaching during the same term, week or day in the same school. The most common of such approaches, the double-shift system, involves one group of pupils attending in the mornings and a second group using the same facilities in the afternoons.

<sup>23</sup> Multiple-classes - learners from different grades are integrated in one group and assisted by the same educator.

Many countries in Africa have been facing a huge challenge to expand access in primary education through reducing costs, which in some cases is not affordable in the national budget. Most countries have been expending the larger proportion of resources allocated to their education systems on teacher salaries. A study conducted in nine African countries (Ethiopia, Malawi, Senegal, Guinea, Tanzania, Ghana, Zambia, Uganda and Mali) by Colclough, Al-Samarrai, Rose and Tembon (2003, p. 104) shows that spending on teachers' earnings has constituted the largest part of government recurrent spending on the primary system, ranging from 80% in Mali and Uganda, to close to 100% in Ethiopia and Senegal, and that accordingly, with so little margin left for other expenditures, the main determinants of expenditures per pupil in these countries are the average salaries (and allowances) of teachers and the average teacher-pupil ratio.

On the other hand, when it comes to public education, the scale of primary demand for teachers is determined by (i) the size of the system (the distribution of learners across grades, schools and locality as dictated by population size and regulations regarding free and compulsory education); (ii) teacher quality benchmarks (determined through training and accreditation system); (iii) quality of teaching and learning aims, as may be reflected by teacher-learner ratio (Paterson and Arends, 2009). In relation to that, Cooper and Alvarado (2006) affirm that the supply of teachers depends on several factors, including the number of students graduating from teacher preparation programmes; the proportion of those students who choose to enter teaching; salaries, benefits, working conditions; presence or absence of incentives to attract teachers; and public perception of teaching as a profession (*ibid.*).

In the Mozambican case, teacher salaries are determined almost exclusively on the basis of academic qualification, rather than on the role undertaken, resulting in significant differentials between salaries in secondary education and basic education. Thus, a lowering of the academic level at which teachers train to teach was expected to decrease the burden of teacher salaries on the national education budget. Therefore, initial teacher education course duration has been cut to only one year for both primary and secondary school (1st cycle). This raised concerns about the potential impact of such measures on the quality of education delivery.

What can be also noticed throughout the world is that teacher education strategies and programmes are influenced by a variety of factors from political, cultural and organisational to



financial, which seems to be the most important, mainly in developing countries such as Mozambique.

Looking at the development of teacher education, Passos (2009) argues that Mozambique has had several models of teacher training since independence, and that the weakness of the education system can be attributed to some extent to the lack of a coherent teacher training policy. The author adds that because the decision makers did not take into consideration the results of research in the teacher training field, the new policies and programmes replicate the problems inherent in the previous ones. Thus, there is a noticeable absence of a coherent and aligned policy as far as teacher education is concerned, within the Mozambican context.

The following paragraphs present what policies and strategies have been put in place, starting with what can be considered the backbone of the National Education System, already explained in the previous chapter. Thus, concerning pre- and in-service for primary school, the National Education Policy and Strategy for Implementation (MINED, 1995) states that:

- The pre- and in-service training and continuous upgrading of teachers are strategic in improving the quality of education. Therefore, at the same time as material, human and financial resources conditions are being established, the current courses of 7+3 years of training will be eliminated, and gradually substituted by courses that will be administered in *Institutos de Magistério Primário*. Grade 10 will be required for entry into these courses, having a duration of 2 years.
- In coordination with the Pedagogical University, courses will be developed and launched that aim at preparing trainers of primary education teachers and primary education teaching staff at Bachelor's or Master's level.
- More specific measures to be taken within the framework of pre-service include: (i) the introduction of a permanent model for the pre-service training of primary school teachers (10+2) and the implementation of an efficient postgraduation monitoring system of teachers; (ii) making decisions concerning the changes to be introduced in the training of teachers so that only two or three teachers are required to teach EP2, one of whom ought to teach Natural Sciences; (iii) start training teachers for special education; (iv) start training teachers who are capable of managing multiple classes; (v) define criteria for selection of candidates and for the preparation of a training programme for directors of primary schools; (vi) define a

training system for teachers that establishes a clear link between the pre and in-service training programmes.

- Currently, the pedagogical qualifications of staff of in-school training programmes are very poor. The government will therefore take strategic steps to overcome these deficiencies by (i) making arrangements for the continuous in-service training of teachers through the ZIPs,<sup>24</sup> and with the support of the teacher training institutions; (ii) supporting the current initiatives for teacher training upgrading being implemented by the Institute for Teacher Upgrading (IAP) through a distance education in-service training programme, which has started training the teachers of the group ðEö; (iii) preparing specific regulations for attributing study grants for teacher training courses.

Regarding secondary teacher education and development, the document above presents the following assumptions, proposals and expectations:

- Pre- and in-service training play a fundamental role in improving the quality of education, by continuously upgrading the professional capacity of teachers;
- Pre-service teachers for secondary education will be the responsibility of the Pedagogical University, thereby satisfying the need which will result from expansion of this level of education.
- In parallel, regular and ongoing mechanisms for in-service training will be promoted in the schools themselves. Steps will be taken to monitor and integrate newly trained teachers in order to allow these teachers to rapidly gain professional status with the support of the Pedagogical University.
- Other measures to be introduced in this context are (i) promotion, in collaboration with the Pedagogic University, of regular courses for in-service training of science teachers, if necessary by resorting distance education; (ii) organisation of training courses in Drawing for teachers; (iii) training of teachers in the use of audiovisual teaching equipment and computers; and (iv) production, in the coordination with the Pedagogical University, of materials for pedagogical support for in-service training of teachers.

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<sup>24</sup> Zone of Pedagogical Influence ó School clusters.

It is clear from what is stated above that teacher education programmes were considered central to the improvement of quality of education. For that reason, the focus was placed on upgrading the levels of entrance and the length of the programmes. This was also considered to be a wider vision of professional development. What was also clear, in theory, was the role to be played by the Pedagogic University as far as secondary education teacher preparation was concerned. The responsibility attributed to that institution was mainly related to the fact that the Pedagogic University was the sole university running secondary school teacher education programmes. On the other hand, although the existence of a clear intention of developing sound programmes in teacher education, the socioeconomic and political developments as well as the role of donors in the process of policy design and implementation seem to have been undermining that process.

Based on the National Education Policy, the Education Strategic Plan I, continued to present the same perspectives regarding teacher education programmes. It was also recognised that the rapid expansion of enrolment in the years immediately after independence was accomplished in significant part by recruiting large numbers of underqualified teachers, some with a little as four years of primary schooling, which contributed to the subsequent deterioration in quality of education in Mozambican schools. In addition, this document conceded that during this period of time, the ministry was unwilling to accept further deterioration in educational quality as the price of increased enrolment, and that significant gains in enrolment were clearly not attainable without a major expansion in the capacity of the teacher training system alongside the introduction of innovative instructional strategies in primary schools.

The Education Strategic Plan I continued to note that of necessity, this would have to be achieved through the revision of curricula and the intensification of production in all teacher training institutions, supplemented by an increase in provision of in-service training and instructional support services for new teachers. The ministry would consider the possibility of accelerating training programmes in Instituto do Magistério Primários (IMAP) and CFFPs, so that new teachers could complete their pre-service training in 12 to 18 months. This document also reaffirmed the role of the Pedagogic University by asserting:

The Pedagogic University has a key role to play in accomplishing the goals of the Strategic Plan. Implementation of the ministry's strategy for basic education will require the development of programmes for pre-service and in-service teacher trainers, inspectors and supervisors. Increasing the capacity of the Pedagogic University through

restructuring and the provision of necessary support will enable the university to make new and important contribution to Mozambican development even as it continues and enhances its role in training of secondary school teachers (MINED, 1998).

What can be seen by examining these paragraphs is that pre- and in-service training and Continuing Professional Development (CPD) are considered vital by the government to improving the quality of education in both levels of general education (primary and secondary schools). However, something was missing in that document, in order to appropriately address the major question of how to establish an interconnection between the three stages of teacher education development.

The need to develop teacher education in collaboration with the Pedagogic University was once again stressed by the Ministry of Education. In spite of that, what has been seen is that more frequently the Ministry of Education and the Pedagogic University are moving in different directions. It is a question as to how to put in practice proclaimed adjustments. This is corroborated by the perceptions of academic staff from the Pedagogic University and officials from the Ministry of Education interviewed for this research. I elaborate on this in the Chapter 8.

An attempt to introduce what could have been a strategy for teacher training occurred in 2003<sup>6</sup> 2004. For unknown reasons, almost nothing related to that document has been taken into account. In other words, despite being an extremely rich document pointing to a new direction, up until now it has not been championed for either approval or implementation. The mentioned document drafted by the National Directorate of Teacher Education, entitled: The Teacher Education Strategy (MINED, 2004),<sup>25</sup> claims that teacher education in Mozambique has been characterised by:

- various models of teacher training, with a lack of consensus on how to conduct the different programmes;

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<sup>25</sup> There is no clear reason given as to why that strategy has not been officially approved. This has led to much speculation, suggesting reasons such as a lack of political will; financial constraints; as well as the fact that the Mozambican Government is not willing to adopt clear teacher education framework.

- an outdated curriculum, which requires revision in order to match curriculum transformation in primary education;
- an inappropriate balance and lack of systematic link between theory and practice;
- courses conducted in a very prescriptive way, generally centred on the teacher and not on the students, where students are not sufficiently encouraged to reflect on practice;
- a lack of connection between aspects of institution-based courses and school-based aspects;
- fewer opportunities for in-service training and continuing professional development;
- teacher educators in most cases having a lack of preparation and experience, especially with regard contemporary practice of basic education; and
- teacher training institutions often having a lack of appropriate resources for teaching and learning.

After recognising the quality of teaching staff in education to be perhaps the most important factor contributing to the achievement of overall quality in any educational system, the document goes on to present the main objectives of a potential strategy:

- to raise the status of teacher education in general and the primary education in particular;
- to encourage the improvement of quality in teacher education;
- to promote a system of implementation of training which covers initial training as well as continuing professional development;
- to rationalise the system of teacher training in place; and
- to transfer the responsibility for some aspects of teacher training from the central authority to the local service delivery, where possible and appropriate.

Some of these objectives were incorporated in a framework as part of the Strategic Plan II, which is explained below.

While looking to increase the number of trained teachers available for the system, thereby meeting the increased demand for new trained teachers for primary education and in particular for first-level primary education (EP1), the Strategic Plan II (2006-2010/11) of the sector introduced a new reform in the area of teacher education. The reform aimed, among other things, at providing intensive initial training of good quality of teachers, without ignoring the need to guarantee long-term sustainable salaries for an ever-growing number of teachers (MEC, 2006)

The reform focused on the training of primary and secondary (1<sup>st</sup> cycle) school teachers and had a number of specific objectives:

Reform teacher's initial training, in line with the need to adapt the new training curriculum for teachers to the basic education curriculum introduced in 2004.

Improve quality-related aspects in teacher training.

Provide basic training in a short period of time in order to meet the significant expansion of the basic education network.

Promote a system that fully incorporates initial training for teachers as well as their continuous professional development.

Rationalise the existing system of teacher training by transferring the central authority to, whenever this seems viable, to the Institutes for Teacher Training (Institutos de Formação de Professores) (primary education) and other local providers (primarily for secondary education 1st cycle).

In order to achieve these goals, the MEC introduced in 2007 a new curriculum for initial teacher training, with the objective of equipping teachers with the relevant tools to exercise their teaching assignments. This should enable them to contribute to the improvement of educational quality by inserting the contents of curricula into the reality of each community where the school is located, but also to preserve the spirit of personhood, unity, peace, national stability, and a deepening democracy with a respect for human rights, as well as the preservation of Mozambican culture (MINED, 2004).

It is also stated in the Strategic Plan II that students with 10 years of completed education would be recruited into a year-long programme that emphasised the development of pedagogical and class management skills. The graduate would be deployed in ESG1, where MEC would continue to recruit university graduates from the Pedagogic University and other HEI for ES2. These two models of preparing teachers as proposed by the Ministry of Education created a polemic in broader Mozambican society more generally, but particularly among academics and researchers interested in education issues. The main reason behind the reform seemed to be financial constraints. There were, furthermore, large salary differentials between teachers in primary and secondary schools. The average salary in ESG1 is five times than that in EP1, and ESG2 salaries are six time higher (MEC, 2006). Therefore, the MEC intended to reduce costs related to salaries

by training teachers in a short period of time and paying them less. It was stated clearly for the first time in a document, that the Ministry of Education would not be able to pay the salaries that had been stipulated, and that it would have to seek out solutions to constraints. The Strategic Plan for Education and Culture presented a teacher training framework for action and policy reform, which, if it had been implemented, would have made significant changes as far as teacher education was concerned. The table below shows how the Ministry of Education intended to address the issue that has affected the subsystem of teacher education.

**Table 6.1: Teacher training framework for action and policy reform**

Objectives	Outputs	Performance indicators/ targets (2010/11)	Policy renew assumptions
Reform pre-service teacher education	Integrated and coherent system of pre-service training	All new teachers have professional training and are recruited in affordable pay-salary	New recruitment and staffing policy approved
	New 10+1 pre-service programme developed and operational	7500 10+1 per year trained	New recruitment and staffing policy approved
	New 12+1 pre-service programme developed (incorporating the new curriculum) and operational	2500 12+1 graduates trained for ESG1	UP (Pedagogic University) involved in supporting and supervising quality of teacher training courses
	Curriculum for ODL advanced for ESG1 Teachers to qualify to teach ESG2	ES1 teachers study for advanced certificate	Advanced teaching certificate created
Providing teachers with continuous in-service training and	Improved quality of education	All teachers have benefitted from in-service training	

Objectives	Outputs	Performance indicators/ targets (2010/11)	Policy renew assumptions
support	National continuous professional development programmes for teachers of all levels including teacher educators based on CRESCER experience in place		All in-service programmes adopt CRESCER model as revised
	ZIP strengthens a head teachers trained for pedagogical support tasks	Pedagogical support to teachers available	Allocation of \$10 per teacher per year to ZIP
	Strengthen inspection	All inspectors trained for new role and posted in districts	See also component 12
Strengthen administration of teachers' education	National Institute for Teacher Education coordinate and administrate teacher education		National Institute for Teacher Education legally established
	Develop a career progress model for teachers		ODL courses allow teachers to acquire more advanced certificate
	Conduct research and develop standards of quality in teacher education		
	Define occupational standards for teachers for each level of instruction	Occupational standards and remuneration Established and coordinated between MAE and MEC	Teacher recruitment and remuneration based on established occupational standards

Source: MEC, 2006.

It can be seen from the table that the Ministry of Education recognises the weaknesses of the subsystem of teacher education and acknowledges the need for reforming it. In spite of that, the period determined in which to meet the targets has expired, without significant moves made in that direction. It was expected that the government would introduce programmes that reduce the duration of teacher education, in order to decrease salary costs. Other measures, such as: the establishment of an institution in charge of teacher education coordination; the establishment of



occupational standards; the development of an integrated system of pre-service training; and the provision of continuous in-service training support for all teachers, have gone unfulfilled.

The Strategic Plan III does not bring ideas as far as teacher education is concerned, except the need for the reinforcement of the secondary school teacher development by the Ministry of Education.

The next sections examine the way in which teacher education programmes have been developed within the Mozambican context.

### **6.3 An overview of primary school teacher education programmes**

In Mozambique teacher preparation for primary schools has been developed since the colonial period. The way teachers have been prepared has changed dramatically since accommodating the objectives of the colonial regime and demand for teachers in different stages of socioeconomic, cultural and political development of the country in the postcolonial period. This sub-section briefly presents the major trends on teacher education development programmes as far as primary education is concerned.

During the colonial period, there were two types of teacher training colleges: the Primary Teaching Colleges (*Escolas de Magistério Primário*) and the Primary Teachers' Qualification Colleges (*Escola de Habilitação de Professores Primários*). Primary Teachers' Qualification Colleges used to train teachers to work in schools intended for the native Mozambican population, in rudimentary schools. The candidates were required to complete a Grade 4 education, where the duration of the course was three years. The length of the course continued to be the same when the training college evolved into Adaptation Primary Teaching Colleges (*Escola de Magistério Primário de Adaptação*), except for the School Post Primary Teachers' Qualification Colleges where the duration was four years. The Primary Teaching College trained teachers to teach in official primary schools. The course took two years and the level of entrance was Grade 5 of secondary education, also called the 2<sup>nd</sup> cycle of secondary education. Learners with an equivalent level were also accepted to register. The Primary Teachers Qualification School of Alvor in the current district of Manhiça, south of Mozambique, was the first school to train teachers, created by the Portuguese colonial government in 1926. In 1962, the first Primary

Teaching School was created in Mozambique for what were called official schools. Before that, teachers were recruited in Portugal and placed in Mozambique (Guro, 2010).

Since independence, many changes have taken place without a clear justification. Thus, several models were introduced at different primary school teacher training providers.

Therefore, from 1976 onwards the Ministry of Education has implemented many different primary teacher training models. Up until now, the ministry has been looking for an ideal model for teacher training programmes (Passos, 2009). In 1976 the MEC transformed the EHPPE, into the *Curso de Formação de Professores Primários* (CFPPs). From that point on, a number of variants were developed.

In the meantime, according to Passos (ibid.), in 1978, the MEC discontinued the *Magistério Primário* and introduced a new course, the *Escola de Formação e Educação de Professores* (EFEP). The entrance requirement for this teaching programme was a Grade 8 level qualification. It was later designated *Instituto Médio Pedagógico* and the entry requirement was increased to Grade 10. The duration of this course was three years. Teachers who were successful in this course could teach Grades 6 and 7 of upper primary education. This programme closed when the IMAP was established by the MEC, for which the entrance level was Grade 10. It had duration of two years and graduates from this course were able to teach Grades 1 through 7.

ADEA (2008) points out that the preparation of teachers for the first five-year cycle has been undertaken in the past by the *Centros de Formação de Professores Primários* (CFPP). These institutions have been neglected in many ways over a long period, in terms of infrastructure, materials and human resources. CFPP were viewed as low status institutions and are being closed and replaced by *Institutos de Formação de Professores* (IFP) through refurbishment and construction. The theoretical function of these institutions is to prepare for both levels of primary school (EP1 and EP2). In practice, however, many students are deployed to the first cycle of secondary schools. Almost 80% of teachers in the first cycle of secondary education and more than 40% in the second cycle (Grades 11 and 12) of secondary education were only qualified to teach only in primary school (National Directorate of Planning as quoted in ADEA, 2008). They have followed a two-year course after completing Grade 10 or they have left school after the

completion of Grade 12, and become teachers without any sort of training. The impact of this is yet to be examined as far as quality of teaching is concerned. However, given the information it could be assumed that the most qualified primary school teachers are becoming secondary school teachers, leaving space for hiring unqualified teachers, who are cheaper. In my view this is a peril for the professionalisation of teachers.

In the early years of independence, the responsibility for defining policy and designing teacher training curricula lay with National Directorate of Teacher and Cadre Training, after which it moved to the National Directorate for Basic Education, and since 1997, it has rested with the national INDE (Passos, 2009).

What becomes clear in this section is that primary school teacher education programmes have been developed from elementary to intermediate levels. The length of programmes has changed from time to time, depending mainly on broader socioeconomic conditions.

Having briefly presented the primary teacher education programmes, the next section examines the secondary education teacher education programmes since the first years of the independence of the country.

#### **6.4 Secondary school teacher education development programmes: from liberated zones to university-based teacher education**

This section examines the process of secondary school teacher education, built on the basis of the experience accumulated in the liberated zones during the war against colonialism (1964-1974), and the experience of developing teachers education programmes within a context of independence according to a utopian ideology, which intended to create a new society formulated around the role of the “New Man”. The subsequent transformations which led to the construction of a democratic society are discussed to explain how the preparation of teachers has also been changing.

One cannot understand the essence of secondary schools teacher education development in Mozambique without a brief explanation of the legacy underpinning the process. Before achieving independence in 1975, there was no systematic programme for the training of secondary school teachers in Mozambique. A pedagogical programme for science and arts students was offered at the end of their study at the only colonial university in the country. The

relative few who attended this programme were sons and daughters of Portuguese settlers, and most of them left the country after independence.

The roots of teacher education development for secondary school teachers in Mozambique can be found in the mid-1970s during the period of transition, just before the independence of the country. During that period, many secondary teachers, mainly of Portuguese origin, left the country. The new government tried to solve the problem by bringing the experiences from the liberated zones (*zonas libertadas*)<sup>26</sup>. Thus, the experience from the liberated zones was inspirational in terms of how to deal with a lack of trained teachers. The result was that many teachers were secondary schools learners, that is, advanced students were appointed as teachers. The principle of 'learning by doing', which had been applied by FRELIMO during the liberation war, was introduced, along with the common slogan 'learning to fight by fighting'. This practice is confirmed by Barnes (1982) when she states that 'more often than not, students were also teachers; having progressed through one year, they would teach that year's material to others as they continued on up the educational ladder' (p. 409).

In 1977 the Ministry of Education introduced a commission which had the responsibility for pedagogic support, as well as the improvement of the teaching and learning methodology. Ongoing seminars were introduced, which served as a component of in-service training (MINED, 1990).

In 1976, the University of Lourenço Marques became Eduardo Mondlane University (UEM). This institution assumed the enormous responsibility for training of cadres for different sectors in the civil service intended to make the country operational. In education, courses were designed to prepare teachers for teaching in lower secondary schools, which were 1<sup>st</sup> year and 2<sup>nd</sup> year (Grade 5 and Grade 6) of *the preparatory cycle*.<sup>27</sup> It is important to note that, as an inheritance of the colonial education, at that time, primary education still had four grades. The first course of

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<sup>26</sup> Areas under control of FRELIMO during the war of national liberation (1964-1974). FRELIMO's secondary school in Dar-es-Salaam and schools in *liberated zones* emerged as the laboratory of FRELIMO's educational policies and alternative educational concepts.

<sup>27</sup> As a legacy of the colonial education system, after four years of primary school, learners were enrolled in a cycle of preparation for secondary education, which used to last two years.

secondary school Teacher Education trained 30 students (three from each of the 10 provinces), a heterogeneous group in terms of social and academic background. The minimum level required for access was Grade 9. The first group was prepared in teaching History and Geography. Initially, the course was nine months in duration. The intention was that training would take the form of a combination of academic preparation, followed by teaching practice in schools for two or three years. After that, trainee teachers would move into another cycle of preparation and practice, and so on. The main objective was to prepare a cohort of students to teach at least two subjects at any level from Grade 5 to Grade 11.

A year later, on the 8<sup>th</sup> of March 1977, the government instituted measures that had a large impact in society in general, and on education in particular. The *Centro 8 de Março*<sup>28</sup> was created; which as a former Catholic Seminary nationalised in 1975, was situated in Maputo, the capital of the country, where learners from different provinces were designated either to military service or to service in other civil sectors, including education. The majority were sent to the defence force, within the country and abroad, to be trained as military pilots or in other specialisations, of the army. A large group of students were selected for preparation as future secondary school teachers.

All of those prospective teachers were trained at Eduardo Mondlane University, even though some of them had only completed a junior secondary school level. The students combined some sort of military training at *Centro 8 de Março* with pedagogic and subjects content studies at the university. All students were trained for teaching two subjects at secondary schools from Grades 7 to 9.

In 1981 a Faculty of Education was created within the Eduardo Mondlane University. The creation of the faculty constituted a new era for secondary school teacher education, in terms of coordination. However, physical resources were not ideal: the faculty did not have its own building, and students from the new faculty had to use rooms belonging to other faculties. It continued with the same training model. Therefore, students were prepared to teach two subjects,

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<sup>28</sup> The Centro 8 de Março was a symbol of the measures announced by the then President of the People's Republic of Mozambique, Samora Moises Machel, which had a large impact throughout the country.

for example, History and Geography; Mathematics and Physics, Portuguese and English, and other pre-defined combinations. The teacher education was divided into two levels. One was for training future secondary schools teachers who had a junior secondary school level, which was Grade 9, and were prepared during two years for teaching two subjects from Grade 7 to 9. The other level used to train students who had completed Grade Eleven. They were also trained for two years for teaching what was called pre-university education (Grade 10 and Grade 11).<sup>29</sup> These were called the 9+2 or 11+2 programmes. Both were intensive courses, with a strong focus on the content of the subjects to be taught by the prospective teachers. The lecturers used to produce textbooks and other teaching material for the students at the faculty. The same material was used at secondary schools, mainly for Grade 10 and Grade 11. After two years, the 9+2 students were awarded a certificate as secondary school teachers with an intermediate level, equivalent to Grade 11. The 11+2 students were awarded a Bachelor degree in teaching in specified subjects.

The training for preparatory cycle teachers was no longer part of the university's duty. Teacher Education Colleges across the country became responsible for training Grade 5 and 6 teachers, until transformation was introduced in primary education.

The process of preparation of secondary schools teachers, from Grade 7 to Grade 11, was centralised. Thus, two groups of students who were selected by a commission at the Ministry of Education were required to go to Maputo. The students who were to be trained for junior secondary schools continued to stay at *Centro 8 de Março*. The others shared the university residences with students from different faculties. After two years of training, the Ministry of Education placed students in schools within the country, and/or sent them abroad to Cuba and the former GDR.<sup>30</sup> The centralisation of secondary school teacher education was in accordance with a socioeconomic, ideological and political programme, which was intended to build a new society and to create people who conformed to notions of what was called the 'New Man'. This has been explained elsewhere.

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<sup>29</sup> Currently Grade 11 and Grade 12.

<sup>30</sup> German Democratic Republic (1949-1990).

Therefore, at that time, the goals for teacher education defined by the Ministry of Education were to:

- ensure the integrated education of teachers, arming them with the scientific ideology of the proletariat, and thus enabling them to educate the youth and adults;
- instil in the teacher the profound and revolutionary conscience, based on the revolutionary principles of the FRELIMO party;
- consolidate the Scientific and Materialist view in the teacher;
- provide the teacher with pedagogic training based on a socialist pedagogy and adjusted to the demands of the revolutionary process; and
- allow the teacher to elevate his or her level of political, ideological, scientific, technical and pedagogical training (RPM, 1985).

Despite the replacement of the Faculty of Education by ISP in 1985, subsequently, in the early 1990s, the role to be played by this institution in teacher education remained unclear and to some extent, not consensual. Some voices were favourable to reinstating the major role of teacher education within the Eduardo Mondlane University. In that regard, Dzvimbo and Lima (1994) argued that:

[T]he UEM is the institution that should eventually coordinate these activities in teacher education through a new School or Institute or Faculty of Education. The model being suggested is that in the long run, both INDE and ISP should be part of the UEM. It is being suggested that some personnel in INDE will continue their basic and applied research and publication roles, while ISP forms the basis of the new Faculty or School of Education at UEM with closer involvement in shorter degree and non-degree programmes in teacher education. Some of the personnel from ISP will also be involved in both teaching, research and community services (p. 14).

They go on to say that the separation found at the time between the three institutions was “unjustifiable academically, professionally and economically” (p. 14). Other institutions, such as the World Bank, were also in favour of a process of merging the Public HEI in order to rationalise costs.

The suggestions presented by these scholars seem to be related to the need for coordination, which had been absent up until now. The issue of an urgent introduction of a coordinated teacher education framework I discuss in next chapters. The trend in different countries in the world has

been a closer cooperation between institutions of teacher education. As Musset (2010) has aptly put it:

Countries need to weave closer cooperation bonds between the different providers of teacher education as a continuum initial education and continuing training, for example, should be provided by the same institutions in order to assure a better coordination and allow contacts between teachers already in-service, and soon-to-be teachers. The first group could offer them practical experience, and teachers that are still in education could share the latest novelty in research and theory (p. 9).

Currently, at the national level in Mozambique, both pre-service and in-service education for primary school teachers falls under the jurisdiction of the Ministry of Education. The course content in primary school teacher education providers is controlled by the Ministry of Education. This seems to follow that which existed previously, where the education system was highly centralised. There is a question as to the ability of the Ministry of Education to design sound programmes for teacher education.

Secondary education teacher preparation has been developed at tertiary level. In spite of the existence of 48 institutions of higher education private and public, only five have programmes related to teacher education, with the Pedagogic University the major provider, adopting a concurrent model of teacher education. Other institutions are developing a consecutive model, where the programmes tend to be theoretical, with a continuing emphasis on the educational discipline and on subject knowledge at the expense of professional practice.

The country has developed the CRESCER<sup>31</sup> programme under the auspices of the ministry and located in the basic education institutions. Opportunities for in-service/CPD are generally limited to teachers in the primary/basic subsector, focusing on untrained teachers or on upgrading, and they are INSET, rather than CPD in nature. The distinction between initial training and in-service training has become blurred. Courses for untrained teachers in the CRESCER Programme are referred to as in-service provision or even as “continuing professional development” (CPD). These courses might be viewed as initial training, if not pre-service since

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<sup>31</sup> Crescer is translated as “improvement” in English. In this context, the term refers to a school-based teacher development programme.



the target students are teachers who, although already serving, have had no training whatsoever (ADEA, 2008). In fact, the opportunities for genuine continuing professional development are less frequent. Thus, it is argued here that the Pedagogic University, located as it is all over the country, ought to play a major role in filling that gap.

## **6.5 Conclusion**

In this chapter, after analysing different teacher education policies, strategies and processes within the country, it is possible to draw the following conclusions.

After analysing the policies and strategies of teacher education development, what can be seen is that a substantial amount of initiative has been coming from the post-independence government, which has been trying to address issues of expansion of the system of education and redress issues of inequalities, since 1975. The declared intention is to achieve this through preparation of teachers in quantity and quality by defining (i) new levels of entrance, which have been both upgraded and downgraded over the years; and (ii) the length of the programmes, mainly determined by the financial conditions.

Furthermore, it is noticeable that although there exist a variety of different documents related to teacher education, there has been an absence of a teacher education framework, which may lead to a lack of coordination. The implications of this ought to be considered in greater depth.

In theory, all the documents reviewed above recognise the role that ought to be played by teacher education programmes and infrastructure in the improvement of the quality of education. In spite of this, there is a gap in the solutions developed towards a sound framework which might contribute towards improving the quality of teacher education in a well-coordinated way, and trying to integrate the different phases, from initial to continuing development programmes.

In addition, a role ought to be played by the Pedagogic University as is highlighted in different documents from the Ministry of Education. However, a clear framework of how this might be done would contribute towards outworking of this requirement.

The programmes of teacher education have been through many vicissitudes. For instance, the programmes of primary teacher education have been changing since the colonial period, and the

experience in preparing secondary school teachers is more recent. Therefore it is a huge challenge within a context of paucity of financial resources

As a legacy of the Faculty of Education of the Eduardo Mondlane University, the first teacher education programmes developed at the ISP (then the Pedagogic University), were to prepare future teachers to be able to teach two different subjects. The combination of subjects was previously established by the different faculties already in place. The major difference was the length of the courses, which moved from 11+2 to 12+5 years of study, with a strong emphasis on content. The level of entrance changed radically. All students had to have at least 11 years or equivalent of schooling, and the institution no longer admitted students with junior secondary school certificate. Since then, new models have been developed.

The following chapter discusses the biography of the Pedagogic University, in terms of conceptualisation and implementation.

## CHAPTER 7: THE IDEA OF PEDAGOGIC UNIVERSITY - CONCEPTUALISATION AND IMPLEMENTATION

### 7.1 Introduction

This chapter deals with the conceptualisation of the Pedagogic University. It delves into the roots of the Pedagogic University, and how it emerged as the major provider of teacher education programmes, which is its current mission and vision. Therefore, the chapter seeks to present the biography of the Pedagogic University, which includes the ethical, economic and pedagogic assumptions underpinning the process of idealisation of the institution. In sum, the chapter narrates the reasons and assumptions underpinning the emergence and development of the institution. These processes have been transforming the Pedagogic University into the most important institution operating so far within the field of education in Mozambique.

This chapter addresses how *the Pedagogic University emerged and developed as a vocational institution*. The argument developed through this chapter is that the Pedagogic University has emerged as the ideal type, but there remains a question as to whether the logistics and sustainability of the university were carefully thought through. Therefore, the chapter argues for three major reasons behind the establishment of the Pedagogic University. These are:

the neglect of teacher education in the past, where for instance, the Faculty of Education of the Eduardo Mondlane University was almost a virtual unit, without its own infrastructure and with many lecturers who were from other faculties;

the increasing demand and consequently the increase in the number of students from the Faculty of Education, which as it is stated above, occupied the infrastructure belonging to other faculties; and

the politics of teacher education under the new regime, where teachers' roles were linked to ideological changes taking place in context of development of a new society, in which a 'New Man' was needed.

In summary, this chapter intends to look at the roots of the Pedagogic University, the context where it emerged and how it has been developing; to give the characterisation of the major actors; and to assess the emergence and development of faculties, schools and branches, which constitute the way of expanding programmes across the country. The chapter explains how the

Pedagogic University evolved from operating only in Maputo, becoming an institution that is established all over the country within a complex organisational structure consisting of faculties, schools and branches.

## 7.2 Introducing the Pedagogic University

The Pedagogic University emerged in a specific context of the development of the education system in Mozambique, which has been presented and discussed in the previous chapters. The huge demand for education led to the need for teachers in both higher levels of quality and quantity. Just to recall, the role of preparing teachers for secondary schools during the first decade of independence was attributed to the Eduardo Mondlane University, through its Faculty of Education, until 1985, when it was officially<sup>32</sup> closed, under the supervision of the MEC.

Therefore, the emergence of this institution of teacher education, first as a higher institution and then as a university, can be traced back to the mid-1980s, through a complicated process involving different actors, with apparently different interests. Thus, there were many arguments involving groups inside and outside the Eduardo Mondlane University, and their positions should be understood in a context where a single higher education institution was about to lose one of its major roles, which was the preparation of teachers. The context of these arguments is well elucidated by Alcido Ngoenha<sup>33</sup> when he puts forward that:

[T]here were people who thought that Eduardo Mondlane University was everything. They had the idea that it was sufficient to have just one university [and that] therefore, the Eduardo Mondlane University should embrace all things. Dr. Beirão is the person who should be considered the mother of the idea of creating the ISP (Higher Pedagogical Institute). He had some problems with Professor Ganhão<sup>34</sup> to the extent that Professor Ganhão was not [in favour of] the emergence of the ISP. I remember that behind the

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<sup>32</sup> The Faculty of Education continued to prepare teachers until 1989, when its last groups of students graduated.

<sup>33</sup> Former Deputy Rector of the Pedagogic University and former Ministry of Education.

<sup>34</sup> Fernando Ganhão was the Rector of the Eduardo Mondlane University.

scenes, the ISP was translated as ‘Institute of Blacks and Soviets’<sup>35</sup> (Alcido Ngoenha interviewed in Ismael et al., 2015, p.22).

Following almost the same line, Aniceto dos Muchangos, the first Rector of the Higher Pedagogic Institute ISP emphasises that:

[T]here was some controversy within the discussions between the late Ganhão, Graça Machel and the late Carlos Beirão. The late Ganhão did not agree with the creation of the ISP, while Graça Machel and Carlos Beirão wanted a teacher training institution independent of Eduardo Mondlane University. It was a discussion about which I understood nothing.<sup>36</sup> (Aniceto dos Muchangos interviewed in Ismael et al., 2015, p. 22).

In spite of all the controversies regarding the opening of a new institution of higher education, a decision was made in order to advance the process. The discussion revolved around the type of institution to be created and to what extent it would be informed by the experience of the Faculty of Education of the Eduardo Mondlane University. Thus, the functioning of the new institution of teacher education was preceded by a process of preparation. A committee of installation composed of the MEC, led by its Deputy Minister João Carlos Beirão, Paulus Gerdes (former Dean of the Faculty of Education of Eduardo Mondlane University), Arnaldo Nhavoto, Adelino Cruz, José Miguel Lopes de Sousa and Aniceto dos Muchangos (as representative of the Faculty of Education of Eduardo Mondlane University).

This committee had the task of providing all material conditions, human and financial requirements for early activities of the new institution. The beneficial aspect of that process was the involvement of people from different institutions, including the Eduardo Mondlane University, then in charge of preparing teachers for secondary schools, from Grade 7 to Grade 11. When one looks at the composition of the committee, it is also notable that its members had experience in teacher education. It ought to be asked to what extent this accumulated experience was taken in consideration. The answer coming from some of these protagonists is that little of

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<sup>35</sup> From the Portuguese Acronym, ISP *Instituto dos Pretos e Soviéticos*.

<sup>36</sup> My translation.

the experience developed by the Faculty of Education of Eduardo Mondlane University served to feed the new institution. This meant that new actors and new strategies had emerged (Ismael et al., 2015).

There have been a variety of opinions and speculations regarding the closure of the Faculty of Education in 1985, and the opening of a new public tertiary institution in charge of teacher education. There was sudden and unprecedented demand for secondary schools all over the country, which needed a large number of teachers, and the Faculty of Education, was unable to accommodate the demand. But if the opening of the university was simply to fulfil demand, the question is why they did not open a new institution, without closing the existing one.

The Strategic Plan for Higher Education (2000-2010) mentions some other reasons, where it states that, ãin those days, that faculty absorbed 50% of the new admissions. The creation of this institution was a response to the needs of raising the entrance level of the students, of increasing the coursesø length, and also because of its growing size would become intolerable within the UEMö (MESCT, 2000, p. 12). According to Kouwenhoven (2003, p. 22), the government wanted more control over the production of teachers and could do so by creating a new institution. This argument seems to be more plausible, because when one looks at the role that was attributed to educators in the process of change by the government, it was clear that the political agenda for change was as important to the government as that of academic competence.

The establishment by the Ministry of Education (ministerial diploma No. 73/85 of 4 December), in 1985, of the ISP, characterised as an institution specialising in the field of Educational Sciences, constituted a transition to a new era in the history of higher education in Mozambique, namely, an era of plurality. Therefore, the UEM was no longer the sole higher education institution in the country. In other words, the country moved away from a situation with only one higher education institution<sup>37</sup> in the colonial period to serve merely a small number of students.

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<sup>37</sup> The origins of higher education institutions can be traced back to 1962, with the opening of General and University Studies of Lourenço Marques the then capital of Mozambique. The decree-law number 44,550, which created the Higher education in Mozambique, was the same for the creation of tertiary education in Angola.

It should be noted that in that period of time, according to (Ismael, et al., 2015), Mozambique had a privileged cooperative relationship with the former USSR and the former GDR among the countries in the socialist block. They had operational universities, specialising in teacher education. The creation of a higher institution exclusively assigned to teacher education was apparently influenced by these socialist models (ibid.). Therefore, in practical terms, as far as teacher education is concerned, the Faculty of Education of Eduardo Mondlane University was replaced by the ISP.

The core business of the institution was the preparation of teachers for all levels of the National Education System and non-teacher staff within the field of Education Sciences. The creation of the ISP was a result of a strategic vision based on the need to reorganise the training of teachers in a better coordinate way. The name "Higher Pedagogic Institute" was chosen for the new institution, because it was closely linked to German model of teacher education, and that the biggest influence for its designation came from the late Carlos Beirão, who played a very important role regarding the establishment of such an institution (Ismael et al., 2015).

According to the Yearbook of the Pedagogic University (1995-1996), the Council of Ministers, taking into account the challenges posed by the growth and expansion of the institution, decided to transform the of Higher Pedagogical Institute into the Pedagogic University. Therefore, in April 1995, the statutes for the Pedagogic University were approved. In sum, the transformation of Higher Pedagogic Institute into Pedagogic University was determined on the one hand by its own growth, and on the other hand, by the context of development of higher education, with a significant presence of new, mainly private, stakeholders.

### **7.2.1 Objectives, principles and values**

In order to understand the roots the developments and changes that I will discuss later on, I present the objectives, principles and values of the institution. The programmes designed have been developed through different sites, namely faculties, schools, branches and other units of research, seeking to be aligned, at least in theory, to these objectives, principles, values, mission and vision, which are perceived to make the Pedagogic University a different institution of higher education. Therefore although certain changes that have been noticed, the primary objective of the institution is still to prepare teachers for the different levels of the national

education system. That is why teacher education programmes are still given priority in terms of space, and time, as well as the recruitment of well-qualified academic staff

Thus, according to Article 4 of its statutes (UP, 2010b), the general objective of the Pedagogic University is to provide higher training, research and extension. As a vocational institution, the Pedagogic University trains at tertiary level teachers for all levels of education (kindergarten, primary, and secondary, special, professional) as well as cadres for the education system and related areas. Other objectives expressed in the same article are presented below:

- to train professionals with high technical and scientific skills, able to participate actively in the development of the county;
- to develop a deontological awareness and professional pride;
- to promote among the students the critical and self-critical spirit of self, as well as a commitment to study, research, and work;
- to undertake actions of updating the knowledge of cadres and higher education graduates according to the progress of art, science and technology as well as national needs;
- to promote and encourage scientific research, studying the applications of science and technology in the priority areas of national development, and to disseminate these results;
- to promote and encourage scientific research, studying the applications of science and technology in priority areas of national development and to disseminate the results;
- to conduct off-campus activities and disseminate the culture, science and technology within Mozambican society, and to systematise and enhance the contributions of other sectors in the same areas; and
- to establish relations of cultural and technical exchanges, with national and foreign scientific institutions.

The principles of the Pedagogic University are presented in Article 3 of its statutes. Therefore, the Pedagogical University as an institution of higher education, acts in accordance with the following principles:

- democracy and respect for human rights;
- equality and non-discrimination;
- valorisation of the ideals of the nation, science and humanity;



- freedom of cultural, artistic, scientific and technological creation; and
- participation in the economic, scientific, social and cultural development of the country, the region and the world.

### 7.2.2 Values

The values pursued by the Pedagogic University are clearly expressed in its strategic plan already mentioned above. These values are: autonomy, freedom and democracy, excellence, trust, glocality,<sup>38</sup> social responsibility, justice and equity; and they should be considered in an interrelated manner. The values are described as follows:

- **Autonomy:** the pedagogical university is guided by the autonomous action within the scientific, pedagogical, administrative and financial areas, consistent with what is enshrined in its statutes as an institution of higher education.
- **Freedom and Democracy:** Freedom is a fundamental human right and can only be guaranteed in full within a democratic framework. As a university, the Pedagogic University emphasises the positive freedom, namely free and public use of reason, and academic freedom. Democracy in the context of Pedagogic University refers to the close observation of the methods of collegiality and respect for majority decision making in all collegiate bodies taking into account the statutes.
- **Excellence:** This value establishes the permanent engagement of the Pedagogic University in all activities regarding teaching, research and extension, looking steadily and systematically to outdo itself as individuals and as a community. By virtue of its status, the Pedagogic University aims to be an unavoidable reference in education.
- **Confidence:** This value stresses the need for the Pedagogic University to focus in all its activities, in building very strong and close relationship with the Mozambican society in general and with the communities surrounding all of branches in particular. Both particular communities and the Mozambican society at large must gain confidence in the ability of the Pedagogic University in fulfilling the social mission assigned to it.

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<sup>38</sup> Seems to be a combination of global and local.

- **Glocality:** involves the need for the Pedagogic University in fulfilling its mission in teaching, research and extension, to be guided by the universal principles of excellence in terms of quality, while at the same time, should have the dual responsibility to link the universal principles to a specific Mozambican contexts and to be inspired by local proposals in order to find local solutions for the development challenges.
- **Social responsibility:** this value underlines the fact that the Pedagogic University is committed to using all its scientific-pedagogical potential to participate actively in resolving psychological, political, social and economic obstacles regarding the process of development of Mozambique.
- **Justice and equity:** This value reaffirms the need for continued respect for the existing rights for the different social groups within and outside the university, as well as promoting equal access and working conditions for all (UP, 2010b).

### 7.2.3 Mission and Vision

The Pedagogic University is an institution of vocational education, whose statutory role is to train at tertiary level teachers for all levels of education and other professionals in the field of education or related to it, concerned with research and university extension. In this context, the Pedagogic University calls for universalisation and regionalisation, in addition to its instrumental role in the production and dissemination of knowledge, towards the transformation of Mozambican society towards a social, cultural and technological development. According to the Pedagogic University Strategic Plan (2011-2017), the institution should be a point of reference within higher education in Mozambique with regard the training process, research, university extension, and quality, framed in a curriculum structured on basis of regional and international standards; with modern physical infrastructure and laboratories and, with a collegial, transparent, and modern management style of governance (UP,2010b).

After presenting the objectives, principles, values, and mission and vision of the Pedagogic University, I now turn to the question of how the institution may be perceived as different by the major actors, namely academic staff and students.

### **7.3 A different higher education institution: How different is it?**

#### **7.3.1 Perceptions from academic staff and students**

In spite of the apparent clarity of its objectives and principles, values, mission and visions as expressed in its statutes, the analysis regarding what makes The Pedagogic University different comparing to other higher education institutions brings different perceptions from academic staff and fourth-year students from different faculties and schools selected as participants in this research.

First of all, academic staff interviewed tend to associate the difference on the basis of the mission, the experience and the way the programmes of teacher education are organised (integrated curriculum) and delivered as well as the students' profile. In that regard, the majority of the students are perceived to be part of the underprivileged groups, meaning that there is a difference between students enrolled for teacher education programmes at Pedagogic University and students from other institutions of tertiary education.

The following narratives are organised on basis of the issues raised by them.

##### ***7.3.1.1 Name and the mission make a difference***

Thus an academic staff member states that:

[Y]es, I consider it different because of its mission [í ] it immediately demarcates the territory, teacher education is here! [sic]. The Pedagogic University has been concerned with the training of its staff providing Masters Programmes in different areas. It is the only university that does this (AS7).

It is a clear affirmation that the pedagogic has a mission which is different from other institutions of tertiary even those that are also running teacher education programmes, mentioned in another part of this thesis. What is interesting in this narrative is the fact that the informant brings an important element regarding the training of staff through postgraduate programmes, within a context where the institution has been trying to change its academic staff profile. I will come to this later on.

Another academic staff member, apart from training component, brings the experience of institutions as an element that makes the Pedagogic University different and contributes to consolidate the institution within the field of teacher education. The historical aspect, related to the fact that the pedagogic is a continuity of the work developed by the Faculty of Education was underlined (see chapter 5). He narrates:

Others universities give a general training. The Pedagogic University accumulated experience, which makes the level of training higher comparing to other. It has an advantage, [í ] it is a pioneer í it was inspired in the Faculty of Education, which played a very important role in 1970s and 1980s (AS5).

In line with the question of how different the Pedagogic University is, the following narratives elucidate how curricular issues and how teacher education programmes have been a factor of that difference. They note:

I think in relation to the mission, we have different curricula, and our curriculum is integrated. It has branches in all provinces (AS1).

The Pedagogic University differs greatly from other higher education institutions [í ] it is specialised in teacher education (AS2).

First, it is a Pedagogic University dedicated to training of teachers [í ] although in recent years it has not being confined to teacher education (AS5).

Thus, there is a general perception that the institution is different, not only because of what it does, but also the way it has been developing its programmes. Most participants link the pedagogical element in the name of the institution to a specific area of sciences of education, namely teacher education. The following narrative is evidences this:

When we were developing the current curricular reform I met a rector who knows Mozambique [í ] discussing with him the role of the Pedagogic University, he said that the Pedagogic University should continue doing what is doing, because the Pedagogic University assures the training of teachers in Mozambique, and no other university can do like the university is doing, with a sound methodological approach. The Ministry of Education recognises that the Pedagogic University is doing a good job [í ] (AS14).

These perceived differences are in line with what Morrow (2007, p. 75) highlights about tertiary institutions in some countries in developed countries:

[R]ecently in the United Kingdom a broad distinction has been made between two kind of higher education: one the traditional academic (or disciplinary) education and the other a work-oriented education that is designed to prepare, learners for a future occupation. The former is said to have the goal of developing academic competences, and the latter to have the goal of developing occupational competences.

An academic member of staff, brings another dimensions not far from the perspective brought in by Morrow (ibid,), the dimensions introduced by the institutional changes. He argues that in spite of the transformations which have been occurred, the Pedagogic University continues to be different due to its major role:

[I]t remains different because is focused in teacher education. The Pedagogic University gives a very specific training [í ] the training of teachers at the Pedagogic University is not only concerned to prepare professionals who teach, but also a professional who while exercising his/her profession as a teacher promotes ethical values professional and deontological principle (AS6).

### ***7.3.1.2 Teacher education, the brand of the institution***

It is also perceived that teacher education is a trademark of the institution, and that the process of preparation of the prospective secondary school teachers seems to be unique within the Mozambican context. Therefore the next comment proves interesting, where it is perceived that the Pedagogic University is in the frontline regarding to teacher education.

Teacher Education is a trade name of the Pedagogic University [í ] I think that the big difference is to train teachers and educational personnel (AS14).

### ***7.3.1.3 An institution for students from underprivileged economic backgrounds***

The academic staff member (AS4) establishes a difference on the basis of his perception regarding the students' background, not on the basis of what the institution does in terms of programmes. He highlights the differences between the Pedagogic University in terms of the type of students who are enrolled and why, and the perceptions regarding the work conditions given to that institution comparing to the major public institution of higher education, the

Eduardo Mondlane University. The comparisons seem to be always present, because both the Pedagogic University and the Eduardo Mondlane University constitute the biggest public higher education institutions in Mozambique. Thus he states that,

The first remark that should be taken into account is the fact that the Pedagogic University has been seen as an institution for the underprivileged; for people who are unable to enter in other public institutions through admission exams or cannot afford to pay their tuition fees in private institutions [í ] so it is the last alternative. Supposedly students who are at the Pedagogic University probably they do not want the courses that are offered [í ] are in because it is the last alternative (AS4).

This seems to be a trend in developing countries, regarding to the conditions and compensation offered to teacher education students and practising in comparison with those of other occupations (Vegas as cited in Schwille and Dembélé, 2007, p. 42). I will come to this later on, when I analyse the admission criteria for teacher education programmes at the Pedagogic University.

#### ***7.3.1.4 Working conditions make a difference***

In terms of the experience of the academic staff, teacher education programmes and how different the institution is when compared to Eduardo Mondlane University, a narrative expresses that in the following terms

[S]ome lecturers are like myself, without a specific training. The second remark is related to teacher education, nothing is running accordingly [í ] class sizes are too large and this very negative. It seems that the funds allocated to the Pedagogic University are very scarce, and it is reflected [in] the work conditions, and the conditions of the academics themselves. The Eduardo Mondlane University has *other conditions* different from the Pedagogic University. *This confirms that the Pedagogic University is for the poor, for those who have no alternative* (AS4).

What becomes clear from the data is the awareness the majority of academic staff have regarding the mission and the vision of their institution. Furthermore, they maintain that the mission makes the Pedagogic University different from other tertiary institutions, and even those that are also

preparing teachers, they do it in a different way. Through the academic staff interviews, it is also clear what role should be played by the Pedagogic University regarding the preparation of teachers for secondary schools. Some of them are convinced that the way the institution has been preparing teachers is the best within the country, when compared to others such as Eduardo Mondlane University.<sup>39</sup>

Regarding the same question, many students, when asked to present their perceptions about the differences between the Pedagogic University and other Mozambican higher education institutions, have similar viewpoints. Therefore, the different narratives converge to ideas that express the difference as more related to the fact of being a *vocational institution in charge of preparing teacher*. For instance (SS3; SS4: SD10; SL4; SE18, SE19), are in line with that.

In addition other students underline the quality of the programmes of teacher education as an element of difference. The following is an example of this conviction:

[í ] *I believe that the Pedagogic University, for me, apart from other things, that there is no need to mention here [í ] is the best university in training of teachers. In this case in order to have an education [of] quality, it is imperative that our teachers should be trained at the Pedagogic University (SL4).*

Among the students, there is also an idea that what makes a difference between the Pedagogic University and another institution of higher education is the name. They try to associate the name with what it supposedly does. The quotes below clearly make a link between the name and the mission.

First, I think that the name itself carries the meaning. The university has an educational component, that I guess the other maybe have but not as much as the Pedagogic University, which is didactic and contributes to the preparation of good teachers. As far as teacher education is concerned, the lecturers are good and they are different from the other universities (SE18).

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<sup>39</sup> The Eduardo Mondlane University has been running teacher education through a consecutive model. The differences between consecutive model and concurrent model are explained elsewhere.

I think what distinguishes the Pedagogic University from other institutions is that the Pedagogic University is merely the same as the name indicates. Merely training teachers, to prepare people with ability to work in schools and training future cadres. I think the difference is there [í ] here we have psycho-pedagogical disciplines, which characterise this university. Even if we have teachers in other institutions it is because of the existence of the Pedagogic University (SE19).

I say that because even the name itself is Pedagogic University [í ] Pedagogy is the art of teaching the art of education, so if we want an education [of] quality, we have to have a psycho-pedagogical training, and such psycho-pedagogical training is done right here at the Pedagogic University (SL14).

Therefore, although the changes that have been occurring by introducing programmes not related to education the many people still associate the name of the institution to activities related that particular field.

#### ***7.3.1.5 Ease of employability***

The expressed ease of employability among students is of interest, and must be related to the fact that the education system is still in a process of expanding. Therefore, the demand for teachers is higher than the supply, and some prospective students see that the Pedagogic University constitutes a means of avoiding unemployment, which for many reasons, tends to increase all over the country, in spite of the economic growth of about 7% per year.

The following statement translates the general perception that although the problems of unemployment that have been affecting youths even with undergraduate studies, there is always space to become a teacher. As I mentioned earlier Mozambique is a country with a youth population. This population needs schooling. Therefore the education policies attempt to expand the different levels of education system, which needs teachers in quality and quantity:

*The only difference is that it is easier to enter the labour market when the student does the Pedagogic University, taking into consideration that there is a shortage of teachers (SC7).*



It is clear that the students' perceptions regarding the Pedagogic University have many dimensions. Apart from the mission, which seems to be well understood by them, they likewise raise the issue of quality, where they stress that the difference is not only in the name but also in the commitment to prepare students to join in addressing the challenges of preparing subsequent generations of students.

By perceiving the difference between the pedagogic universities, both academic staff and students understand not just the mission and vision, but also the role to be played by the institution regarding teacher education. The next section presents the process of expanding the institution through faculties, schools and branches across the country.

#### **7.4 Faculties, Schools, and Branches: An original way of expanding tertiary education in a Mozambican context**

This section examines the process of development of the institution through new faculties and schools, and the strategy of expansion throughout the country through the creation of branches. It also examines what informs the expansion process, since the establishment of the institution in 1985.

Reconstructing the institutional pathways since 1985 was made possible by an analysis of available documents. These included yearbooks: 1993-1994, 1995-1996 and 1998-1999; speeches made by the rectors on the occasion of graduation ceremonies; strategic plans (2000-2010; 2011-2017); Bases and Curricular Guidelines for Undergraduate courses at the university (2010); and documents related to curricular revision from 2003 and curricular reform from 2008. Therefore, since its creation in 1985, the institution evolved as it is presented chronologically below.

It started in 1986 with only three faculties, namely the Faculty of Mathematics and Physics, offering a programme in teaching Mathematics and Physics; the Faculty of History and Geography, which provided a single programme in teaching History and Geography; and the Faculty of Pedagogy and Psychology, responsible for training students in these two fields.

In 1987 the Faculty of Languages came into operation, which provided a programme in teaching Portuguese, and later on, two other programmes were introduced. One programme was for preparing future English teachers and the other programme for training students in teaching

French. It should be noted that, in contrast to other programmes, the language programmes have always prepared students to teach a single subject, namely Portuguese, English or French. The faculty was then renamed the Faculty of Language, Communication and Arts.

A year later, in 1988, the Faculty of Chemistry and Biology began to offer a bivalent degree in teaching both subjects.

In 1991 the faculties created hitherto changed their names. By changing the names of the faculties, the institution had the following objectives: (i) to broaden the spectrum of their activities, enabling the integration of courses in new areas of science; and (ii) to respond through the integration of new areas/courses into the already recognised need to train teachers in other subjects (UP, 2010). Thus, the Faculty of History and Geography became the Faculty of Social Sciences, a name that remains to date; and the Faculty of Pedagogy and Psychology changed its name to the Faculty of Pedagogical Sciences, currently known as the Faculty of Educational Sciences and Psychology. The Faculties of Mathematics and Physics and Chemistry and Biology merged in order to become the Faculty of Natural Sciences and Mathematics (ibid.).

In 1993, the Faculty of Sciences of Physical Education and Sport, was created. This faculty was offering a single degree in Physical Education. Currently, the faculty is designated by the Faculty of Physical Education and Sport.

#### **7.4.1 The branches**

If we return to 1989, an analysis of higher education in the country showed that more than two-thirds of students in higher education came from the south of the country. The same situation was true in the last stages of secondary education (Grades 11 and 12). These circumstances demanded government intervention to prevent a burdensome future in the north. The commission which had prepared the report suggested the creation of an institution outside the capital, located outside the southern region of Mozambique. The report was discussed and approved by the Council of Ministers. The question posed had to do with the type of institution to be created whether or not it might be independent, or a branch of an already existing institution.

In coordination with the Ministry of Education, the Rector of the Higher Pedagogic Institute was asked to open a branch in Beira, the capital of the central province of Sofala. What can be seen is

that the process of expanding the institution was to some extent connected to external needs. The context behind the emergence of that branch and others later on, shows that to some extent, this process was politically motivated. In other words, it was an endogenous decision, strongly influenced by the *structure*<sup>40</sup> then in place. The government was more than willing to open the branches, but it seems that the Pedagogic University did not wait for the right moment for its expansion because had to follow a political agenda. Furthermore, there is no evidence showing that when the institution emerged, it had a plan regarding its expansion. It appeared as an urgent need brought by the Ministry of Education. That is why the process of expansion was supported by the government through the concession of infrastructure such as primary schools, secondary schools or part thereof, as well as other state buildings described below.

As a result, the geographical expansion of the institution started in 1989, with the creation of the first branch in Beira, which occupied the premises of what was then the Patrice Lumumba Commercial School. Since then, the Higher Pedagogic Institute became the first higher education institution to operate outside the capital of the country. It was an enormous challenge not just for the institution, but also for the decision makers, who were trying to address and redress the issues of inequality and equity by introducing equitable policies regarding tertiary education. Two different ideas were emerging: (i) the most conservative, which considered that expanding tertiary education to other provinces, would be a risk in terms of quality; (ii) the second was related to a populist point of view, which advocated some sort of massification of higher education.

The second branch of the Pedagogic University was created in Nampula, in the north of the country, in 1995. It started to run in a small building with five rooms, including some offices. Owing to the rapid expansion of secondary education and the demand for places in higher

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<sup>40</sup> The debate concerning the primacy of either structure or agency with regard to human behaviour is a central ontological issue. Structure and agency is a key understanding mechanism within social science. Put it simply, agency refers to the capacity of individuals to act independently and to make their own free choices; structure is explained in terms of the social/economic/political context in which action occurs. Ultimately, the structure versus agency debate may be understood simply as the issue of socialisation against autonomy (see Giddens, 1984; Archer, 1995; Hay, 1995).

education, which the northern region quickly resented, it was necessary to find more spaces to accommodate new students and new courses. In 1999, the Pedagogic University managed to acquire the installations belonging to the former Middle Pedagogical Institute, which is currently functioning as the Napipine Campus.

In 2001, the third branch of the Pedagogic University in Quelimane was created. The administrative services were established in an apartment at the centre of the capital of the Zambézia province. The lectures were held in rooms and other spaces assigned by the Middle Pedagogical Institute.

In 2005, two branches, one in Gaza province and another one in Niassa province were created. At its inception, the Pedagogic University in Niassa received from the Provincial Directorate of Education and Culture in Niassa an apartment which served as the headquarters of the branch, while the lectures were delivered in rented rooms belonging to the Institute of Training and Public Administration. The Pedagogic University in Gaza established its headquarters at the Joaquim Chissano Secondary School. In the meantime, the construction of the first classrooms in Venhene was happening, with support from the Development Unit of Basic Education laboratory (UDEBA-Lab).

In 2007 the Branch of Pedagogic University in Massinga a district of Inhambane Province was created, having occupied the premises of what was then known as April 29 Primary School, which was transformed into what is now the campus.

In 2008, two branches were simultaneously created: the Pedagogic University in Manica province and the Pedagogic University in Montepuez, a district of Cabo Delgado Province. These branches had started operating in temporary premises. In 2009, after the establishment of a branch in Tete, the institution is present in all provinces of Mozambique.

#### ***7.4.1.1 The debate about the type of branches***

After the description of the process of development of the institution, I briefly discuss a fundamental issue related to governance and management of the institution, the question of decentralisation, which has been a central issue within the process of expanding the institution across the country. As McGinn and Welsh (1999, p. 18) put forward:

Decentralisation is about shifts in the location of those who govern, about transfers of authority from those in one location or level vis-à-vis education organisations [sic] to those in another level. The location of authority is expressed in terms of the location of the position or the governing body (for example the district level).

Rondinelli et al. (as cited in McGinn and Welsh, 1999) affirm that decentralisation is often defined in terms of four degrees of transfer of authority, namely: de-concentration, delegation, devolution and privatisation (p. 18). McGinn and Welsh (1999) consider four possible locations of authority, namely the central government; provincial state or regional governing bodies; municipal, county or districts governments; and schools.

The process of the decentralisation of education in Mozambique has been determined by the process of change since its independence in 1975. I have explained these transformations in the Chapter Four of this thesis. What ought to be noted concerning the process of decentralisation is that after independence, a highly centralised system of governance in accordance with the political and ideological principles was put in place. The changes towards a more democratic regime contributed towards a process of reforms envisaging decentralisation. Since 2001, this process has been taking place slowly, through different institutions of the government, including education.

The issues of centralisation and decentralisation are raised by the fact that, according to its statutes, the Pedagogic University is organised into several organs, from central to local. Therefore, there is a question as to what the role has been attributed to the local units regarding the process of governance of the institution.

In that regard, two distinct moments can be found. The first corresponds to the process of the creation of the first branch in 1989 until 2007, when a different leadership was established. Thus, during the first moment, the idea was to implement some sort of decentralisation, and then some sort of autonomy. In a speech made at a graduation ceremony on 6 September, 1994, Paulus Gerdes, the then Rector of the Higher Pedagogic Institute, announced the transformations to be introduced and the issue of decentralisation and autonomy was brought to the fore. The draft statutes of the Pedagogic University predicted its organisation in several pedagogic institutes. In other words the pedagogic institutes would be incorporated into the Pedagogic University, but with greater autonomy than the extant branches.

After the transformation of the Higher Pedagogic Institute in Pedagogic University, the first branches created in Beira and Nampula were moving in that direction. These branches were getting stronger and stronger. The rector of the Pedagogic University at the time, Carlos Machili, seemed to be in favour of this situation. This fact can be confirmed by the advanced level of autonomy put in place, translated into the creation of new programmes, and the opening of faculties by local decision makers. With the changes in the leadership in 2007, the process was reversed. The reason why this happened is apparently related to the need for better institutional coordination. This is corroborated by an academic member of staff who held an important role in the process of curricular review in 2003, and the curricular reform in 2008. The following statement is instructive in this regard:

The Pedagogic University had a decentralised model of management; until 2007, the branches had a decision-making power. For instance, the Beira branch had already faculties. At that time the Pedagogic University was living a moment [...] we did not know what kind of university it was [...] public or private? It was necessary to discuss the nature of the university, which had changed considerably (AS1).

Apart from the issue of decentralisation in administrative terms, in my view what seems to bring major tension between local and central authorities in charge of the management of the institution, is related to financial management, where many decisions are highly centralised. When this research was close to an end I informally spoke to directors of two branches. They manifested many concerns in relation to that aspect.

Currently, the Pedagogic University is structured into five faculties: Psychology and Educational Sciences (FACEP); Language Sciences, Communication and Arts (FCLCA); Natural Sciences and Mathematics (FCNM); Social Sciences (FCS); and Physical Education and Sports (FEFD). In addition to the faculties, two schools are also running, namely Higher Technical School (ESTEC) and Higher Technical School of Accounting and Management. These organisational units offer not only training programmes regarding teacher education, but also courses regarding the preparation of other professionals. There are different modes of delivering all the programmes offered by the Pedagogic University, including distance learning. The institution is present in all Mozambican provinces, allowing students to remain, in their areas of residence

with greater ease, contributing to a significant decrease in migration, which was common in the past, due to the lack of higher education institutions.

## **7.5 Brief characterisation of the major actors**

### **7.5.1 Heterogeneous way of recruiting and selecting students: combining youth and experience - what is the result?**

The admission policies at the Pedagogic University are informed by current legislation related to higher education. The first instrument which has been used for selection is the admission exam. There are also other modalities, which allow students to gain access without the requirement of an admission exam. The academic staff are aware of the admission policy framework, and their opinions are not convergent. In some cases, they do not understand the reason why such policies are in place, and some do not agree with the way students have been selected for teacher education programmes run by the institution. Some academics consider that in certain cases, the process contributes towards undermining the quality of the different programmes, because there are students who have a lack of basic knowledge in terms of subject content. In other words, there is an assumption that it is difficult to prepare someone who does not have the necessary basic knowledge.

Currently, the situation at the Pedagogic University can be considered as heterogeneous in terms of infrastructure, student background, teacher background and experience.

Only a certain number of students can be accommodated at university residences. The presence of the institution throughout the country minimises this problem to some extent. But the reality is that some programmes have been running only in some branches. For that reason, students who have been looking for a specific course which they need to enrol for, have to travel to other provinces where they face the problem of accommodation.

The heterogeneity extends to the student body, which includes students who are already teachers with a middle level, trained at teacher education colleges while there are yet more students who have completed their secondary educations at high schools. There are also students from different public institutions, such as the Ministry of Defence and Veterans of Liberation Struggle among others, with which the Pedagogic University has a mutual agreement. This allows some civil servants to access without an admission exam, irrespective of whether or not they are

prepared to follow their preferred field of study. The presence of these categories of students seems to be problematic, and not well accepted by certain academic staff members interviewed for this study. An even worse situation can be observed in the Physical Education courses, where a certain level of fitness is required and where certain students are simply not able to keep up with the physical demands.

Therefore the student profile ranges from newly graduated Grade 12 from general secondary schools, along with students who are already teaching in primary schools or junior secondary schools. In ideal conditions, these students would be considered as if they were in-service training, but the programmes running at the Pedagogic University are conceived for initial teacher education. Finally, there are even students who work in different public institutions, not as teachers.

Despite the heterogeneity, at some point all students must have participated in a process of “apprenticeship of observation”. This process, coined by Lortie (1975), describes the phenomenon whereby student teachers arrive for their training courses having spent thousands of hours as schoolchildren observing and evaluating professionals in action. This contrasts with novices learning other professions. He argues that “apprenticeship of observation” is largely responsible for many of the preconceptions that pre-service student teachers hold about teaching. In other words, one of the most powerful influences on the knowledge base of pre-service teachers is the “apprenticeship of observation”. Throughout their time as students, they have observed the actions of teachers and reached conclusions about what it means to be a teacher, how to go about teaching and “the widespread idea that anyone can teach” (p. 62). According to Schwille and Dembélé (2007, p. 30):

[M]any teachers are more influenced in teaching by how they themselves were taught in elementary and secondary schools, than by their formal teacher education. In other words, a teacher who has been taught throughout elementary and secondary school by respected teachers who used a direct transmission mode of delivery and very little student-centred inquiry, is likely to identify with that mode of teaching and be deeply resistant to superficial attempts to change.



Nevertheless it does not mean that the prospective students are ready to become teachers, but they have some sort of knowledge regarding the profession. Through the real process of preparation, some of them reveal limitations regarding the basic knowledge which constitutes the foundation to perform and succeed as a secondary school teacher of a specific subject, or various subjects. In that regard, looking at the perceptions of academics in relation to the students they have been dealing with, the general conclusion is that the students who are entering through admission exams are more likely to perform better. However, the situation varies from course to course, depending on: (i) the time that prospective teachers have been away from studies (how long they have interrupted their studies); (ii) the complexity of the course they applied for; and (iii) the availability and preparedness to be committed to their studies.

The problems regarding the selection criteria of students for teacher education programmes have been studied consistently throughout the world in both developing and developed countries, in order to understand and address issues related to attraction, recruitment and retention. It is recognised that whatever the structure of the teacher career, the pool of prospective teachers from which teacher education institutions are able to draw, is often far from optimal, especially in developing countries, and that the status of teachers is said to be in decline throughout much of the world, even in high-income countries. In low-income countries, the difficulties facing teachers are often much worse (Lambert, as cited in Schwille and Dembélé, 2007). The factors influencing entry into teaching have to do not only with individual interests and dispositions, but also with the conditions and compensation offered to teacher education students and practising teachers, in comparison with those of other occupations (Villegas-Reimers as cited in Schwille and Dembélé, 2007, p. 42). On the one hand, in some countries, applicants for teacher education are well-qualified in terms of their content knowledge and other educational achievements, and/or are highly motivated to teach, when compared to entrants of other post-secondary programmes. However, in most developing and industrialised countries, this is not the case. Therefore, one of the reasons for the poor academic preparation of candidates entering the field is that there are not enough qualified teachers in the profession to satisfy demand. In other words, to attract more teachers into the field, the quality of the programmes has decreased, and the criteria for selecting candidates of teacher education are almost non-existent (Villegas-Reimers, 2003, p. 51).

The following narratives, opinions, assertions and statements from academic staff as participants in this research, address the situation in terms of where the students come from, and they also present some perceptions regarding the strengths and weakness of each category of students.

#### ***7.5.1.1 Three different groups of students***

The academics easily identify the different groups of students according to the diversity described above, and below, they comment on how they were selected, along with their strengths and weaknesses. They identified three groups of students:

We have about three groups of students, those who come directly from the general secondary school; they are very young, and they enter via admission exams. The second group is selected by the Ministry of Education, they are teachers or other staff from Education; they are adults, [...] and the third group, which is constituted by students who were studying Philosophy at Catholic Seminar, they completed three years, they register for some subjects in the 4<sup>th</sup> year. In this case, we select, we look at the marks, and we select the best [...] (AS6).

We find students who come from Grade 12, students who have already been teaching, others who enter through the system of quotas from the Ministry of Defence and other institutions. The students coming from Grade 12 are young, but when well supported, end up being good students [...] (AS2).

Fundamentally students are selected through admission exams and selection via curriculum vitae [...] some of them are schoolteachers (AS4).

In summary, through these narratives it is possible to find three groups of students. The first is constituted of students graduated recently from higher school, with Grade 12. These students should write an admission exam in order to have access to the programmes developed at the institution. The second group is constituted of students who enter without admission exams; some of them are already school teachers without training or trying to upgrade their qualifications as teachers. The third group are students who come from other institutions looking for the pedagogical component.

### ***7.5.1.2 Different backgrounds, different goals and different performances***

These students are perceived to have different goals, and their performances seem to be highly influenced by their background. As it is stated by an academic staff member, the students perform differently taking into account their backgrounds:

The performance is completely different ó some have a lot of experience, are mature, others are young, and others have a òtheological mentalityö (AS6).

Another academic staff member presents a clear distinction between them, showing that their backgrounds and goals are affecting their performances

I feel that their goal is to uplift their career. The students [...] from Grade 12, as the course evolves they become more interested in learning. The willingness to learn is higher among these boys and girls than [it is] in the other students, who only intend to get the *canudo* (certificate, diploma). But there are exceptions. (AS4).

The experience of enrol students for teacher education on basis of their experience is not recent. What is happening now seems to be related to the characteristics of the teachers who have been selected. Most of them do not have a preparation in the subjects they intend to enrol for. The following narrative is elucidative in that regard.

Those who have experience as teachers are different from those who used to be selected in the past. We used to excel! [...] perhaps because currently primary school teachers are being selected who have experience, but they stop studying for long periods of time. This is also related to their previous training 6+1<sup>41</sup> and refresher courses. They did not manage to conclude general secondary school (neither Grade 10 nor Grade 12). Those who enter through quotas have many problems; people may think that Portuguese is easier [...] they are just training in order to get a higher degree [...] they already have a job. This is more

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<sup>41</sup> Students with the former Grade 6 were allowed to enrol in teacher education programmes which lasted one year. This programmes were phased out.

aggravated in English and French courses [...] students do not even know how to speak those languages! (AS2).

The consequence of all of this is summarised and underlined through the narrative below:

[T]he quality of students is getting worse [...] there is a gap between what we want to offer and what is their knowledge basis. The Grade 12 students, the young, have an acceptable background. Those who come through institutional agreements have a great learning deficit, what they want is to obtain the diploma (AS11).

#### ***7.5.1.3 Blaming the process of selection***

Some heads of department recognise that the criteria for selecting students are perceived to be problematic, and that they need to be improved. For instance, a head of department from the Faculty of Physical Education recognised the existence of many concerns regarding the background of the students attending the programmes available:

Some students are athletes who have been teaching Physical Education for many years, and they come here for the scientific part [...] there is the group sent by the Ministry of Education [í ] are teachers from other areas and in the second semester they already want to leave this course to another. We have good results with the first group of students. The major problem is related to those coming from the Ministry of Education. They are over 35 years old, already adults and cannot do some activities. Our courses are practical [...] they cannot play basketball and to perform a basic technique related to any game [...] (HD3).

#### ***7.5.1.4 Reducing the pace in order to accommodate all***

Sometimes that kind of heterogeneity forces lecturers to adopt a slower pace in order to accommodate students whose background does not permit a solid understanding of the content knowledge, mainly because the syllabi are designed in a concentric way. For instance, the head of the department of Mathematics confirms the fact that some students enrolled in Mathematics teacher education are ill-prepared. Most of them belong to the group of students who have access through different protocols signed by the Pedagogic University, with other public institutions. This has been explained by another academic as follows:

Our problem is those students who come from the Ministry of Education. They have years of experience as teachers, but their level of Mathematics is very weak. The lecturers try to slow down. This undermines the motivation of the students coming from Grade 12. With the enrolment of students from the MoE the quality of teaching is declining in my department (HD4).

What can be seen throughout these statements is that the selection criteria do not satisfy academic expectations. By interpreting these staff concerns, it can be concluded that they expect to receive students who can meet the minimum requirements regarding not only the content knowledge needed for different programmes, but also some sort of fitness for programmes such as Physical Education, which is a combination of theory and practice. There is also a general perception that some students, mainly those who have access through protocols signed by the Pedagogic University with other public institutions are ultimately interested in uplifting their careers. In other words, as long as they conclude their courses, the possibility of being promoted is very high.

The following tables try to present the recent trends of student enrolment at the Pedagogic University. It should be noted that the growing of the student cannot be dissociated from what some scholars call *institutional massification*. As Mohamedbai (2008, p.4) proposed:

In order to accommodate the large numbers of students wishing to access higher education in a country, the higher education institutions in that country also experience huge increases in student enrolment. That can be considered as *institutional massification*, although there is hardly any definition of institutional massification in higher education literature.

The author goes on to say that an important characteristic of the majority of African higher education institutions is that they have experienced institutional massification, but with no adequate planning, and without a proportionate accompanying increase in resources (human, financial, physical) to enable them to cope with the situation (ibid). It seems that the Pedagogic University has followed almost the same path. I elaborate on that in the Chapter 8.

**Table 7.1: Evolution of the total number of students at the Pedagogic University (2004-2009)**

2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
8,090	11,759	15,510	31,695	34,421	34,578

Source: UP, 2010b.

Thanks to different programmes not directly related to teacher education introduced in 2005, the number of students rose considerably, having more than tripled from 2004 to 2007.

The following table presents the landscape regarding students' enrolment in different branches in 2010.

**Table 7.2: Students' enrolment in different branches at the Pedagogic University – 2010**

Branch	Undergraduate programmes		Postgraduate programmes (Masters)		Distance Education programmes		Total	
	Number	%		%	Number	%	Number	%
UP Maputo <sup>42</sup>	15.589	39,5	558	87,3	511	24,7	16.658	39,5
UP Beira	6.456	16,4	81	12,7	337	16,3	6.874	16,3
UP Gaza	1.943	4,9	-	-	-	-	1.943	4,6
UP Manica	981	2,5	-	-	122	5,9	1.103	2,6
UP Massinga	738	1,9	-	-	302	14,6	1.040	2,5
UP Montepuez	532	1,3	-	-	93	4,5	625	1,5
UP Nampula	5.294	13,4	-	-	370	17,9	5.664	13,4
UP Niassa	2.319	5,9	-	-	335	16,2	2.654	6,3
UP Quelimane	3.321	8,4	-	-	-	-	3.321	7,9
UP Sagrada Família	1.851	4,7	-	-	-	-	1.851	4,4
UP Tete	395	1,0	-	-	-	-	395	0,9

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<sup>42</sup> UP Maputo used to be a branch, but since 2007 is no longer. The different programmes have been integrated in different faculties and schools based in Maputo, which are responsible for design, implementation and monitoring of programmes all over the country.

Branch	Undergraduate programmes		Postgraduate programmes (Masters)		Distance Education programmes		Total	
	Number	%		%	Number	%	Number	%
Total	39.419	100,0	639	100,0	2.070	100,0	42.128	100,0

Source: UP, 2010b.

Looking at the data it is possible to find that there is a high concentration of students in Maputo, followed by the branches in Sofala and Nampula. Based on the level of population concentrated in the respective cities and also the seniority of each branch, the three branches absorbed more than 25 000 students and the other seven branches shared the remaining roughly 10 000 students. The following table presents students enrolments per faculties and schools from 2008 to 2012.

**Table 7.3: Students' enrolments per faculties and schools 2008-2012**

Year	Faculty of Natural Sciences and Mathematics	Faculty of Social Sciences	Faculty of Languages Sciences, Communication and Arts	Faculty of Sciences of Education and Psychology	Faculty of Physical Education and Sports	Higher Technical School	School of Accounting and Management
2008	5.644	5.077	3.985	10.128	687	1.499	7.401
2009	5.952	9.683	4.639	8.327	550	904	4.528
2010	7.678	9.688	5.483	7.127	901	2.087	6.455
2011	6.947	10.045	5.073	7.307	713	1.937	3.244
2012	5.515	7.502	3.961	9.196	675	2.397	4.309

Source: UP 2012a.

According to the available data, the general trend finds students more likely to enrol in programmes at two faculties, namely the Faculty of Social Sciences and the Faculty of Sciences of Education and Psychology. For instance, looking at the distribution in 2010, the Faculty of Social Sciences had the largest percentage (28%), followed by the Faculty of Sciences of Education and Psychology (24%), the Faculty of Natural Sciences and Mathematics (17%), the Faculty of Language Sciences Art and Communication (13.4%), the School of Accounting and Management (13.1), the Higher Technical School (2.6%) and the Faculty of Physical Education

Sciences and Sports (1.6%). This distribution depends on: (i) the number of programmes offered by each faculty or school and the specificity of each of them; and (ii) a general trend in higher education in Mozambique, where the social sciences and humanities or related areas have been accruing the largest number of students. This has been occurring for many reasons, which should be subject to accurate research. The obvious explanation for that might be related to operational costs. It is well documented that programmes that need laboratories and complex equipment are the most expensive, which only a select few higher education institutions can afford.

#### ***7.5.1.5 Why students enrol at the Pedagogic University***

I have mentioned above that the student profile at the Pedagogic University is more heterogeneous. It is a question as to why students made the decision to enrol in the programmes of teacher education at the Pedagogic University.

The decisions by students to enrol in teacher education programmes are informed by different factors, some of which presented in theoretical and empirical studies. According to a review of literature made by Barmby (2006), recent literature on recruitment can be categorised as looking at three broad areas: (i) the reasons why people take up teaching as a career; (ii) the reasons why people have been deterred from entering teaching; and (iii) suggestions for improving recruitment into teaching. Looking at the reasons for entering teaching Kyriacou and Coulthard (as cited in Barmby, 2006, p. 251) categorised these reasons as follows:

*altruistic reasons:* seeing teaching as a socially worthwhile and important job, having a desire to help children succeed, and a desire to help society improve;

*intrinsic reasons:* these reasons cover aspects of the job activity itself, such as the activity of teaching children, as well as an interest in using their subject matter knowledge and expertise; and

*extrinsic reasons:* these reasons cover aspects of the job not inherent in the work itself, such as long holidays, level of pay, and status.

An analysis of relevant literature by Moran et al. (as cited in Barmby, 2006, p. 250) concluded that the reasons for choosing the teaching profession as a career have been predominantly altruistic and intrinsic.



Paterson and Arends (2009) underline that "attempts to understand how or why people are attracted to teaching as an occupation derive from a range of perspectives and disciplines including psychology, sociology and economics" (p. 6). After exploring different studies, these authors devise a framework which highlights the different factors (see below) impacting on an individual's decision to enrol for teacher training and practice as a teacher.

- In school, the individual is exposed to teachers and to the concept of teaching as an occupation.
- The individual forms own understanding of working life and careers through interaction with family, peer, the community and the media.
- The individual perceives and expresses own values, talents and potential which are *negotiated* in relation to lifestyle and career aspirations.
- The individual may develop interest in several occupations, one of which may be teaching.
- The individual makes judgements regarding study choices. This takes into account: preferred occupation; own school academic record; associated skills required; cost of acquiring those skills; personal/ household financial resources available; perceived benefits.
- The individual enrolls for teacher training.
- The individual graduates as a qualified teacher.

Regarding the case I have selected, the students enrol in teacher education programmes at the Pedagogic University for many reasons, most of which fall in the following categories:

It is an alternative to other university programmes, which are in high demand, with high admission standards.

It is the sole opportunity to upgrade their career as teachers.

It is the sole opportunity to enter a higher education institution without an admission exam.

It is a first choice based on the influence of parents, relatives and friends.

There are good prospects to easily gain access to employment.

It is a public institution therefore affordable compared to private institutions.

Some student responses are given below, as related to the discussion above.

### ***7.5.1.6 A public institution committed to prepare well-qualified teachers***

There are many motivations for studying at the Pedagogic University. Some of them were indirectly mentioned previously when I discussed how different the institution is when compared to others. I identify many reasons presented by the students in choosing the pedagogic University for pursuing their studies.

First, seems to be the fact that it is a public university; therefore the fees are low. Second for being an institution for preparing teachers and lastly due its quality regarding teacher education programmes. The narratives below follow that line.

I chose the Pedagogic University because it is a public university (SS3).

I chose the Pedagogic University because it is the best institution for teacher education (SC5).

I chose the Pedagogical University to do my tertiary level because I think it is better, [í ] and I am more inclined towards the field of education, so for this reason I opted for the Pedagogic University (SD10).

### ***7.5.1.7 Upgrading***

As I referred previously in the Chapter 5 where I contextualised this study, many schools are running with teachers without preparation or with teachers prepared for teaching primary schools but due to the expansion of secondary schools, they have been recruited for this level of national education system. This process seems to be undermining the quality of education. Furthermore, I also stated before that the teachers' salaries are linked to the qualifications. The more a teacher is qualified in academic terms the more he or she earns a better salary. Thus many teachers are trying to upgrade their qualifications not just because they are unqualified but also due to fact that there is a connection between qualification and salary as an overall policy for civil servants in Mozambique. The narratives below show the two ideas behind the reasons for upgrading

Initially I had done the training course for teachers at IMAP in Matola, over the course of two years. There, I did a course in Visual Education, Workmanship and Mathematics. Then I worked at the 9th of February primary school in Xinavane, Manhiça. There I realised that the knowledge I had in the area of education was not enough, because I had

some difficulties in planning certain disciplines, such as Musical Education, Physical Education and also Portuguese, because I did not do these subjects during my own formative years of education. So I thought that it was better to enter the Pedagogical University in order to fill the gap [í ] that is what led me to attend this course in basic education (SL16).

I came here for professional reasons; I was already working as a teacher, so I am here to continue with pedagogical training (SC6).

#### ***7.5.1.8 No other options***

For many students the question is related to options. Although the Pedagogic University is running programmes of teacher education in the entire country not all branches are offering the same programmes. Therefore sometimes the programmes that students want to enrol for are in only one branch.

I chose the Pedagogic University because I had no other option, because the other choice was outside Maputo and I was unable to attend (SC7).

#### ***7.5.1.9 Employability***

The issue of employability is another reason behind the option for teacher education programmes at the Pedagogic University. There is a general perception that joining a teacher education programme is the right way to avoid the risk of being unemployed. But it seems not to be always the case because currently due to financial constraints the Ministry of Education is hiring people with lower qualifications comparing to those who have been prepared at the Paedagogic University. I will come to this in Chapter Eight.

I chose The Pedagogic University because I looked at the employment market [...]; it is a way of creating opportunity (SC8).

#### ***7.5.1.10 Dreams***

In other cases it is something related to vocational aspects. Students wanted to do what they are doing currently. This is in line with the concept of 'apprenticeship of observation' (Lortie, 1975).

When I was born, grew up and began to study, I had dreams [í ] I had two dreams: the first was to become a pastor and the second was to become a teacher. It was not possible to carry out the first, then when I was able to do the second dream, I applied here [í ] because the Pedagogic University is the university that trains teachers (SL14).

What can be concluded is that there is a combination of factors which led students to enrol in teacher education programmes at the Pedagogic University. The students' statements reinforce the idea that there is heterogeneity in terms of student profile, as well as in terms of the reasons why students decided to enrol.

For some students, to enrol in teacher education programmes at the Pedagogic University was not the first choice, but the second or even the third one. It is clear that many students are looking for a public higher education institution. This situation seems to be related to the fact that the regular courses running in the two major public higher education institutions, namely Eduardo Mondlane University and the Pedagogic University, are more affordable when compared to private universities.

Before answering why, I would like to point out that initially it was not a primary option; to come to attend the Pedagogic University [í ] it was a second choice. So, I chose exactly for not wanting to stand aside, not wanting to stay out of what is academic life. And now I'm right here (SE 19).

My first choice was the course of Architecture at the Eduardo Mondlane University. the second was the course of Civil Engineering at the same university [í ] the Pedagogic University was the third choice, then as I have always been passionate about drawing [í ] I had to follow the course of design (SE19).

[N]o, the first choice was Eduardo Mondlane University (SC7).

For other students, the decision to enrol in teacher education at the Pedagogic University was the first choice, and in some cases, for varying reasons, the only choice. For instance, one reason is related to affordability in terms of fees because it is public institution. Another reason is related to programmes that are available only at the Pedagogic University. The narratives data below clarify these reasons:

*Yes, yes. When I wanted to do higher education the first choice was the Pedagogic University the second was the Eduardo Mondlane University. I went to study at the Institute of Teacher Education of Munhuana, but I left because I managed to get into the Pedagogic University (SL14).*

*[Y]es, because I found that I had some difficulties, and in order to overcome them, only the Pedagogic University has an answer to my concerns; I looked at the University Eduardo Mondlane, but it did not have the course of basic education. The Faculty of Education had only the course of psychology, which does not cover the specific area of primary education (SP16).*

Yes it was, but there really was a question [í ] not a question of option but a question of, how shall I say? A question of certainty, because the Eduardo Mondlane University had a lot of applicants, the course I would have liked was Computer Engineering, which was competitive, so for the sake of certainty, as I could only enrol in one university, I chose the Pedagogic University instead (SE18).

Students who are already teachers are more likely to enrol in teacher education programmes as part of the process of uplifting their career, as well as for the improvement of their knowledge, in order to teach properly, and to improve the quality of the teaching and learning process. Another reason that should be noted is related to the agreement between the Pedagogic University and the Ministry of Education. As mentioned, there is a protocol that makes provision for a specific number of teachers to have the opportunity to be admitted and trained as initial teacher education students, in spite of already being a teacher, some of whom come with a great amount of experience. This may be characterised as a form of in-service training for these teachers.

As it is presented in the framework, many factors can contribute towards making what are considering fundamental decisions regarding the development of a teaching career, namely first to enrol and then to pursue the profession of teaching. In this research, I was only interested to discover those factors that influenced the prospective secondary school teachers to enrol in teacher education programmes at the Pedagogic University. It is important to stress again as I have stated elsewhere, that some students have already been working as educators as a result of previous preparation to become primary school teachers, or in other cases, were recruited and

deployed to schools without any sort of preparation. Furthermore, what also becomes clear is that the programmes of teacher education are perceived to be a good opportunity for gaining access to the labour market, because of the huge demand for teachers within a context of national education system under large expansion.

### 7.5.2 When experience is not enough: characteristics of academic staff

The situation in terms of academic staff is also heterogeneous. Firstly, their distribution through faculties, schools and branches all over the country is uneven. The most highly qualified academic staff are concentrated in Maputo. Historical context helps to explain this to some extent. The obvious explanation is related to the fact that Maputo is the capital of the country and the headquarters of the Pedagogic University are in that city. For a long period of time, only Maputo held the greatest opportunities. For that reason, almost everybody tried to find a way to remain where the faculties and schools are established. The following table presents the distribution of academic staff in 2012.

**Table 7.4: Distribution of academic staff per branch according to their level of qualification -2012**

Branches	Total Number	% with Undergraduate	% with Masters	% PhD
Maputo	747	48	35	16
Beira	275	80	18	2
Nampula	426	84	14	2
Quelimane	141	94	3	3
Manica	116	96	4	0
Niassa	102	92	8	0
Gaza	52	97	2	1
Montepuez	72	88	11	1
Massinga	33	77	20	3
Maxixe	132	87	12	1
Tete	84	87	11	2

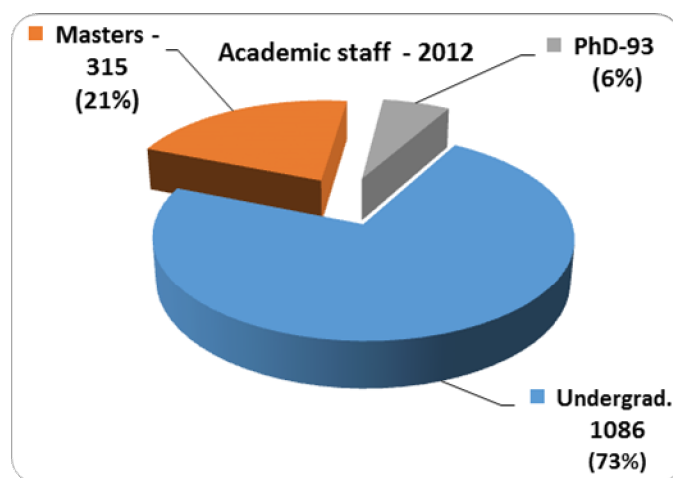
Source: UP, 2012b.

**Table 7.5: Total number and percentage of academic staff according to their qualifications (2012)**

Qualifications	Number	%
PhD	93	6%
Masters	315	21%
Licentiate	1086	73%
Total	1,494	100%

Source: UP,, 2012b.

**Figure7.1: Proportion of academic staff according to their qualification**



Source: UP, 2012b.

According to the data presented in the table and in the graphic above, the majority of academic staff from Pedagogic University have only an undergraduate degree. If we take into consideration that many studies around the world show that the qualifications of the academic staff influence the quality of the outcome of the student, this situation ought to be taken as cause for concern. Fortunately, the Strategic Plan of the Pedagogic University (2011-2017) showed an awareness of the need to address this particular issue. Therefore, in line with its third goal aiming at: (i) improving the quality of the academic staff through postgraduate programmes, and professional development; (ii) enabling the enhancement of the teaching and learning process, promoting theoretical discussions, practices in laboratories, and professional practice, the referred strategic plan projects an accelerated process of recruitment and training of staff, in order to increase the proportion of academic staff holding a Masters degrees, from 14% in 2010,

to around 70% in 2017, and an increase the number of lecturers with a PhD degree from 8% in 2010, to at least 15% in 2017.

The number of lecturers holding only an undergraduate degree ought to decrease from about 70% in 2010 to 15% in 2017. This seems to be a very ambitious scenario because, in spite of the opening of postgraduate programmes in different departments of the Pedagogic University, with many lecturers attending those programmes, what can be seen is that the throughput is still very low.

In spite of all current adversity, the major strength of the Pedagogic University as an institution with a mission regarding the preparation of future teachers is the fact that it has an academic staff with experience regarding teaching in secondary schools as well as teaching in different teacher education institutions in charge of preparing teachers for basic education. On top of that, the new process of recruitment privileges applicants who already have some sort of pedagogical preparation, at least in teaching at secondary level.

In summary, the academic staff at the Pedagogic University are predominantly those with an undergraduate level education, but there has been some progress in changing this. Some were sent to do a Master's or a PhD overseas. Since 2008, postgraduate programmes have been running within the institution, which are targeted to benefit academic staff. In spite of that, the programmes are not covering all needs. Slowly, with a collaboration of universities mainly from Portugal, France and Brazil, the Pedagogic University has been introducing PhD programmes in certain faculties since 2012. As new programmes, there is no way of assessing their outcome. What is clear is that in the near future, the programmes will never cover the total needs of the institution in terms of quantity and quality, due to the complexity of the PhD programmes. For instance, most academic staff holding a PhD degree do not have enough experience in supervising students at that same level.

As stated above, the institution has a heterogeneous academic staff in terms of age, qualifications and experience. This diversity brings about differences regarding their performance, commitment and attitude towards their students. Therefore, the students' perceptions reflect the diversity of the academic staff.



Some students have a very positive perception regarding the work that has been done by their lecturers and their importance in their preparation as future teachers (SL14).

For some students there is a difference between what they heard about the lecturers and the lived experience they have as students by interacting with them (SE14).

There are students who have no doubt about the quality of their lecturers, and their opinion is that, although the quality of the majority of the academic staff is questionable, there are some who do not fulfil their duties properly (SC7; SS3). Some students put their lecturers in different categories, namely those who are perceived as good and committed, those staff who present some difficulties and gaps, and others who do not prepare well.

Other students (SC5; SC6) characterise their lecturers in terms of their qualifications and experience. It seems that the students recognise that the qualifications and experience of their lecturers plays an important role within the process of learning.

There are students (SE18; SE19) aware of the problems caused by lecturers who perform inadequately under the pressure of time. Some academics lecture across different institutions. In fact, this has been a serious problem in different institutions of higher education in Mozambique, which share the same pool of academic staff members. Some of the consequences of this situation are well perceived by the students interviewed for this study, and they complain about it. The situation seems to be aggravated by a proliferation of new programmes within the institution. What students reveal confirms the current heterogeneous situation at the Pedagogic University.

## **7.6 Conclusion**

The development of this chapter allows the following conclusions to be drawn: First, the idealisation of the Pedagogic University was marked by discussions between different actors in the mid-1980s, within a context where the country had only one higher education institution. Second, the emergence of the Pedagogic University as a new institution constituted a new era regarding the development of tertiary education. It was founded as a vocational institution, whose mission was to prepare students in the field of education across the country, using different organs such as faculties, schools and branches. Although changes have been noticed

within the institution, both academic staff and students still see the institution as vocational, committed to preparing people in the field of education. Taking into account how the institution is organised to deliver its programmes, it is important to refocus the role of the branches within a context where the issue of decentralisation has been implemented all over the country, and there are in place ideas for its refinement.

Third, the main characteristic of the institution is its heterogeneity in terms of infrastructure, students and academic staff. It is argued here that the enrolment of students without an admission exam may be directly undermining the quality of students' outcomes. A diversity of academic staff distributed unevenly in terms of background throughout the branches, is cause for some concern regarding the quality of student outcomes across the different sites making up the Pedagogic University.

The next chapter addresses different models and programmes since the creation of the Pedagogic University, The chapter also addresses the issue of how the programmes have been delivered. Furthermore, it revisits the curricular revision, and the curricular reform that took place in 2003 and 2008 respectively, as well as the rationale behind that process.

## **CHAPTER 8: EXAMINING TEACHER EDUCATION PROGRAMMES AT THE PEDAGOGIC UNIVERSITY**

### **8.1 Introduction**

In the previous chapter focus was placed on the creation of what was then the Higher Pedagogic Institute (ISP) in 1985, which resulted from a strategic vision based on the need to better coordinate the training of cadres for the education sector. The whole process occurred within a context where the newly introduced education system was in a large expansion. A particular emphasis was placed on primary education, which has been a priority, due to the role attributed to that level of schooling in a very poor country such Mozambique.

The curricular area of the Pedagogic University has been subject to broad attention. This can be confirmed by the curricular revision that took place from 1994 to 2003, as well as the curricular reform completed in 2009 and put in place in 2010. The curricular changes have been motivated by several factors mainly related to: (i) socioeconomic and political changes; (ii) the need for a harmonisation of the programmes, taking into account that the institution as it is spread throughout the country; and (iii) the need to conform with national and international trends within tertiary education in general, and particularly in relation to teacher education, which constitutes its core business.

This chapter looks at the idealisation at the Pedagogic University, an institution where has emerged a model within a context of a lack of financial resources in a large country with an education system in a broad process of expansion, and therefore needing a large number of newly trained teachers or upgrade in qualifications for the existing teachers. In addition, the civil war undermined all strategies intended to expand the national education system at an acceptable level of quality.

The main aim of this chapter is to characterise the process of idealisation and implementation, and the changes of models and systems of teacher education programmes at the Pedagogic University through curricular revisions and curricular reforms.

The chapter seeks to address the question: What strategies, programmes, processes, curriculum and modes of delivery have been introduced at the Pedagogic University for preparation of

teachers? In order to accurately answer this question, the inquiry looks at the project of teacher education at the Pedagogic University in terms of content, form, assumptions and expectations. Therefore the answer to this question is found by means of document analysis and interviews, as described in the chapter detailing the chosen methodology for the study.

The argument sustaining this chapter is that, despite the many constraints presented above, the process of development of teacher education programmes at the Pedagogic University has been evolving significantly from a consecutive model to a concurrent model, where a professional component is provided at the same time as the general component; and the programmes are delivered in an integrated way. In other words, the subject content and pedagogic content are delivered simultaneously from the first year until the end of the programme. Another characteristic is that the programmes are delivered in an eclectic way, putting together students with different background as explained in the Chapter Six.

Furthermore, the Pedagogic University has been developing programmes delivered in a multiplicity of sites, such as faculties, schools and branches spread across the country. Given this fact, it is developing a university-based teacher education, which has been providing higher degrees in a number of areas of education. This has been done through integrated and eclectic programmes attended by students who are already teachers at primary and secondary schools, as well as students who more recently received their Grade 12 diploma. The programmes have been driven by university lecturers with different qualifications, unevenly distributed throughout the different sites. Since its creation, the Pedagogic University has been through a process of curricular development, which variously focuses on curricular revision or curricular reforms, depending on the level of changes that have been introduced. Lately, changes have been noticed, not only within teacher education programmes, but including transformations characterised by the diversification of programmes, where courses not related to education are introduced.

The next section discusses several aspects regarding the conceptualisation and implementation of the models of teacher education.

## 8.2 Conceptualisation and implementation of the first models, systems and programmes

This section deals with the roots of the programmes implemented in the institutions as they were conceptualised and implemented, the roles played by each of the participants in that regard, as well as the challenges faced by the programme pioneers. In other words, the section delves into the first moments of design and implementation of teacher education programmes in the newly established institution.

Available sources of information (Pedagogic University yearbooks, reports, strategic plans 2000-2010 and 2011-2017, Ismael et al., 2015) note that after lengthy discussions between the different actors involved in the conceptualisation of the institution, they managed to reach an agreement regarding the model of preparing teachers to be followed.

The model was taken from the GDR, a country that already had vocational institutions of teacher education. It seems that it was almost a copy of the Eastern German model of teacher education, *because we need to start from any point* (Alcido Ngoenha interviewed by Ismael et al. 2015, p.27). Despite being a German model, the most significant role in terms of its implementation was played by lecturers from USSR (Ismael et al., 2015,). It should be noted that during the same period some students who were sent for studies overseas, mainly in countries such as the GDR, URSS, Bulgaria, Yugoslavia and Romania etc., were subsequently repatriating. Some of them, trained in GDR, were placed in the newly created Higher Pedagogic Institute. Most of them did not have enough experience in teaching at any level of education, let alone at tertiary level education. It was a very challenging and demanding context for them. The statement of Alcido Ngoenha (interviewed by Ismael et al, 2015, p.30) is instructive in this regard.

[T]he Higher Pedagogic Institute began with a very limited number of academic and administrative staff; the number of programmes was also reduced. The first group of academic staff at the Higher Pedagogic Institute was constituted by lecturers from [the] Soviet Union, as well as young Mozambicans trained in different subjects, just returned from the former GDR. Tirso Santos was the sole academic staff member trained in the country, at the Eduardo Mondlane University. He was actively involved in the creation of the Faculty of History and Geography at the Higher Pedagogic Institute. The

Mozambican academic staff were very young, but well supported by team from the Soviet Union, which was technically and scientifically very strong.

Aniceto dos Muchangos (interviewed by Ismael et al., 2015, p. 30), the first rector of the institution corroborated with the information and adds that:

We had the collaboration of Germans and Mozambican who studied and graduated in GDR, constituting the first group placed at the Higher Pedagogic Institute [í ] therefore in the initial phase, the Higher Pedagogic Institute worked with Mozambicans as assistant lecturers, supported by the Soviets. It should be noted that the Higher Pedagogic Institute was under influence of the Soviets. I [í ] myself as the rector, had a Soviet as my advisor.

That situation was very common within a context where the relationships were constructed based on economic, political and ideological alignments, during the Cold War. The hegemonic role of the two superpowers within their respective blocs was not always consensual, and sometimes it was challenged by other countries from inside each bloc, which tried to uplift their roles within the international relations.

Summing up, what was known as the Higher Pedagogic Institution at that time was created in context of scarcity of resources, including human resources, which constituted one of the most important pillars in the development of the education system in general, and particularly in tertiary education. The level of higher education requires a more specialised group of academic staff with experience in teaching. Therefore, the nature of programmes to be delivered by the institution constituted somewhat of a challenge.

### **8.2.1 Characterisation of the programmes: the bivalent system and consecutive model (1985-2003)**

Any programme of teacher education presupposes a particular epistemology (Morrow, 2007). It should conform to the development of the education system of the country in terms of meeting real needs. What can be seen throughout the world is the existence of several models of teacher, which are informed by many factors, whether socioeconomic, political or ideological. As clearly put by Musset (2009, p. 3), there are òmany different challenges that have to be dealt with in

different countries, and the design of the teacher education has to respond to the specific needs of each systemö.

Unlike students studying medicine, law, accounting or architecture, who tend to follow a set curriculum, not all teachers receive the same training (Darling-Hammond as cited in Volante and Earl, 2002).

The tables below show the most common models that can be found in different systems of teacher education across the world. They present a typology of different initial teacher education, along with a characterisation of the concurrent model and the consecutive model. It ought to be noted that every model or system of teacher education ought to be suitable to a particular education system of each country.

**Table 8.1: A typology of the different models of initial teacher education**

		Scope	Curriculum	Advantages	Disadvantages
Traditional Models	Normal School tradition	Traditional Conception of primary school teachersø education.	Acquisition of basic skills, through practical training (field experiences, methodology courses, subject matter pedagogy).	Provide teachers with a number of routines, which allows them to master specific aspects of the teaching practices.  Allow the development of a strong professional identity.	Little emphasis on educational theory, academic and scientific knowledge and research skills.
	Academic tradition	Traditional conception of lower and higher secondary school teachersø education.	Acquisition of scientific content knowledge in particular academic disciplines and of general problem-solving capacity.  Probation period in school.	Stimulate teachers' problem-solving capacities, allowing them to be reactive in every classroom situations.	Teachers are subject specialists in a small number of academic disciplines and not in pedagogy. Little teaching practice.
New	Professio	Dynamic	Acquisition of	Teachers are	No empirical

		Scope	Curriculum	Advantages	Disadvantages
Models	nal- isation of teaching	conception of teaching that focuses on professional autonomy and standards.	comprehensive research-based knowledge on teaching. Emphasis on studies of pedagogical sciences.  Development of a professional code of ethics.	educated as experts in their specific field, with a strong critical sense, autonomy and professional problem-solving abilities. Makes them responsible for the improvement of their skills. Emphasis on collaborative work.	proof of substantial student modification in teacher education quality.
	Alternati ve pathways into the professio n	Training and certification based on the possession of skills that do not come from a teacher education programme, but from the personal experience and characteristics of each aspiring teacher.	Acquisition of teaching skills through practical, 'on-the-job' training. Strong induction and mentoring programmes. Low priority given to educational theory and to low scientific knowledge.	Allows for the rapid increase in the supply of teachers in teachers. They can be designed to attract very different types of candidates. Cost efficient, since they are short, and mostly school-based.	Few studies about the content of the training they offer, and the sort of teaching they promote. At a time when the work of teaching is becoming more complex, it allows people with very little formal preparation to teach.

Source: Musset, 2010.



**Table 8.2: Characteristics of concurrent and consecutive programmes**

Models	Characteristics	Scope	Advantages	Disadvantages
Concurrent models for initial teacher education	<p>Academic subjects are studied</p> <p>Alongside educational and professional studies throughout the duration of the course. Shorter.</p>	Common for primary school teachers but it can be found in lower and upper secondary education teachers in some countries.	Allows a more integrated learning experience, since pedagogical and subject-matter (content knowledge) training take place at the same time.	Little flexibility allowed in entering the teaching profession, especially for those persons who have studied something other than education, as well as for those who would want to be able to re-enter other labour markets eventually.
Consecutive	<p>The specialised courses in pedagogy and in teacher teaching are accessible after having completed another degree in a discipline taught in school.</p> <p>Longer. entry more restrictive.</p>	More common for secondary school teachers than for primary school teachers.	Allows for a more flexible entry into the teaching profession. Allow teachers to have a strong subject expertise in a precise academic discipline.	<p>Weaker knowledge in learning techniques and in pedagogy in general. Fragmented learning process between subject matter knowledge and pedagogical knowledge.</p> <p>Weaker professional identity.</p>
Concurrent and Consecutive	In an educational system, both consecutive and concurrent models can co-exist.	Changing teacher education models can be a way to help resolve the problem of teacher shortage or to boost the quality of the teachers.	To have different programmes allows profession to attract different kinds of potential teachers.	Extra financial cost for the country, less efficiency.

Source: Adapted from Musset, 2010.

Looking at the situation in Mozambique, with regard to teacher education, what can be seen is that there have been some experiences in dealing with programmes delivered through a bivalent system as well as consecutive models. The first programmes of teacher education designed and implemented by the Pedagogic University were also informed by this tradition. The discussion now turns to how the situation has evolved, if any evolution has indeed occurred, from one experience to another, developed over the two institutions.

Therefore, back to the moment of its creation, the first curricular programmes introduced by the Higher Pedagogic Institute, instead of being a continuation of Faculty of Education of the Eduardo Mondlane University, moved to a new direction. It could be considered as a new beginning. For the most part, new programmes and new syllabi were adopted. As a result, the experience accumulated through the Faculty of Education regarding teacher education was barely taken into consideration. By way of example, most of the academic staff that used to teach at the Faculty of Education remained at the Eduardo Mondlane University, where, in some cases, they were then distributed to other departments or faculties. They did not join the new institution as full-time lecturers. In other words, the newly established institution was under control of the Ministry of Education and to some extent, there was a discontinuity in terms of experience, expertise and human resources. It should be underlined that the process happened within a context of an absence of a framework related to the subsystem of tertiary education. For that reason, there was not any indication about how higher education institutions ought to be running.

When the Pedagogic University started with its activities, almost all programmes were based on bivalent curricula, with the exception of language programmes. Other syllabi were an adaptation from some programmes previously delivered at Eduardo Mondlane University and countries such as USSR and GDR, where some of the lecturers originated. In other words, at this first moment, the majority of the students were subjected to a preparation in order to be able to teach two subjects. This seems to be the major similarity between the programmes that used to be taught at the Faculty of Education of the Eduardo Mondlane University.

In 1986, when the conditions for starting with the programmes were created, the context of preparation and deployment of graduated students for teaching in secondary schools was very complex, due to the civil war. For instance, the capacity to absorb a large number of newly trained teachers for secondary education did not exist. This temporary situation enabled the

institution to start programmes whose duration was five consecutive yearsö (speech of Paulus Gerdes, the Rector of ISP, 6 September 1994).

This seems to be in line with what many studies show in relation to the duration of initial teacher preparation, which depends on different conditions. Most of the conditions are interrelated (Schwille and Dembélé, 2007, p. 68). These authors go on to say that the conditions include:

- economic constraints;
- the relation of demand and supply of teachers;
- the recruitment level; and
- the amount and quality of teacher candidatesøcontent knowledge (ibid.).

On the other hand, they suggest that programme duration raises a basic dilemma: öthe longer the more expensive; and the shorter, the more difficult to do anything worthwhileö (ibid, p. 69). The decision to make the programme longer or shorter is informed by a variety of factors, as already discussed. What I would like to add here is that there is not a permanent decision because of the socioeconomic dynamics, which have great influence regarding the development of the education system of each country. Furthermore, what seems to be important is that the teacher education programmes pay attention to these dynamics.

According to Mavanga and Freia (2009), during almost two decades (from 1985 to 2003) of its existence as a higher education institution in charge of preparing teachers and other professionals in the field of education, the programmes were observing the following framework:

- They had a length of five years and most of them were bivalent (students were prepared to teach two subjects), except for the programmes adopted in Beira Branch, which were monovalent (students prepared to teach a single subject).
- During the first four years, students were exposed to the following components: (i) subject content component; (ii) the component of general education; (iii) sciences of education component; and (iv) methodology of teaching. Depending on the nature of the programmes, the components relating to sciences of education and methodologies of teaching could be taught in the last (5<sup>th</sup>) year of training.
- The last year was mostly for pedagogical practices and the preparation of a monographic report in order to acquire a degree. In terms of the pedagogical practices, there was a

difference in the way it was organised. The bivalent programmes used to divide the practice activities into two semesters in order to accommodate the two subjects. The monovalent courses used the whole year for activities associated with the practicum. In sum, students were prepared from the first year of their courses on disciplines related to subject content (acquisition of scientific knowledge for their profession), but also disciplines regarding educational issues, as well as general preparation in subjects such as languages, cultural anthropology, etc. The table below presents the components to be taught in each year.

**Table 8.3: Components of teacher education at the Pedagogic University (1985-2003)**

First and second years	Third year	Fourth year	Fifth year
General Education component	Subject content	Subject content	Methodologies of teaching
Subject content component	Sciences of Education	Sciences of Education	Optional discipline
Sciences of Education component	Methodologies of teaching	Methodologies of teaching	Practicum

Source: Adapted from Mavanga and Freia, 2009.

Over the years the curricula running in the Pedagogic University have undergone some small changes, which were mostly related to a process inclusion or exclusion of disciplines in accordance with the political and ideological transformation occurring within the country. This has been explained elsewhere. For instance, in 1993, following the adoption of a new constitution in 1990, the end of the civil war in 1992, and the adjustment of the law that introduced the National Education System, also in 1992, the disciplines such as Dialectical Materialism, Political Economy and History of the Liberation Movement were removed from the Curriculum Plan (UP, 2010a).

On the other hand, in 1994, it was announced through the Circular 2/GR/94 (UP, 2010a), that a curricular revision would be aimed at restructuring the programmes at the then Higher Pedagogic Institute. The transformation that would be operated at the different faculties was motivated by several factors, and aimed to give opportunities to teachers trained in lower institutions of teacher education to continue with their studies at the Higher Pedagogic Institute, to accelerate

the process of preparing teachers for secondary schools, and therefore to facilitate the process of expanding the school network within a context of the end of the civil war (UP, 2010). In addition to that, the proposed curricular revision was supposed to address issues regarding the duration of the programmes that ought to be separated into two degrees: (i) a Bachelor's degree, planned to last three years; and (ii) a Licentiate degree, designed to last two years.

The main objective of the first phase would be to prepare teachers for upper primary and secondary (or equivalent) schools. The main objective of the second phase would be to prepare teachers for pre-university (or equivalent) education and distance training of the upper-primary and secondary school teachers already holding a Bachelor's degree, so that they might specialise in didactics and/or school administration. In spite of the existence of the announced document, only the Faculty of Languages managed to carry out a substantial revision. Therefore, it can be said that the curricular revision of 1994 turned out to be an unfulfilled promise. I argue that this ought to be related to the fact that the institution did not have a real capacity, in terms of academic staff, for the development of sound curricular transformation. This argument is also supported by an academic staff member (AS1), who participated in the process of curricular revision and curricular reform in 2003 and 2008.

The first teacher education curricula in place between the first years of the institution until 2003 when major changes were introduced, have been criticised. The major criticisms are related to the fact that the curricula were too encyclopaedic, prescriptive, and that they followed a rigid, bivalent model. In fact, during that period, a student had to follow a bivalent system, which meant to be prepared in two areas and be ready to teach two secondary education subjects. For that reason, he or she had to enrol in several disciplines (see as an example the course of History and Geography presented in Table 8.4). Therefore, if one compares with what was going on in programmes running at the Eduardo Mondlane University, excluding the psycho-pedagogical component, the conclusion is that a student at the Pedagogic University was doing double the amount of work within a same period of time recommended for an undergraduate degree. Adding the disciplines related to Psychology, Pedagogy, and Didactics, which constituted part of another component of the process of preparation of future teachers, it is clear that they contributed to overloading the programmes, and consequently to the amount of work for the students.

Furthermore, the curricula were considered more theoretical than practical, and students did not have enough time to become engaged with their future profession. For instance, for about 18 years, the curricula of teacher education were almost 75% theory-based, with only 25% practice, following a sequential model. This has been confirmed by various diagnostic reports (Roldão; Thompson et al.; Casali, as cited in UP, 2002; Duarte, 2008). Therefore, the curriculum review process, which culminated with the introduction of curriculum 2004, revealed a large number of problems, including:

- Courses had a rigid bivalence and very inflexible plan of studies, where students were not given the possibility to individually combine the courses they intended to do. Students did not have an immediate orientation to their future profession. The pedagogic practices and the internship were introduced at late stage of the programme, which brought about a lack of professional identity and a predisposition to the abandonment of the profession. Laboratories were poorly equipped. There was little flexibility and an incongruous system of evaluation, together with a lack of clear definition of the fields to be researched and a lack of professional development of academic staff (UP as cited in Duarte, 2008, p.30).
- The length of the programmes; the excessive number of disciplines; duplication of degrees; Bachelor's and Licentiate degrees led to a duplication of work; lack of a common referential scope between courses of the different faculties regarding the structure of the components of the training courses; difficulties in the functioning of the internship and/or pedagogic practices (Roldão as cited in Duarte, 2008, p. 30).
- Absence of a balance between training contents and learning needs; excessive workload in some disciplines; multiplicity of disciplines, weak interdisciplinarity, weak vocational training; weak diversity of teaching methods, an excessive number of students per class; few classrooms; weak articulation between the Pedagogic University and the Ministry of Education; poor training and motivation of the academic staff, lack of bodies in charge of promoting scientific debates (UP as cited in Duarte 2008, p. 30).

The table below shows a sample of a plan of studies followed by a programme which ran at the Pedagogic University from its creation until the introduction of a new curriculum in 2004. With one or another modification made by introducing or removing a single discipline or a group of disciplines, the plan lasted for almost 18 years. Regarding the amount of disciplines, there were

no significant variations across the faculties. As explained elsewhere in this chapter, the common concern related to the bivalent model was that it contributed to making the courses more theoretical and encyclopaedic.

**Table 8.4: Plan of studies for the course of teacher education in History and Geography**

First year-Semester I	First year -Semester II
Introduction to History I	Theory of History
History of Ancient World I	History of the Ancient World II
General Geology I	History of the Middle Ages I
Cartography and Topography I	History of Mozambique I
Portuguese I	General Geology I
English I	Climatography
Fundamentals of Pedagogy I	Cartography and Topography II
Physical Education I	Philosophy II
Philosophy I	Portuguese II
	English II
	General Psychology
	Physical Education I

Second year-Semester III	Second year -Semester IV
<p>History of the Middle Age II</p> <p>History of Mozambique II</p> <p>Modern and Contemporary History of Europe and America I</p> <p>Modern and Contemporary History of Africa and Asia I Geomorphology</p> <p>Portuguese III</p> <p>English III</p> <p>Psychology of development</p> <p>General Didactic I</p> <p>Anthropology</p> <p>Physical Education III</p>	<p>History of Mozambique III</p> <p>Modern and Contemporary History of Europe and America II</p> <p>Modern and Contemporary History of Africa and Asia II</p> <p>Geography of Soils</p> <p>Regional Geography I</p> <p>Portuguese IV</p> <p>English IV</p> <p>Psychology of Education</p> <p>General Didactic II</p> <p>Anthropology II</p> <p>Physical Education</p>
Third year- Semester V	Third year-Semester VI
<p>History of Mozambique IV</p> <p>Modern and Contemporary History of Europe and America III</p> <p>Modern and Contemporary History of Africa and Asia III</p> <p>Methodology of Teaching History I</p> <p>Biogeography</p> <p>Regional Geography II</p> <p>Geography of Population and Settlement</p> <p>History of Pedagogy I</p>	<p>History of Mozambique V</p> <p>Modern and Contemporary History of Europe and America IV</p> <p>Modern and Contemporary History of Africa and Asia IV</p> <p>Methodology of Teaching History II</p> <p>Regional Geography III</p> <p>History of Pedagogy II</p> <p>Geography of Agriculture and Livestock</p> <p>Methodology of Teaching Geography I</p>



Fourth year- Semester VII	Fourth year-Semester VIII
History of Mozambique VI Modern and Contemporary History of Europe and America V Modern and Contemporary History of Africa and Asia V Methodology of Teaching History III Geography Industries Geography of Mozambique I Defence and Nature Conservation Methodology of Teaching Geography II	History of Mozambique VII Modern and Contemporary History of Europe and America VI Modern and Contemporary History of Africa and Asia VI Methodology of Teaching History IV Geography of Transport Commerce and Tourism Geography of Mozambique II Fundamentals of Environmental Education Methodology of Teaching Geography III Pedagogical Practice (Internship)
Fifth year- Semester IX	Fifth year-Semester X
Seminars	Conclusion of the Monograph

Source: UP, 1998.

The next sub-section addresses the development of curricular revision, which was marked by the introduction of the pedagogical practices as the central component of the whole process of preparing teachers at the Pedagogic University. The process was conducted under the influence of many factors, which are highlighted and described.

### **8.2.2 Readjustment and redefinition of strategies within a context of change: the monovalent and integrated models (2004-2009)**

In 2002, the Pedagogic University produced a document called *Princípios e Normas da Revisão Curricular Na Universidade Pedagógica* (Principles and Norms for the Curriculum Revision at the Pedagogic University), which constituted the guide for the whole process of curricular revision. It was the first time that the institution produced a delineated instrument envisaging a

well-coordinated process of curricular revision within a university then in process of expanding described in the Chapter 6. An academic staff member (AS1) responsible for the coordination of the processes of the curricular revision in 2003 and the curricular reform in 2008 explains which organs were involved:

The first step was the creation of the central commission for the curricular revision, with representatives from each faculty, a representative of the academic registration directorate, a representative of the scientific directorate, a representative of the pedagogic directorate, a representative of the evaluation centre, one representative from each of the branches and a representative of the finances directorate. Then we had the commissions in each faculty, composed of representatives of the departments and courses. Each department and course formed its commission for the curricular revision (AS1).

The document referred to was produced after the assessment of the previous programmes. This has been confirmed by the same academic staff member (AS1), who noted: [í ] We had a guide for assessing the previous curricula. After the course assessment, we moved to the curricular guidelines.

The presence of such a document was very useful in terms of curricular harmonisation. The introduction of this document contains the justification of the curricular revision as follows:

In spite of the Pedagogic University pursuing its social function, most curricula of the existing programmes designed over ten years are inadequate and outdated when compared to the economic political and social situation; the current scientific and technological developments and the profound political and social transformations in Mozambique [í ] the adoption of the free-market policy, the insertion in a globalised world dominated by communication and information brings the need to adapt to the new technologies and to a philosophical and practical reflection regarding the preparation of teachers for a society which advocates on the one hand the universalisation of knowledge and on the other hand the valuation of the local knowledge and the cultural diversity (UP, 2002, p. 15).

Therefore the idea behind the curricular revision was more related to socioeconomic, political and technological aspects, which were in a process of developing at international and national levels.

The curriculum guidelines aimed at standardising principles and procedures for the review of curricula and programmes. It is stressed that this should be understood as a response to the need

of establishing general curriculum guidelines for the university so that the institution could organise itself in order to fulfil its mission. Therefore, the Curricular Guidelines could not be seen as a prescriptive and imposed model, ignoring the curricular autonomy and the specificities of each faculty, programmes and branches in different provinces of the country (UP, 2002). This information is corroborated in the following terms:

Then a guidance document was created and each course was responsible for planning its curricula. The central commission did not have the authority to plan the curricula for the different courses. The academic staff were in charge of that (AS1).

What can be concluded is that in theoretical terms, the conditions for the involvement of different actors were created, and that although a central commission existed, its responsibility was more related to the process of harmonisation. Therefore, the process followed at some point, some sort of curricular decentralisation.

### **8.2.3 Length of programmes and components of teacher education**

#### **8.2.3.1 Length of the programmes**

The structuring of undergraduate programmes was planned to be developed in two steps: firstly, the Bachelor's degree, which would last three years or six semesters and a *Licenciatura* with duration of four years or eight semesters. Each semester was planned to last 16 weeks.

The duration of postgraduate programmes was planned as follows: one year for a Postgraduate Diploma, two years for Master's and between three to five years for PhD programmes.

#### **8.2.3.2 Components**

The curricular guidelines defined the following components of teacher education programmes:

- Psycho-pedagogical and didactic component (subdivided in disciplines such as: Psychology, Pedagogy and Didactics) constituting 42% of the whole programme;
- Specific scientific component (subdivided into general and specific disciplines) corresponding to 48 % of the whole programme; and
- General Component constituting 10% of the programme.

In theoretical terms, the integration of the three components was intended to achieve the main objectives of education and teacher education, namely: to know; to know how to do; to know how to be; to know how to behave (UP, 2002).

The component of psycho-pedagogical and didactic training included basic issues related to the areas of Pedagogy, Psychology and Didactics that graduates needed in order to carry out professional tasks in the future, guiding the teaching and learning process. The disciplines that integrated this component were: Fundamentals of Education, General Psychology, Psychology of Learning, School Organisation and Administration, General Didactics; Specific Didactics (teaching of History, of Geography, of Portuguese, of Mathematics of Physics, Physical Education, Drawing, etc.).

The specific component of scientific and technical training consisted of disciplines with more specific knowledge, i.e. more specialised with regard to certain areas of scientific knowledge. In this training component, teaching and learning would be focusing on the acquisition of solid knowledge in disciplines related to the training of the students, i.e. Portuguese, Physics, Mathematics, History, Drawing, etc.

The general training component had the following objectives:

- To provide the students with training and education for the exercise of an active and responsible citizenship, to develop attitudes and values essential for social interaction;
- To develop in the graduate an awareness regarding the existence of interdependence between scientific developments and the social, economic, historical, and cultural transformations; and
- To ensure that the graduate learns and uses techniques of oral and written expression and learns to use the techniques enabling to do a scientific work.

If one compares the weight of the first curricular components designed by the Pedagogic University with the curricula components that emerged in 2004 in the same institution, it is possible to understand that in theoretical terms, there was a clear intention to transform the programmes in order to make them more concerned about issues related to the professional

formation of the prospective secondary school teachers. The curricula become more integrated. As Dias et al. (2008, p. 19) clearly put it,

When an integrated teacher education system put in parallel theoretical disciplines and practical activities, the intention is to train a professional who is able to perceive the school as a complex system of organisation, composed by several networks of relations, as well as internal and external structures.

The authors go on to say that the integration of theory and practice contributes to the formation of a reflexive teacher who learns to exercise his/her autonomy, exercise his/her creativity and learn to investigate and manage the various situations of teaching and learning, since these situations are unpredictable, and since teacher education cannot confine itself to train teachers as technicians, who might merely be able to implement a certain curriculum (ibid.).

Yet, regarding the organisation of the curricular grid organisation the guidelines defined the following workloads:

- The number of disciplines per semester would not be more than six.
- The daily hours would not exceed five hours per class.
- The contact hours would range between a minimum of 18 and a maximum of 25 per week.
- Each discipline would have a minimum of three hours and a maximum of five hours.
- Each discipline should have a workload that varied between a minimum of 48 hours and a maximum of 80 hours, except for the professional practices and the Pedagogical internship and the preparation of the final report (monograph) that could reach 96 hours per semester.
- The semester would last between 288-400 hours.
- The Bachelor' degree would have a workload ranging from 1728 to 2400 hours.
- The *Licenciatura* level would have between 2304 and 3200 hours, including the hours accumulated in the Bachelor degree (UP, 2002).

### ***8.2.3.3 Looking for the most suitable model: Concurrent models versus consecutive models***

The process of curricular review regarding teacher education brought to the fore a debate around issues related to what model would be more suitable for the Pedagogic University, namely: the consecutive and the concurrent models. The debate is informed by the major question always posed in different systems of teacher education across the world: How much theory and how

much practice should be included in the programmes so that the future teachers can develop and internalise at early stage of their preparation the issues of professionalisation and professionalism?<sup>43</sup> As Kessels, Korthagen, Koster, Lagerwerf and Wubbels (2001, p. 20) have put it:

During the 20<sup>th</sup> century, a strong inequality between theory and practice has dominated scholarly thinking. Abstract knowledge was considered to be of a higher standing and more value than concrete skills or the tacit knowledge of good performance [í ] consequently, educationists in different subjects and professions were confronted with the problem of bridging the gap between theory and practice which is a task that never seemed to succeed.

Meanwhile, Britzman (1991) addresses the relationship between theory and practice meaningfully, where she notes that òthe sources of theory, then, are in practice, in the lived lives of teachers, in the values, beliefs, and encloses such practice, and in the social relationship that enliven the teaching and learning encounterö (p.50).

The group in charge of the curricular revision at the Pedagogic University, based on the new international trends regarding teacher education development programmes, argued for an integrated curriculum where the practical component would be emphasised. Envisaging that objective, the Pedagogical Practices became the most important part of the new curricula.

The pedagogical practices aim at providing the student-practitioner with opportunities to come into direct contact with the basic activities of the teacher, to know what is going on in the schools, to observe a lesson, to design a lesson plan, and to teach by using the education material and other components of the teaching and learning process (UP, 2002). Ultimately, the objectives

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<sup>43</sup> In an interview available online at [www.hegesco.org/component/option.../Itemid,73/](http://www.hegesco.org/component/option.../Itemid,73/), accessed on 26 July 2011 when asked about how she would describe the terms profession, professionalisation and professionalism, the sociologist Julia Evetts gave the following answer: òThe terms are very different. The term profession essentially means a generic category of a particular type of occupation, usually one that involves knowledge, a service and an extended period of education, training and work experience with an experienced practitioner that has been practicing for a number of years. Professionalisation is, and I must emphasise that these three terms have primarily been differentiated in the Anglo-American tradition, the process of becoming, in which an occupation seeks to promote itself or be promoted by external agents into a professional occupation. Professionalism is rather different in that it has a longer history but essentially it is an occupational value or a normative value, something that in effect is a good thing and is worth preserving and worth protecting, because someone that exhibits professionalism is essentially doing a good job in providing a social service that is valued and useful.

of the PP were to develop skills regarding a critical and creative analysis, contributing to the improvement of the quality of teaching by understanding the school environment and the members of the school community (ibid.).

In spite of the existence of a compromise stating a commitment to an integrated curriculum where the practical was central to the whole process of preparing teachers, what happened was that the Pedagogical Practice component constituted the weakest link. It seemed to be one of the major constraints regarding the fulfilment of the objective of training, by stressing the right combination of theory and practice.

#### ***8.2.3.4 The institutional debate around the bivalent and the monovalent systems***

The introduction of the new curricula in 2004 was preceded by discussion which did not reach a large consensus, mainly with regard to the system to be followed by the different courses. Training teachers to teach two subjects or a single subject both have their advantages and disadvantages. As is stressed by Mavanga and Freia (2009), sometimes it is not easy to choose between these options. Many factors apply, such as the supply and demand for teachers, which seems to be one of the most important. On the one hand, the preparation of teachers in a bivalent way has a great advantage within an underfunded context, as it proves to be more economical. On the other hand, the disadvantage is that due to the number of subjects of the two areas of knowledge, the curriculum becomes overloaded, and it brings with it the risk of superficial knowledge of either subject (ibid.). In the case of monovalent programmes, the advantage is that there is always room for deep understanding of the subject and for scientific rigour in dealing with the different aspects of the field of knowledge. The disadvantage is that the graduate has only a specific and specialised training in one area.

The decision regarding the adoption of monovalent or bivalent programmes was in the hands of each faculty as it was defined by the curricular guidelines. There are indications that it was not easy to make such decision, and that in some faculties, the decision was imposed<sup>44</sup> against the

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<sup>44</sup> Indeed, in the faculty where I work, the monovalent model was highly contested and created a fracture amongst the academic staff.

will of many academic staff (AS1). It should be noted that most academic staff came from a bivalent tradition, since they were prepared to teach two subjects at the Eduardo Mondlane University or at the Higher Pedagogic Institute, which transformed into the Pedagogic University in 1995.

In my view, looking at the Mozambican situation, with a system of education which has been largely expanding through the country, it is difficult to understand the decision made by the Pedagogic University, in shifting to a monovalent model. This shows the problem of articulation between the Ministry of Education and the Pedagogic University concerning the preparation of teachers. It is quite obvious after the situation presented in the contextual chapter (Chapter 6) that the country needed more teachers with the ability to teach more than a single subject to be placed in small schools that would be built in different districts. This is corroborated by documents from the Ministry of Education, such as its strategic plans and Secondary Education Strategy, which were discussed in Chapter Five.

The table below shows how the different components of teacher education were accommodated after the introduction of the new curriculum.

**Table 8.5: Training components at the Pedagogic University (2004-2008)**

First Year	Second Year	Third Year	Fourth Year
General component	Scientific component	Scientific component	Scientific component
Scientific training	Science of Education	Science of Education	Specific didactic
Science of Education	Didactic specific	Specific Didactic	Optional Disciplines
Practicum	Practicum	Practicum	Practicum

Source: Adapted from Mavanga and Freia, 2009.

To summarise, in 2003, a curriculum review process was developed across all faculties that constituted the Pedagogic University. In 2004, the process was concluded and new curricula were put in place. The proponents of the new curriculum were highly convinced that it was the only way that the institution would be transformed into a powerhouse of teacher education in Mozambique, within a context of international and national changes. Therefore, the major changes introduced were: (i) the adoption of an integrated model; (ii) the shift from a bivalent



model to a monovalent model; (iii) the reduction of the length of the programmes from five to four years; and (iv) the introduction of an undergraduate programme developed in two phases: Bachelor degree with a duration of three years, followed by one year for conferring the degree of *Licenciatura* (UP, 2010a).

After five years, new discussions informed by the transformations being developed in higher education in Mozambique were in place. The discussions resulted in a process of curricular reform, which is addressed in the following section.

### **8.3 The new wave of reforms: flexibility, interdisciplinarity and professionalisation**

#### **8.3.1 Major and minor as a new form of curricular organisation (2010 onwards)**

Once again, when the Pedagogic University decided to embark on a curricular reform, it followed the same procedures: it went through an evaluation of the curriculum to be changed, and produced a document, a guide called the Bases and Curricular Reform Guidelines. This document states and defines the general principles that must underpin the training of teachers and establishes general curricular guidelines to be followed across the whole Pedagogic University. The document goes on to say that the training of teachers and other experts should be adapted to the way in which the higher education system has been organised nationally and internationally, as well as to the objectives of each type of training programme offered by the Pedagogic University. In real terms, the Pedagogic University tried to follow the same procedures, which were revealed to be crucial for the previous process of curricular transformations. In other words, the process of harmonisation was conducted, despite the establishment of an instrument of guidance and control.

#### **8.3.2 Curricular reform added to curricular revision**

It was rather unexpected that after almost 18 years of a relative stability of curricula, two consecutive changes occurred in 2003 and 2008, translated into one curricular revision, followed by a curricular reform. This may appear as if the Pedagogic University awoke from a kind of curricular slumber, but there are many reasons informing such a change in a short period of time. Therefore, an assessment of the curriculum in 2004 presented almost an endless list of strengths and weaknesses, which ought to be analysed in a holistic way. Some of these issues

will be elaborated in Chapter Eight, where I address the discourse of constraints presented by different actors, as participants interviewed for this research.

As it is stated above, after an assessment of the situation regarding the process of curricular implementation, the Pedagogic University initiated a process of curricular reform with reference to a global context of improving the quality of teaching learning, and educational management and administration of the institution (UP, 2010a).

Many factors justifying the need for the design of the curricular reform were put forward. In the document guiding the curricular reform, internal and external contexts as well as long-term, medium term, and short term factors are considered as follows:

- Agenda 2025;<sup>45</sup>
- The Action Plan for the Reduction of Absolute Poverty (PARPA);
- The five-year plan of the Government of Mozambique;
- The implementation of the strategies outlined in the Education Strategic Plans in 2006, the curricular transformations running within the basic education and The General Secondary Education in Mozambique;
- The proposed National Qualifications Framework for Higher Education (NQF-ES); and
- Decree N° 32/2010 of 30 August, referring to the National Accumulation System and Credit Transfer (SNATCA), coupled with the need to promote the mobility of students within the region, referring to Article 7 of the SADC Protocol on Education and training, proposing the revision of courses of the Pedagogical University as a whole, in order to harmonise them within the different educational systems in the region and the world (UP, 2010a).

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<sup>45</sup> This is a guide to the development of Mozambique up to 2025. The Agenda 2025 resulted from a process of dialogue and relentless search of consensus, laid upon a foundation of technical and scientific research. Thus, the Agenda 2025 integrates the Vision and the Strategic Options which, materialised in a pocket book, will enable each citizen to better face the challenges Mozambique will come across in the 21st century, dominated by the revolution in science and technology. Agenda 2025 is a strategic exercise of reflection over the future of Mozambique, with the following objectives: to create a long-term National Vision through a participatory process; [and] to prepare a National Development Strategy through a participatory process, defining the necessary policies and programmes for responding to the objectives identified in the national development strategy (Committee of Counselors, 2003).

Yet, according to the guidelines for the curricular reform:

The Pedagogic University as a teacher training institution is also committed to improving the quality of education. Thus, based on the legal framework and guiding indicated above and considering the needs of teachers identified by the MEC, the innovations introduced in the education system in Mozambique or the comprehensive review of the curriculum and the adoption of new models of teacher training and other technicians who can to safeguard instruction in previous levels and the development of science and technology, constitutes a challenge that arises as part of the activities of Curricular Reform at the Pedagogic University (UP, 2010a, p. 7).

In line with the curricular reform guidelines, the different programmes at the Pedagogic University aim at preparing with competencies teachers and professionals from other areas with UP, 2010a). Next sub-section looks at the training components.

### **8.3.3 Training components**

The curricular reform introduced same changes regarding the vision<sup>46</sup> and the mission<sup>47</sup> of the Pedagogic University. Therefore, the institution officially allowed the existence of programmes unrelated to education. Thus, the guidelines for the curricular revision established general principles and specific rules for teacher education and other programmes. As this research is interested in the process of teacher education development, I look at how the transformations operated in teacher education programmes.

#### **8.3.3.1 Examining teacher education programmes**

The curricular guidelines distinguish theoretically between two different models or orientations for teacher education programmes: (i) the integrated model or integrated orientation, which is defined as a model or guidance for teacher education where the components of Educational Sciences, Sciences Expertise and practical activities are integrated into the curriculum

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<sup>46</sup> Currently the vision of the Pedagogic University is to become a centre of excellence in education and training of teachers and professionals for other areas.

<sup>47</sup> At present, the mission of the Pedagogical University is to prepare at higher level teachers for all levels of education (kindergarten, primary, secondary, special, technical, professional and tertiary); professionals for the education system, and areas such as cultural, economic, social, sport, among others.

organisation; and (ii) the sequential model or sequential orientation, defined as model or guide where teacher training is done by the juxtaposition of knowledge and practices marked by a compartmentalisation of the specific sciences, sciences of education and practical activities (UP, 2010a).

The decision was that the curriculum for teacher education should be integrated with three (3) training components with the following relative weights:<sup>48</sup>

- Specific component - 65%
- Education Component - 25%
- General component -10%

In spite of the changes to the relative weights observed in the three components, what ought to be noted is the maintenance of the general, which put the practices as a crucial element regarding the preparation of the teachers and other professionals. On the other hand, it was recognised that the specific component was somewhat neglected, and that there was a need to reinforce it.

### ***8.3.3.2 Length of studies, objectives, and curricular organisation***

In the new curricular changes, the Pedagogic University considered that the 1<sup>st</sup> training cycle aimed at obtaining the undergraduate degree after eight semesters corresponding to an accumulation of 240 credits, according to the guidelines that state the training of prospective teachers and other students in the area of education should have a professional qualification. Thus, the preparation for the prospective teachers is supposed to provide the students with theoretical and practical knowledge appropriate for the labour market and the economic development of the country. In order that graduates are qualified to work in more than one occupational area, the curricula for the different programmes were organised so that in major course requirements correspond to 75% of the academic credits, and the minor course requirements correspond to 25% of the overall academic credits.

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<sup>48</sup> There are significant changes, compared to the previous curricula. The specific component became stronger than ever.

The training components consist of:

- specific courses and/or modules that convey more specific and specialised information on certain areas of knowledge related to those disciplines that future teachers will teach and in which the other technical knowledge will work;
- the educational component of training is purposed particularly for the training of teachers and integrates the disciplines, modules and activities in the areas of Education, Psychology, Didactic and Teaching Practice; and
- and the general components, whose objectives and weights did not change much when compared to the previous curriculum.

Regarding the workloads, it was noted that the number of disciplines per semester would not exceed six; the duration of a lecture was set at 50 minutes; each discipline could not have less than three hours and more than five hours per week except for professional practices, excursions, study visits, etc.; the hours of contact ought not exceed five hours per day; the weekly contact was defined as varying between 18 hours (minimum) and 25 hours (maximum); the hours of contact per semester would vary between 288 and 450 hours; and the workload for the whole degree varied between 2 592 and 3 200 hours of contact.

The pedagogical practice is one of the strongest curricular innovations of the previous curriculum and the most controversial and contested one, and was subjected to many changes in order to accommodate different ideas envisaging its improvement. For that reason, the pedagogical practices were developed in accordance with the followings characteristics.

First of all, it is defined in the curricular revision guidelines that students must carry professional practices from the first year and that the professional practices take the form of internship in the 4<sup>th</sup> year of the course. In teacher education programmes, such practices are called pedagogical practices.

It was decided that the pedagogical practices ought to be integrated within the didactics obeying the following steps: in the 1<sup>st</sup> year, the pedagogical practices are called *general pedagogical practice*, and were incorporated in the General Didactic, in the 2<sup>nd</sup> and 3<sup>rd</sup> years of the course. The pedagogical practices are called the *pedagogical practices of a given subject*, and integrated into a specific didactic (History, Geography, Physics, Mathematics, etc.). This study

argues that there is need to find experimented methodologies and appropriated forms for integrating the activities of the Pedagogical Practice within the Didactic discipline. In order to make the exercising of the pedagogical practice easier, it is also prescribed that it may be carried out at integrated schools or at the Pedagogic University (UP, 2010b). All these transformations are intended to keep the practices in another format, because the previous one was highly contested, and different voices inside the institution, proposing the abolition of the pedagogic practices as a discipline from the 1<sup>st</sup> of the programme until the fourth year. The contestation was clear during the seminar, which brought together different participants to discussing issues to be incorporated in the process of curricular reform. The seminar took place in 2008, in Chidenguele-Gaza province, about 250 kilometres away from Maputo. I participated in that seminar as an investigator of the Centre of Education Policy Studies, invited for the occasion. I consider the seminar a crucial moment concerning the decision to be made regarding the curricular reform. Issues such as the discipline of pedagogical practices, the mission and the vision, including the name of the institution were put forward for discussion. It was a great exercise of participation, which informed the elaboration of the guidelines of the curricular reform. This is corroborated by the academic staff in charge of the coordination of the curricular reform interviewed for this research.

Through an analysis of the documentation that guided the whole process of curricular reform, it is clear that the fundamental objective of the new curricula is to integrate the practicum with theoretical programmes, in pursuit of the elusive goal of bridging theory and practice. Therefore the practicum continued to be discussed as an essential and core element in the preparation programmes for teacher and other professional at the Pedagogic University.

In 2009 it a curriculum reform was concluded that came into effect from 2010 onwards. This reform introduced several aspects:

- the construction of a flexible curriculum based in competencies;
- integration of interdisciplinary, and transdisciplinary and transversality aspects;
- emphasis on professionalisation;
- orient the education for a reflective and critical knowledge; and
- adoption of the principles of the National System of Accumulation and Credit Transfer.

The ongoing curriculum has been facing many challenges, mostly related to the new form of organisation in major and minor areas of concentration. The process of monitoring and evaluation of the process of implementation has been undertaken by different organs coordinated by the pedagogic directorate. The first students submitted to this new curriculum are to be graduated in near future. After that, the final assessment of the curriculum and decisions related to that ought to be expected. New curricular revision may be on the near horizon once again.

#### **8.4 Conclusion**

Throughout this chapter the process of curricular development at the Pedagogic University was presented, which has been conducted within a context of a number of internal and external changes. Internal changes include the transformation of the Higher Pedagogic Institute into the Pedagogic University in 1995, which introduced new challenges concerning the improving of the quality of the programmes mainly related to teacher education. The major institutional changes put forward since 2005 have seen the launch of programmes not related to teacher education. It should be noted that external changes made possible or contributed to the internal changes. For instance, the several regulations for higher education subsystem have been responsible for such transformations.

Looking at teacher education programmes, the institution has been in a process of curricular adjustments since its creation in 1985. The institutional programmes have moved from an encyclopaedic bivalent and consecutive model, to an integrated model which privileges flexibility, professionalisation, interdisciplinarity, transdisciplinarity and transversality.

After a period of lethargy in terms of curricular changes which lasted about 18 years, in 2003 a new trend began, marked by a coordinated process of change envisaging a harmonisation. This occurred within a context of institutional expansion and massification across the country. Since then, the process of curricular changes has been driven by a central commission. Therefore, for the first time, a systematic curricular revision in 2003, followed by a curricular reform in 2008, took place. The existence of guidelines for the whole process of curricular transformations constituted an added value, and was revealed to be important for the improvement of the programmes throughout the country. It should be noted that the guidelines have been opening space for final decisions regarding particular issues in accordance with the particularities of each

course, department, faculty, school and branch. A more elucidative fact was the decision to adopt a bivalent or a monovalent model, which was left in the hands of each faculty.

The curriculum revision of 2003 and curricular reform of 2008 introduced a new paradigm within the teacher education development in Mozambique, which saw the shift from the sequential curriculum model, which considers the general and specialised training always preceding the pedagogical-didactic preparation, where theory comes before teaching practice (Duarte, 2008, p. 19) in an integrated and flexible model.

What becomes clear is that the Pedagogic University has made significant progress in terms of curricular development. The progress was made possible by the establishment of a board integrating experts in curriculum issues, in charge of the coordination of the entire process. Therefore, the process has been theoretically and technically well served, although what can be seen is that despite the recognised importance of the pedagogical practices within a context of an integrated curriculum, the practical component seems to constitute the weakest link regarding the preparation of future teachers. Some of the reasons for that are presented in the next chapter, where I present and discuss the discourse of constraints affecting the Pedagogic University.



## CHAPTER 9: DEALING WITH A DISCOURSE OF CONSTRAINTS

### 9.1 Introduction

I have highlighted previously that the Pedagogic University began with certain shortfalls, namely the absence of an academic staff with experience and well-equipped with knowledge for an institution of higher education; lack of proper infrastructure for a university, mainly when it decided to embark in other programmes; and furthermore, a lack of experience regarding curricular development. In theoretical terms, a large evolution of the Pedagogic University when it came to curricular development was also noticeable, as well as the relative improvement of the quality<sup>49</sup> of academic staff.

Currently transformations are most notable since the tertiary education becomes an object of attention throughout the country. This situation may be attributed to the capitalist system more broadly, which has becoming more and more dominant, and to a global perspective regarding the HE system, where õuniversities have now become key players in the global economy, contributing significantly to the knowledge stock of the world and to the financial economy of their countriesö (Maringe and Foskett, 2012, p. 5). Furthermore, the global system of tertiary education has been characterised by õincreasing competition for students, resources, staff and fundingö (ibid. p. 4).

Locally, there are changes more interconnected to what has been happening at the Pedagogic University. These changes are related to (i) privatisation and (ii) extension and expansion of the tertiary education to the rest of the country. Therefore, there is a notable emergence and development through a process of privatisation and õmarketisation of knowledgeö of: (a) private tertiary education institutions; and (b) public institutions of higher education, which are accommodating profitable programmes. During the extended period of time over which this

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<sup>49</sup> Many definitions of quality are linked to the assessment of academic staff, which include as variables the level of academic and professional preparations. Therefore, in this case, the term quality refers to that, but not to the quality of work which needs to be analysed through other instruments, such as observations and interviews.

process has been occurring, with little intervention of the government in terms of monitoring and evaluation of the programmes run in different institutions of higher learning. Currently more than 44 higher education institutions are developing their activities in the different capitals of the country, in some cases in rural districts. The Pedagogic University is considered the pioneer of this process of placement outside the capital of the country.

This chapter deals with the discourse of constraints and institutional responses constructed around the following issues: (i) the absence of a national teacher education development framework leading to disparate and piecemeal institutional discourses; (ii) budget constraints which led to the deployment of teacher with lower qualifications (and salaries) by the Ministry of Education, which contributes towards minimising the importance of training teachers through a university-based model; (iii) lack of financial resources at institutional level, due to the fact that education has always been a soft target. It explores the question of *how the different actors perceive the development that has been put in place in order to fulfil the mission and the vision of the Pedagogic University*.

By examining the perceptions based on the experience different actors, the present chapter seeks to elucidate what has constituted the major concerns regarding the fulfilment of the objectives, strategies and programmes of the Pedagogic University as an institution whose major mission is to prepare teachers for all levels of the education system in Mozambique. On the other hand, it discusses the possible implications regarding the transformations that have already taken place.

The argument pursued is that, although the effort that has been made by the Pedagogic University in developing teacher education programmes that are theoretically well conceived in order to supply the national education system with well-qualified teachers, what is perceived by different stakeholders is that in practical terms, there are many factors, namely an uncertain teacher education policy, lack of national coordination regarding teacher education development, budget constraints, the emergence of new programmes, a lack of commitments to pedagogical practices, among other things, which in some ways contribute to undermining smooth teacher education development.

Having presented the main issues to be discussed in this chapter, the next section looks at how the absence of national teacher education framework, the lack of teacher education coordination

and the institutional relationships between the Pedagogic University and Ministry of Education are perceived by the participants of this research. These factors were perceived as the most sensitive when it came to the process of teacher education development.

## **9.2 Implications for policy uncertainty**

In Chapter 6 of this study, I showed that the development of teacher education programmes in Mozambique has been marked by uncertainty as far as national policy framework is concerned, and that certain factors seem to be responsible for a situation where the different institutions providing teacher preparation are forced to rely on piecemeal policies and strategies for developing their programmes in an acceptable way. The reason for the absence of a teacher education framework is not clear. There has been room for much speculation, but ultimately, it seems that the political will to put in place such instrument, is not there.

Looking carefully at the situation and taking into account the entire scope of Education Policy development, I maintain that the absence of a national teacher education framework, as well as the lack of coordination between the different teacher education providers and the Ministry of Education, should probably be well analysed within the context of how the concepts of university autonomy and academic freedom have evolved in Mozambique. Just to reiterate, since 1975, Mozambique has been experiencing different moments of transition, which I described in the chapter related to the contextual aspects of this study. It is necessary to add that, despite the existence of laws, policies and other regulatory instruments, the culture persists of the period where almost everything was centralised. Thus, it is necessary to look at the question of university autonomy within that context. On top of that, despite a recent process of democratisation, the political environment is dominated by a particular party, which has been ruling since independence, without a clear distinction between the roles of the party and the state. It seems that nobody wants to draw a line establishing that differentiation, which would contribute to the improvement of the culture of accountability.

As Hughes (2005) put it, the notions of academic freedom and university autonomy are closely linked, and are often regarded as inseparable. But in point of fact, they come from different intellectual traditions, and derive from different histories. He states that the notion of academic freedom is the more recent concept, which derives from 19<sup>th</sup> century in Germany,

and that its intellectual roots are Kantian and protestant. The author further notes that "academic freedom" is very much concerned with the individual freedom of students and professors in the freedom to pursue a chosen course of study and the freedom to engage in teaching and research. This is to be secured by individual rights, enshrined in law and protected by the courts.

Regarding the idea of "university autonomy", Hughes (2005) states that it is much older and that its roots are medieval and Aristotelian. He adds that unlike "academic freedom", which is specifically associated with the modern research university, this is compatible with the older ideal of a university, as a place for the preservation and transmission of knowledge. Its basic idea is that university life flourishes best, when the community of scholars enjoys a substantial degree of autonomy (ibid.).

For Hägg (2009), "academic freedom" is a necessary condition for a liberal society and that "university autonomy" is no guarantee for academic freedom but is necessary. He goes on to say that "academic freedom" is an individual freedom and should be looked upon as an ideal right that, however, in practice must be combined with a person's duties in liberal society. On the other hand:

University autonomy means that universities must be free from pressure from external interests of different kinds, be it economic, political, social or cultural. At the same time universities need not least financial resources which can come from the state, foundations and business to mention the most important. Such support should not be given with ties that affect autonomy negatively, which is easy to say and more difficult to achieve in practice. It is important to constantly be on guard against efforts to decrease autonomy and it is important that the scientific community in the world cooperates in efforts to strengthen autonomy (ibid., p. 1).

Currently in Mozambique, according to regulation, the universities enjoy a theoretical autonomy. This implies that they can decide what courses to offer, and autonomously determine entry requirements and institutional governance structures. Within a long period of the recent socioeconomic and political history of the country, the situation was much different. Therefore, the current situation is a result of transformations that have been introduced in the political landscape with a large influence on how higher education institutions have been operating. But much has to be done in order to improve the institutional autonomy within a context where the signs of the authoritarian state are not completely removed.

On the other hand, a well-coordinated process involving the Ministry of Education and teacher education providers is expected, where there is a clear indication regarding what kind of teacher is needed and what competencies should be taken into consideration through his/her preparation. Such instrument is present in different systems of teacher education throughout the world, with different names. Its objective is to guide the process of preparation so as not to interfere in the autonomy of the providers.

### **9.3 Missing policies and lack of coordination**

I discussed in the theoretical chapter that different systems of teacher education in many countries in the world are subject to norms and standards for teacher education development and systems related to teacher accreditation. In general, these mechanisms put in place are not intended to impose what providers ought to do, but merely to give guidance. Furthermore, in different countries, a national framework provides common national understandings of what teachers need to know, and must be able to do to support and improve student learning.

Through revisiting the South African context, one can find that such instruments have been evolving since 2000, when the Norms and Standards for Educators were introduced, followed by the National Policy Framework for Teacher Education and Development in South Africa in 2007, and the policy on Minimum Requirements for Teacher Education in 2011. There has been an overt need to improve all these instruments with the participation of the different stakeholders. There is no doubt that such instruments have been important in guiding, coordinating and harmonising teacher education development across South Africa.

The specification of a set of minimum standards for teacher education qualifications is aimed at ensuring that the higher education system produces the kinds of teachers that the country needs. In this way, and by the identification of qualification pathways in education, it becomes possible to ensure that all educators have meaningful access to higher education qualifications for their personal, professional and academic development. The Minimum Requirements for Teacher Education Qualifications has become a core policy document, and provides a basis for the construction of a core curriculum for initial teacher education, as well as for continuing professional programmes that accredited institutions must use in order to develop their programmes leading to teacher education qualifications.

A National Policy Framework for teacher education development may contribute towards defining and promoting quality of teaching. Furthermore, I maintain that a national framework would provide an architecture within which teacher education would be able to be developed, providing guidance, support and recognition for professional development of teachers; as well as improving the alignment of standards for pre-service teacher education graduates, as well as continuing the growth of professional development across Mozambique.

Academics from the Pedagogic University as well as officers from the Ministry of Education are aware of that gap and they call for a clear teacher education policy framework and other instruments in order to enhance the process of teacher preparation and the relationship between the different providers, particularly the Pedagogic University and the Ministry of Education.

For instance, during an interview, when I addressed the question of national teacher education policy with an officer working at the National Directorate of Teacher Education, he was able to illuminate an interpretation of several documents. It was clear that there were many proclamations related to teacher preparation, but that none of them constitute a real teacher education framework approved by the Ministry of Education, and that the institution still looking for such instrument

At ministerial level, there are documents which provide policy orientation in the area of teacher education. They are written documents. Some of them are not official documents. In some cases what was projected or designed [í ] was never approved. So, these documents are not even working as an instrument. What we are doing through the process of reconstructing the national directorate and the structuring of the Ministry of Education, is firstly to map out and rescue the institutions providing teacher education, so that they become in contact with us in a coordinated way, secondly to retrieve the document that had been designed and reconstruct it so that it can be adopted and implemented (NDTE1).

In spite of recognising that the absence of a national policy for teacher education development and a clear framework guiding the whole process of teacher education development, within a

context where new providers<sup>50</sup> are coming in, being some of them privates, there was not a clear indication about when such an instrument of coordination would be put in place. The Ministry of Education was still in a process of repositioning itself regarding its role as far as teacher education is concerned.

[I]t is risky to have targets, but it is our challenge, since the moment when we were created as National Directorate of Teacher Education. We want to see a regulation for the training of teachers. We are currently designing a national policy of teacher education. We want to include those professional qualifications. We want to have evidence of whether or not this teacher is of the required calibre or not, a system of certification. This will be an added value for the institutions providing teacher education (NDTE1).

Using the South African situation as an example of policy evolution, I have highlighted the importance of a teacher education framework. In the Mozambican context, the absence of such an instrument is perceived as constituting a lacuna, which can lead the teacher education providers to move in different directions. Examples of such an issue abound. Just looking at the Pedagogic University; the institution has been conducting a process of internal curricular harmonisation, with good results, thanks to the decision to put in place instruments guiding the whole process of curricular development, including monitoring and evaluation across the country, where the branches are established. This internal organisation has been developed within a context where the national teacher education framework does not exist.

#### **9.4 A palliative solution**

An experienced academic member of staff (AS5) from the Pedagogic University presents his discomfort regarding what is going on in teacher education development in Mozambique. To some extent, his opinion translates how teacher education development in the country has been perceived by the major actors. He criticises the absence of a consistent strategy of teacher education, as well as the reactive way of designing programmes of teacher education, without a

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<sup>50</sup> Some of them, such as the Catholic University, University Sao Tomas, A Politecnica and Dom Bosco, are private institutions which have been running teacher education programmes for general education and vocational and technical education.

clear justification regarding the changes and the reason for the different options adopted by the Ministry of Education in relation to the preparation of primary school teachers. I bring here his perception because it elucidates more how the process has been occurring more as a palliative solution for very sensitive element of the national education system, which is teacher education development:

I always thought that during these 35 years of independence, the training of teachers has been something that has never been thought through strategically. It has been always a response to the immediate objectives regarding the expansion of the schooling system, from primary to secondary level. The way the curriculum has been designed; the organisation of teacher education programmes [í ] show that there has been an absence of a well thought strategy behind [í ]. I doubt that in primary education there exists a clear definition of what kind of teacher is needed. Something is written, but to what extent is this put in place? Until today the preparation of primary school teachers goes from one year to two or three years, then back to two, we are always talking about the duration of the programmes, but nobody talks in terms of what this teacher should be capable of doing. I participated in an attempt to develop a teacher education development strategy. When the strategy was finished a budget was presented and the issue was postponed. One of the key things was the Anglo-Saxon experience of teacher education that exists here in the region (ASD5).

This presents a clear and convincing explanation of how the process of teacher education development has been conceived and implemented in Mozambique's postcolonial period.

In line with the same discourse, another academic member of staff (AS11), also with a long experience related to primary school teacher education development programmes, shows a preoccupation with regard to the absence of a teacher education policy framework, and advances some ideas about what such instrument should be. At the same time, having participated in a previous process of designing a teacher education framework, he does not understand why it has not been adopted and implemented yet. He concludes that the reason is not related to lack of capacity for designing such instruments, but that the question remains as to what the main reason might be. He also expresses concern about the changes in the programmes of teacher education, without specific reasons. He points out the need for continuity. In other words, he expresses the



importance of introducing some sort of *continuum of teacher learning* (Britzman, 1991; Villegas-Reimers, 2003; Schwille and Dembélé, 2007; Conway et al., 2009). He gives a clearer explanation below, expressing a profound sense of disappointment.

I was part of the group attempting to draw up a national policy for teacher education, an integrated system of teacher training. I do not know what happened after that [í ] I participated in the first discussion, maybe it was an issue which was set aside [í ]. The national policy of teacher education should be guiding all actions regarding teacher education. The initial training [í ] this is where the big problem happens, almost in every term there is a new model emerging as a storm. It has been discussed the 10 + 3 years model, plus one year of internship, but it is unclear as to what will be done in that year [í ]. We proceed to a new model without knowing about the advantages and disadvantages of the previous models. Before it was 10 +1, and did not confer any degree. It was a form of methodological training on a small scale. It becomes a question as to what the future of these young people might be. What perspectives are open for them to graduate? The policy should project this. So there is no continuity of training, there is no clarity in terms of teacher professional development (AS11).

I found the claims brought by interviewees quoted above to be very meaningful. They underline the need for a clear national policy framework for teacher education development, as well as a relevant strategy. Therefore they are aware of the fact that there is a missing policy and what exists so far is not enough to address issues related to coordination and harmonisation. The call for a framework may not be seen as an attempt to subject all teacher education providers to something prescribed or imposed by the Ministry of Education. On the contrary, it should be seen as instruments designed with the collaboration of different actors interested in developing teacher education programmes. One of them is supposed to be the Pedagogic University, which has a long experience in preparing teachers. But what can be seen so far is that the Ministry of Education and the Pedagogic University are still looking for the right way for improving their relationship. The following section deals with this particular issue.

## **9.5 The relationship between the Ministry of Education and the Pedagogic University: perceptions of actors from both sides**

First of all, the relationship between the Ministry of Education and the Pedagogic University should be analysed. Taking into account different dimensions among them, I emphasise the political dimension, which has to do with the fact that both the Minister of Education and the Rector of the Pedagogic University are appointed, and dismissed by the President of the Republic (art. 160 nr. 2 of the Constitution of the Republic). Although the Ministry of Education is responsible for design, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of education policies, its intervention regarding what is underway at the Pedagogic University has to be done in accordance with higher education laws and regulations that establish some sort of institutional autonomy. Then there is the academic dimension, which is related to the autonomy of the university in designing programmes in accordance with its mission and vision. In spite of that, teacher education is a specific and highly sensitive programme, and the Ministry of Education, as the major partner, sometimes wants to look at or tries to influence what has been done in relation to teacher preparation. Given that fact, many tensions can be found, mainly in a situation where a teacher education policy framework is not guiding the process of teacher education development as a whole.

On the other hand, if one looks at the history of the Pedagogic University presented in the previous chapters, it is worth noting that the Ministry of Education commissioned<sup>51</sup> the establishment of the institution specifically to supply teachers to schools. In spite of that, gradually the involvement of the Ministry of Education in the Pedagogic University has been substantially decreasing. For instance, the Ministry of Education no longer prescribes the content of the courses, or which courses must be taught. This only happened when the institution was created as part of the Ministry of Education.

Participants in this inquiry, more often than not, recognise that the relationship between the Pedagogic University and the Ministry of Education has, in fact, been decreasing and becoming

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<sup>51</sup> This aspect is very important in explaining how the relationship of both institutions has evolved. I consider it as the point of departure for the whole process of analysis, which may contribute to explain the perceptions coming from the different participants interviewed for this inquiry.

less effective within socioeconomic and political changes. It should be noted that previously, I showed that the process of political change has had a huge influence on the whole national education system whose major pillar is the subsystem of teacher education development.

## **9.6 The relationship is worsening**

An academic member of staff highlights these transformations and also underlines how they have been influencing the relationship between both institutions:

The relationship always existed but it has been decreasing in terms of effectiveness. When we entered as students, the institution had a close relationship with the Ministry of Education, in terms of placement, needs, courses and specialisation; where there was a great sense of harmony. The relationship was strengthened because the first Rector was Minister of Education [1 ] the link between the Pedagogic University and the Ministry of Education should be seen within the context of developments of the country, where the economic liberalisation gradually contributes to wearing away this connection (AS5).

I maintain that, in spite of the changing contexts, if one takes into account the level of experience that the Pedagogic University has been acquiring regarding the preparation of teachers for different levels of national education system, the institution ought in fact to develop a sound relationship with the supervising ministry.

But through the interviews, what becomes clear is that the relationship between the Pedagogic University and the Ministry of Education is a matter of concern and ought to be improved, taking into account that the Pedagogic University is the major institution of teacher education established across the country, and that the Ministry of Education is the major employer of teachers. I was privy to a number of different perspectives on this subject from among those interviewed. Some of these understandings are based on the lived experience of the participants, while others are baseless, and are simply attempts to find answers to different questions by means of speculation.

Some perceptions coming from interviewees working at the Ministry of Education expose an apparent lack of coordination between both institutions regarding the development of teacher education programmes, which in their view, ought to be taking place in greater accordance with

the perspectives of the development of the subsystems directly under supervision of the Ministry of Education. For them, the major concern is that sometimes the Pedagogic University has been neglecting real needs in the preparation of teacher mainly for the general secondary school, whose curricula call for teachers prepared in different a variety of areas of knowledge.<sup>52</sup>

### **9.7 The Pedagogic University is missing the priorities**

The following quotations coming from an officer from the Ministry of Education interviewed for this research, address some concern regarding that particular aspect. He made it clear that sometimes there is no alignment between what is needed by the secondary education, and the kind of teachers prepared by the Pedagogic University. For instance, there has been a huge demand for teachers in areas related to Mathematics and science in different secondary schools across the country, but for many reasons, this issue has not being conveniently addressed, even within a situation where the Pedagogic University is present in all provinces of the country.

[O]ne of the problems is that the Pedagogic University has been focusing its training in certain areas, to detriment of others. Our perception in the Ministry of Education, which can be wrong [í ], but what we feel is that in recent years we have a shortage of teachers in the area of Natural Sciences; we have only a few teachers of Physics, Biology, and Drawing. In some cases we had provinces with only 3 or 4 teachers of Drawing; 1 or 2 teachers of Physics. Even when there is a branch of the Pedagogic University, the programme for training in that particular subject is not there! (NDTE1).

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<sup>52</sup> According to the curricular plan of general secondary education (PCESG) the school curricular areas for this subsystem represent a set of knowledge, values and attitudes interrelated. These include a set of subjects oriented for specific areas of study. The contents of the disciplines are organized taking into account the perspective of an integrated approach. The 1st cycle of the general secondary school (ESG1 gives) continuity to areas of knowledge already initiated at the Basic Education, namely, Communication and Social Sciences, Mathematics and Natural Science and Technological Activities and Practices. The 2nd cycle (ESG2) of the general secondary education consists of: (i) disciplines that correspond to a common set of knowledge, values and attitudes considered essential for any learner of this level (ii) specific areas that deepen the knowledge, namely: Communication and Social Sciences; Mathematics and Natural Sciences, Visual and Performing Arts. These consist of a group of subjects from which the learner chooses two, and (iii) Vocational Disciplines that integrates a set of content needed to develop life skills. In this group the student chooses one over the cycle. In addition to the optional subject to choose, students can also choose another of their interest, and this is optional.

I agree with the complaints presented above, but what should be understood also is that in spite of the existence of Pedagogic University branches across the country, the preparation of prospective teachers for certain subjects do not occur in all branches. Furthermore, as shown in Chapter 7, students are more likely to enrol in certain areas, to detriment of others, and that Languages, Social Sciences and Humanities; Sciences of Education and Psychology are privileged areas of focus.

## **9.8 Walking on in different directions**

On the other hand, these perceptions constitute at large, a concern about how a coordination process is needed. It is assumed that if such coordination existed, certain issues presented by some interviewees as complaints could be avoidable, where the preparation of teachers at the Pedagogic University would be targeting specific needs of the national education system. As it is stated by two academic members of staff from the Pedagogic University, one from the department of Philosophy, and another from the department of Mathematics, the lack of interaction between the two institutions may contribute towards undermining the process of preparing teachers in the country.

The two institutions are not walking on the same path. The official statements seem to imply that there is a collective effort, but the reality is that the two institutions are moving ahead differently. The problem of quality of teaching and, the high rate of failure in secondary education were discussed by the academic staff, and it was possible to understand through the participants that the Pedagogic University had put aside the whole process of designing programmes and curricula to be taught in the general secondary education (AS6).

It would be better if there was more interaction between Pedagogic University and the managers of the public policies, in this case the Ministry of Education. There are two bricks which are not connected, without an interaction we train teachers without knowing if they are needed, if yes, in which part of the country they are needed, which content should be stressed [í ] this imbalance can undermine the process of preparation, and the product should not be what the Ministry of Education want (AS11).

A danger is introduced when the institutions do not exchange enough information, which could enable a better coordination regarding to teacher preparation. The absence of that can lead to a

situation described by an academic staff member from the Pedagogic University, in the following terms:

We can fall into disrepute that our graduates are unable to respond to the demands. We design our curricula without knowing whether that is what the Ministry of Education wants. I have my doubts as to whether the Ministry of Education was involved in the current curricula [í ] the Pedagogic University had to know how many trainees the Ministry of Education needed. The Pedagogic University should form according to the needs of the Ministry of Education (AS11).

### **9.9 Non-institutionalised dialogue and subtle impositions**

The interviewees also note that, despite the existence of some sort of a formal institutional relationship between the Ministry of Education and the Pedagogic University, this dialogue has not been fully institutionalised. The following concerns voiced by academic staff try to assess the level of relationship between the Pedagogic University and the Ministry of Education. It is perceived that what happens more often than not is a non-institutionalised dialogue. The comments show that there is a lot to be done in order to improve the situation.

I feel that there is no dialogue between the Pedagogic University and the Ministry of Education there is, maybe, there is a formal thing [sic], but it is not practical in terms of work, maybe we would not have the problems we have in schools with the Pedagogical Practices (AS2).

There is no formal relationship. It would be nice to have a relationship with the supervising Ministry [í ] we are training teachers! (AS8).

I evaluate (the relationship) as unsatisfactory. The relationship between the policies defined by the Ministry of Education and what the Pedagogic University does is not aligned. Sometimes, the Ministry of Education suddenly thinks about an idea and the Pedagogic Practice just has to implement this. The University Council has representatives from the Ministry of Education, but this is the last level (AS7).

What seems to be most frequent is that some academics have been invited by the Ministry of Education or by the National Institute for Education Development in their individual capacity. It

seems that the Ministry of Education is more comfortable in working with the academic as individuals, but not when representing an institution such as the Pedagogic University. The following candid statement of an academic staff member shows how this particular aspect can be perceived:

I have been working a lot with the Ministry of Education and the National Institute for Education Development. I read many documents from these institutions. There is a mismatch, the Ministry of Education appears with an idea, then we as Pedagogic University, very quickly have to accept it and do as they want. In practical terms, the major preoccupation of the Pedagogic University is to do what is suggested by the Ministry of Education, which does not engage in discussions with our institution as a partner [í ] the dialogue is not institutional, with only a half dozen people involved (AS7).

The reasons for this are not yet clear. Just as a speculation which needs to be confirmed by further information, it seems to be easier to influence a small group than it does an institution. On the other hand, different academics have to sign a contract regarding a specific job to be done within a specific period of time, making it easier to control what needs to be done.

In summary, from the different interviewees three competing discourses emerge: (i) the first is the supervision and coordination discourse; (ii) the second is the idealistic partnership discourse proclaimed by those on both sides: Ministry of Education and the Pedagogic University; and (iii) the third is the discourse of control.

### **9.10 Sentiments of marginalisation and subalternity**

It seems that the Pedagogic University is only requested to respond to specific issues by the Ministry of Education, rather than as a strategic partner and a valid interlocutor. One of the major issues brought by some participants in this study is whether the Pedagogic University is considered a valid interlocutor when compared to the Eduardo Mondlane University. The comparison with that university was always present when I spoke to students and the academic staff. That comparison is understandable because of many factors. First, Eduardo Mondlane University is the first institution of higher education created in the country, and has been considered as a reference within the terrain of tertiary education. The second factor is related to

process that led to the emergence of the Pedagogic University replacing the Faculty of Education of Eduardo Mondlane University as a provider of teacher education programmes.

I consider the competition between institutions to be helpful when it contributes to the process of growth. But listening to the voices of some participants, I could feel the presence of some sense of inferiority, where they position themselves and their institution in a condition of subalternity.

Some academic staff from the Pedagogic University have no doubt regarding the potential that their institution has, and blame the attitude of the Ministry of Education as well as the lack of exercise of leadership intervention in lobbying for the Pedagogic University.

The Pedagogic University may have the potential to collaborate with the Ministry of Education, but I think that the agendas of the Ministry of Education exclude the Pedagogic University as a valid interlocutor. I do not know the reasons for this, I am not sure if it is related to lack of intervention of the leaders (ASD5).

At the same time, when it comes to dealing with issues of significance related to the development of the national education system, the Pedagogic University has been marginalised by the Ministry of Education. The quotes from an experienced academic staff member express some disappointment and try to demonstrate that the Ministry of Education tends to put only the most minor and/or controversial issues in the hands of the Pedagogic University.

For example, I know that for Secondary Education Strategy who participated actively was the Faculty of Education of the Eduardo Mondlane University, I collaborated with them by doing the statistical analysis [í ] we do not have capacity to convince the Ministry of Education; or it has another agenda that does not include the Pedagogic University as its key partner. But to respond to basic problems, the Ministry of Education calls upon the Pedagogic University [í ] For the Ministry of Education, the Pedagogic University only has to be invited for things that need quick solutions, However, when there are serious things that needed to be thought carefully, the ministry turns to Eduardo Mondlane University [í ] For the Ministry of Education ó the Pedagogic University is not a centre of thought (AS4).



Other academics go beyond that, to reinforce the sentiment of subalternity, because according to their perception, the Ministry of Education deals differently with the Eduardo Mondlane University and the Pedagogic University, both of which are the biggest public universities. Some also perceived that sometimes the ministry gives more credit to the former than the latter institution. Some have expressed that the Pedagogic University is only called upon for specific issues, some of which lie outside the scope or mandate of the institution. For example, the university was asked to design a programme to prepare junior secondary teacher using the format 12+1. The programmes were highly contested, but the Pedagogic University had to design and implement them. There is a strong belief that a similar situation would never happen with the Eduardo Mondlane University.

The Pedagogic University is called only to answer specific questions. [í ]. But the Pedagogic University is not requested to review, integrate and improve the curricula of Philosophy for decades. The Pedagogic University was requested to prepare 12 +1 students, even though it was not in favour of shortcuts in the training future teachers (AS6).

Again, these perceptions do not take into consideration the fact that, in spite of the accumulated experience of the Pedagogic University in dealing with education issues, the Eduardo Mondlane University the first institution of tertiary education has a pool of well-qualified academics, most of whom are well-connected, nationally and internationally. This may partially explain the preference. But when it comes to preferences, it is not easy to find the reasons for them. What is clear is that certain academic staff members from the Pedagogic University are not comfortable with what has been happening so far.

The next section addresses one of the major institutional debates regarding a change in the mission and vision of the Pedagogic University and how this process has been perceived by the major actors. The section is presented as part of the discourse of constraints raised by the different participants in this study.

### **9.11 Examining perceptions regarding the new paths and new challenges**

During its short history, the Pedagogic University has been functioning as a cornerstone of the expansion and massification of public higher education in Mozambique, through the delivering

of teacher education programmes close to the prospective teachers. This has been done in line with its mission and vision, which remained unchangeable for almost two decades. From 2005 onwards, the Pedagogic University has introduced programmes not directly related to teacher training and education issues as part of the changes and transformation inside and outside the institution. Such approaches have not only contributed to an increase in the number of students, but also generating funds, which have been scarce lately. The Pedagogic University runs separate programmes for which it charges fees for those students who are unable to gain access to the institution by the normal admission process and criteria. Now, the situation is that there are students paying marketable fees and others being subsidised by the government.

This situation gave rise to the debate regarding the role that should be played by the Pedagogic University within the landscape of tertiary education. The debate evolved around two main points of view. One, which is more conservative, argues for the maintenance of the Pedagogic University as a teacher education provider, and concerned with the development of the education field. For instance, even before the emergence of the new trend, which can be traced back to 2005, during an inaugural lecturer, Pow (2007, p. 127) examined the role of the Pedagogic University in the following terms:

[B]ut we do not prepare physicists, psychologists and linguists at the Pedagogic University. We train teachers and others students to be specialised in education [í ] and until we have as many teachers as necessary in all schools-according to our compromise with the Mozambican society, we have no right to train staff for other sectors. On the contrary, we could train graduates from other institutions in pedagogy and didactics, which would help in solving the very serious problem of the lack of teachers with adequate professional training.

The quotation above in fact reflects some of the conservative positions which are more connected to what I have discussed previously: the education system is still growing and therefore needing a large number of teachers with competencies for dealing with the challenges that the country has been facing for its development. I stated in Chapter 5 that there is a proliferation of institutions of higher education and most of them without any sort of preparation in Pedagogy and Didactic. It should be a realistic position, taking into account the experience of the Pedagogic University in the Education field. Some narratives data from academic staff perception presented below are aligned to this particular position.

## 9.12 Maintaining and improving the core mission

Some academic staff, when asked to give their opinions in relation to this new trend, were more likely to argue in line with the conservative position, where in their view, the Pedagogic University ought to continue to embrace its traditional mission. They think that room for the improvement of teacher education programmes still exists, instead of moving to other programmes, which in their view, only contribute to some sort of confusion within the institution.

As it is stated by an academic member of staff (AS4), the introduction of such programmes is *disturbing, and the Pedagogic University today is “neither fish nor meat”*. He feels that the institution is losing its identity and that *teacher training is becoming the second or third priority*.

One of the most meaningful perceptions comes from an academic who strongly disagrees with the new trend, affirming that the Pedagogic University can gain from maintaining its mission and introducing teacher education programmes for the vocational and technical education, as well as to prepare graduates from other fields of knowledge to become teachers. This would mean that the institution ought likewise to adopt a *consecutive model* of preparing teachers.

We should run courses like Agriculture and Drawing with a pedagogic component, not to train pure engineers [í ] we should show the importance of teacher training by preparing potential lecturers for different universities (AS2).

The following quotes follow on from this, and reaffirm the role that ought to be played by the Pedagogic University. At the same time, concerns are expressed regarding the over-valorisation of programmes unrelated to teacher education, to the detriment of teacher education programmes.

*For me the Pedagogic University should continue with the training of teachers. There are teachers to be prepared for vocational and technical education. We should also introduce disciplines such as Entrepreneurship. Currently, teachers of this subject are unsure about what it is. The programmes not related to teacher education have created some sort of devaluation in relation to teacher training (AS1).*

### 9.13 Emergence of distraction among the academic staff

Another academic staff member goes in the same line and adds that the changes are contributing to some sort of *distraction* and that less attention is now given to teacher education programmes because money is playing a big role shaping the activities of the academic staff.

The activity of the Pedagogic University turned into business due to the introduction of the other programmes [í ] we do not look at the teacher training with due attention as we look at the new programmes [í ] we often prefer to postpone our activities in order to attend the evening programmes because there is money [in doing so]; we try to accumulate more hours in these programmes, even endangering the activity of teacher education, which is during the day (AS6).

These statements reveal that staff are more likely to approve a conservative approach, in relation to what the Pedagogic University should be, within a context of changes, and show their preoccupation about the diminishing of the importance of teacher education programmes. Two different issues are underlined in this regard, namely: the loss of identity; and the loss of focus by the institution itself as well as by academic staff.

A second point of view has been embraced by people from inside and outside the university, trying to challenge a conservative approach. They are trying to look at the changes in a progressive way. In other words, the Pedagogic University ought to adapt to national and international dynamics regarding the development of the tertiary education. This has been justified by the neoliberal policies. As Goswami (2013, p. 33) put it "the key features of these policies are privatisation, deregulation, and marketisation of the higher education sector".

In order to justify the current situation, many factors are brought to the fore. One of them is related to the budget constraints faced by the Ministry of Education, which prevent it from recruiting prospective teaching graduates from the Pedagogic University, opting for the cheapest solution. One of the solutions was the launching of the controversial programme, with a rationale responding to financial constraint. Another solution has been the upgrading of teachers who are prepared to teach in the basic education to become junior secondary education teachers. An officer from the Ministry of Education described the situation of teacher recruitment as follows:

The demand for teachers for the general secondary education has not been met due to financial reasons. The level of recruitment of new teachers for the general secondary school is smaller than the need [í ]. In recent years we have managed to absorb 30% of graduates, while the general secondary school intake continues to grow. The level of employment in the coming years may reduce. This has much to do with the government budget [í ] not a problem of the Ministry of Education as such; it is a problem of Mozambique. We had been at a level of recruitment reaching between 12 000 and 15 000 teachers in recent years, and we have reduced to 8 500 teachers to be recruited, not because we do not need them, but due to the financial limitations. It has to do with the impact of the economic downturn (NDET1).

So, the scenario of unemployment affecting the prospective teachers graduated from the universities in general and particularly from the Pedagogic University which is the case in analyse, is going from bad to worse. Such a situation justifies the need for the diversification of programmes by the Pedagogic University to open up a space for new opportunities, instead of sticking only to teacher education programmes. A head of department had this to say:

It is an imperative to move to other areas due to the constraints faced by the education system. We have graduates who are not being employed! Graduated teachers! We train teachers who go to the streets; we train individuals who are going to the street as if we are not doing anything [sic] (HD1).

Therefore, it can be argued that many reasons justify the need for the Pedagogic University to position itself as a public institution, which ought to concerning the raising of unemployment among the prospective teachers. But I think that there is little certainty about whether the graduates from the new programmes will easily be employed within a highly competitive labour market. I maintain that the issue of unemployment ought to be addressed in a holistic way on the basis of a long-term vision regarding the development of the country, where the different stakeholders are invited to find a solution for the problem. To simply follow an agenda determined by neoliberal principles, is not the appropriate solution. It is well known that the market is not perfect, as examples of distortions caused by the market abound. On the other hand, it is necessary to bear in mind that education has always been seen as a soft target, both internally (in the case of faculties of education) as well as externally. For instance, South Africa

appears to be the most engaged in its relationship to government, without compromising issues of autonomy and academic freedom. Faculties of Education in South Africa seem to have survived through cross-subsidised and government-targeted funding. I argue that the Pedagogic University in Mozambique can only be sustained if it is heavily subsidised, since education does not intrinsically generate money.

#### **9.14 Conclusion**

In this chapter, I discussed some of the major concerns that emerged from the interviewees. What seems to be clear is that the absence of a teacher education policy framework is perceived to be a serious problem. This issue seems to be crucial for both the Ministry of Education and the Pedagogic University alike. In other words, the perceptions coming from the participants are that the question of coordination has to be addressed as urgently as possible. In relation to this particular aspect, there is a further issue of institutional relationship between the Pedagogic University and the Ministry of Education. What is perceived is that the relationship ought to be improved in order to make it more effective, less informal, and based in trust and recognition of what ought to be the role of each institution when it comes to teacher education.

Another issue which arose in this discussion is the repositioning of the Pedagogic University within the process of development of teacher education, as well as the development of tertiary education in the context of internal and external changes. What becomes clear is that the debate exists, and is driven by two dominant viewpoints. One of these argues for a more conservative approach, where the original mission of the institution is maintained, to which a new dimension of teacher education is introduced, by preparing teachers for the entire education system, including higher education. According to certain participants, this ought to be done by combining a concurrent model for the undergraduate level with a consecutive model for postgraduate programmes. There is also another point of view, which is more related to the marketisation of tertiary education within a neoliberal context.

The institutional responses to the constraints have to be understood within the context of the global trend regarding the development of higher education institutions, struggling for the most part to source the necessary funds for their operations. The result is that (i) the institution is slowly becoming a Pedagogic University in name only, moving from a total education institution

towards a university with a variety of programmes such as Civil Engineering, Geology, and Law. With the recent advent of a Medical Science Programme there is careerism and distraction among the academic staff, mainly prepared as teacher educators, but who have to join the new programmes, because it is an opportunity to obtain a salary increase.

The future of the institution as well as the future of teacher education programmes will be influenced, on the one hand by this debate, and on other hand, by how the upcoming leadership will examine these issues within the context in which the country is slowly, but firmly, becoming a zone of convergence of international capital.<sup>53</sup> The next chapter deals with the conclusions of this study.

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<sup>53</sup> Many mineral resources have recently been discovered, attracting dozens of companies investing billions of US dollars.

## **CHAPTER 10: THE SONG SHOULD NOT REMAIN THE SAME**

### **10.1 Introduction**

In the previous chapters, I have shown that the Pedagogic University has been playing a crucial role in teacher education development in Mozambique, within a context where a rapid expansion of the national education system can be noted. This calls for a significant number of teachers for the different levels and types of schooling, as well as different areas of knowledge. I presented that, since its creation in 1985, the Pedagogic University has been concerned about the need for a well-structured and harmonised curriculum, and has attempted to address issues of quality and relevance of teacher education programmes across the country, where different branches were established.

The expansion of the institution constituted an important step towards the decentralisation and massification of the subsystem of higher education. It should be noted that for many years, the sole university in the country was running its activities only in the capital of Maputo. Many prospective students had to leave their families so that they could continue with their studies, putting significant pressure on the budget of the institution where they were enrolled. Yet, throughout the previous chapter, I have emphasised that there has been a significant gap in terms of teacher education development policy and strategies with consequences that need to be analysed more profoundly, taking into account the importance of teacher education within the national education system. The teacher education subsystem is one of the most important pillars for the development of the national education system, which should have significance, relevance and ultimately, an acceptable level of quality.

This chapter provides a conclusion in light of the research question, the major goals, and the methodology conducted as well as the results obtained, offering suggestions for future research based on what I have argued.

### **10.2 Working from the questions towards the argument: a theoretical journey**

This study has presented the evolution of teacher education development in Mozambique in the postcolonial period which is characterised by several transitions (Cross, 2011). I developed this



research, exploring a case study at the Pedagogic University, the largest institution of its kind devoted to university-based teacher education. What is clear within the context of recent development in the country is that the most challenging task has been to deconstruct previously unquestioned assumptions and practices strongly established by an autocratic system of government, in order to reconstruct and eventually renegotiate newly contextualised meanings.

The development of education programmes in developing countries such as Mozambique, which is one of the poorest countries in the world, is different from that taking place in the developed world. The challenges are obviously different when comparing the availability of resources for education in general, and particularly for preparing teachers for different levels of schooling.

Looking at the process of development of an institution dedicated to preparing teachers, this study presented the Pedagogic University as having been developing a model of teacher education which has evolved, taking into consideration the socioeconomic and political context of the country including firstly, the SAP most common in the 1980s, and the implications of such programmes regarding in the social sectors, as described in this thesis; as well as secondly, the Mozambican civil war from 1976 to 1992, which also contributed to the decrease of financial resources for the education sector and the destruction of educational infrastructure. Above all, it seems that the macroeconomic transformations mainly marked by the adoption of a neoliberal agenda, have had a large influence on the way the education sector has been funded and how the different institutions of higher education have been positioning and repositioning themselves in accordance with this new reality. Thus, the Pedagogic University is also repositioning itself in relation to its previous mission and visions, as well as its objectives in becoming an institution where two types of programmes are delivered, one subsidised by the government and another one developed through students who can afford to pay market-related and competitive fees.

Furthermore, it is underlined that the process of the development of teacher education programmes seems to be hampered by many factors. Some of them are highlighted as follows: (i) the absence of a national teacher education framework; (ii) diversification of programmes as a result of institutional changes; and (iii) budget constraints at ministerial level, which have been

undermining the process of recruitment of teachers trained at tertiary level. As a result of that, it can be noted that many secondary schools have been supplied with unqualified teachers.<sup>54</sup>

Finally, it has been stressed that the several constraints result in a number of consequences, one being the lack of coordination as far as teacher education is concerned. There is a policy gap that I found when analysing the different systems of teacher education across the world. I am convinced that only a national teacher education policy framework can help to develop an effective teacher education system.

The argument was constructed based on evidence brought in by different sources of information and I used a conceptual framework as a lens which mainly borrowed theories and concepts from a number of different scholars, namely Britzman (1991); Villegas-Reimers (2003), Schwille and Dembélé (2007), Conway et al. (2009); Morrow (2007); DOE, (2007) and Musset (2010).

From a theoretical point of view, what this study tried to underline is that teacher education is an endless process. In other words, the process of becoming a teacher begins even before the students enrol for a formal institution, through “apprenticeship of observation” (Lortie, 1975) until their retirement. Therefore, it is a “continuum process of learning”, where all opportunities to improve the work of a teacher should be addressed. It is not a surprise that the continuum of teacher education has become a key focus of policy for different stakeholders interested in the preparation of well-qualified teachers, who can meet the new challenges imposed by a world in a constant state of change, which calls for teachers who are respondent to it.

This study is concerned with the role that the Pedagogic University has played in preparing teachers for the national education system education in Mozambique after replacing the Faculty of Education of Eduardo Mondlane University. I have developed the answers, taking into consideration the goals I proposed for this inquiry. Therefore I analysed the project of the Pedagogic University in terms of content, form, goals, assumptions, mission and vision, expectations and strategies. I looked for the legacy of secondary school teacher education, I have

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<sup>54</sup> Many teachers are qualified for primary education not for secondary education. It should be noted that the prospective teachers for primary and secondary education are prepared separately.

tried to interpret the responses of the different actors regarding the development in place, and I discussed the influence of the external factors such as the absence of a teacher education policy framework. I also analysed the internal factors mainly constituted by the processes of change which have been underway since 2005. The changes resulted in the adoption of new programmes, most of which were not related to the education field.

The decision to adopt a qualitative case study was revealed to be useful and suitable in answering the research question, and therefore, to constructing the argument. The Pedagogic University as case study was unique due to the way in which it was constituted, and subsequently developed across the country. Indeed, it would be almost impossible to study teacher education development in Mozambique without selecting this case. Thus, I am inclined to say that the history of secondary school teacher preparation in the last 25 years overlaps with that history of the Pedagogic University. Therefore, looking back, I am confident that the qualitative methodology that I used to elicit data for this project was appropriate in achieving what I had set out to do, and that the use of a case study facilitated the exploration of teacher education development in Mozambique in its detailed complexity, mainly marked by changes without clear justification. In this regard, this study suggests that the successive models of teacher education mainly for primary education teachers and their change without an informed research foundation are not contributing to constructing a consistent long-term direction and greater policy stability on the teacher education subsystem in Mozambique.

This section has briefly shown how I went through the research journey, and how the major arguments underpinning this study were developed across the chapters. The next section presents a summary of the insight emanating from this study.

### **10.3 Overview of insights**

This research was intended to be a critical reflection on the field of teacher education, within a country where economic and political changes have been occurring in a short period of its existence as an independent territory. Through the development of this inquiry, different issues have emerged as presented and discussed in Chapters 6, 7, 8 and 9, which dealt with the roots of postcolonial teacher education policies strategies and programmes; the idea of Pedagogic University, its conceptualisation and implementation; the idealisation of teacher education in

Mozambique, studying teacher education programmes at the Pedagogic University; and the Pedagogic University in practice, dealing with the discourse of constraints, respectively.

The insights are grouped in accordance with the questions drawn upon for this thesis. They constitute an interpretation of different issues introduced by different sources of information namely, formal interviews with selected individuals as follows: academic staff, heads of department, students and officers from the Ministry of Education; analysis of documents: annual reports, strategic plans, documents on regulative rules, student feedback and academic staff profiles.

### **10.3.1 Education is still a right**

First and foremost, there are some insights to be gained from this research related to policy and strategies regarding the education system in general, and particularly teacher education development. What becomes clear through this study is that although the socioeconomic and political changes put in place since independence in 1975, a constitutional principle has been well established stating that education is a right that should be enjoyed by every citizen. This principle has had an impact on the process of developing policies that initially privileged the expansion and massification of basic education, which had larger implications in the subsequent levels of the national education system. This process has been mostly conducted within a context of a shortage of financial resources, which seems to undermine the development of the education system and, above all, amidst a large scarcity of teachers both in quantity and calibre. Therefore, a large investment in teacher education programmes is a matter of urgency, and a clear strategy aiming at overcoming the current situation has to be put in place.

### **10.3.2 Vagueness of current teacher education strategies**

This study reveals that the level of development and adoption of policies regarding teacher education at national level are low or almost non-existent<sup>55</sup> and that what is in place is relatively inconsistent, without shape, and appearing to be unfulfilled promises. In other words, the

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<sup>55</sup> What exist are different proclamations coming from some documents such as National Education Policy introduced in 1995, and Education Strategic Plans (I, II and III). An attempt to introduce a teacher education framework in 2003-2004 failed due to reasons not yet clarified.

available information is scattered and less focused on teacher education development. The reason for such an absence is not clear, and this leads to questions and speculation. However, what has become clear is that the absence of a national teacher education policy framework is perceived as problematic by the major actors. In my opinion, a clear strategy seems to be lacking in the discourse.

### **10.3.3 Looking for a teacher education framework**

An effort ought to be made in order to introduce a national standard framework for teacher education and professional development, which may be looking for consensus in defining the purpose for norms and standards in the Mozambican context. Taking into consideration experiences from other countries, it is clear that a single standard framework will not fit all purposes for which standards may be developed. Therefore, it seems to be necessary to set out a number of different standards along a continuum that runs from entry and pre-service education to induction and later ongoing professional development (Ingvarson, 2002). When examining the South African situation, I found that a newly introduced policy document<sup>56</sup> containing different aspects related to teacher education as follows: (i) minimum requirements for teacher education qualifications; (ii) integrated qualifications for teacher education; (iii) qualifications path in teacher education; and (iv) professional and academic qualifications for initial teacher education. These dimensions could be useful in inspiring a similar process in Mozambique, at once taking care to safeguard its specificities in terms of systems, culture and vision.

I think that a process of development of a national teacher education framework may be seen as an opportunity to bring together government and teacher education providers, teachers, teacher unions, teacher educators, employers and other stakeholders. This should be conducted through a process of consultation, where a cooperative approach may facilitate an agreement on and

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<sup>56</sup> Following the HEQF's nested approach, the *Minimum Requirements for Teacher Education Qualifications selected from the HEQF* defines agreed upon standards at different levels. It selects suitable qualification types from the HEQF for different purposes in teacher education; selects the NQF Level for each qualification type; defines the designator for all degrees; identifies the list of qualifiers for all qualifications and hence identifies purposes; describes the knowledge mix appropriate for teacher qualifications; sets minimum and maximum credit values for learning programmes leading to qualifications in terms of knowledge mix and levels; and, defines a minimum set of agreed upon competences for initial teacher education programmes.

consistency around what constitutes the better way of preparing teachers of an acceptable calibre within the Mozambican context, but looking also at what is going on in the region and across the world, bearing in mind that the county is not isolated. In addition, whatever professional elements are to be included in a national framework should include specific aspects grouped around professional knowledge, professional practice, professional values and professional relationships.

Furthermore, the responsibility of the different actors has to be clear in order to ensure that teacher education development programmes are responsive to national priorities, are accessible to teachers are relevant and of acceptable quality. The following table presents an example of a map summarising the path of professional standards.

**Table 10.1: A map of professional standards for teacher education development**

	Phase 1 Pre-service preparation	Phase 2 Induction	Phase 3 Professional development
Standards relevant to each phase:	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>◆ Selection standards</li> </ul> <p><b>Focus:</b> Standards for entry to teacher education programmes.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>◆ Qualification standards</li> </ul> <p><b>Focus:</b> Standards for graduation from teacher education programmes. e.g. required level of knowledge of subject matter to be taught.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>◆ Accreditation standards</li> </ul> <p><b>Focus:</b> Standards for assessing teacher preparation courses and institutions.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>◆ Registration (licensing) standards</li> </ul> <p><b>Focus:</b> Standards for performance for full entry to the profession after probationary year, or more.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>◆ Permanency (or tenure) standards</li> </ul> <p><b>Focus:</b> Employer-specific standards, where permanency still applies.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>◆ Accountability standards</li> </ul> <p><b>Focus:</b> Standards for periodic review of performance of contractual duties for retention or dismissal decisions.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>◆ Reregistration standards</li> </ul> <p><b>Focus:</b> Standards required for periodic renewal of registration.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>◆ Appraisal standards for professional development</li> </ul> <p><b>Focus:</b> Standards for self-analysis and reflection on practice.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>◆ Advanced certification standards</li> </ul> <p><b>Focus:</b> Profession-wide standards for highly accomplished practices set by a professional body. Assessment by expert peers.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>◆ Promotion standards</li> </ul> <p><b>Focus:</b> Standards for career advancement specific to an employing authority.</p> <p>Certification may be a prerequisite for promotion.</p>
Relevant quality assurance mechanisms:	<p>Accreditation (of pre-service education institutions)</p> <p>State legislation/registration requirements</p>	<p>Registration of new teachers</p>	<p>Advanced certification</p> <p>Registration renewal</p>

Source: Adopted from: Ingvarson, L. (2002).

#### **10.3.4 Better coordination is needed**

The second group of major insights is related to the process of coordination. It concerns the relationship between the institutions providing teacher education programmes, particularly in terms of the level of coordination of the relations between the Pedagogic University, and the Ministry of Education. Many documents from the Ministry of Education underline the role to be played by the Pedagogic University regarding teacher education development, but it is not clear how this ought to materialise.

On the other hand, a general perception reinforces the idea that the issue of coordination has to be addressed as urgently as possible in order to make the programmes of teacher education more closely linked to the real needs introduced by the different education reforms on basic education, general secondary education, and vocational and technical education. In other words, the alignment of what the Pedagogic University does would be very important with what kind of teacher is needed in different types of schooling, but, at the same time, safeguarding the autonomy of this institution as a higher education provider.

#### **10.3.5 Finding funding**

The third group of insights regard financial constraints. In some way, this particular factor is perceived to be undermining the preparation of teachers at higher level. This is corroborated by the fact that the reduction of the budget for the education system has been affecting the process of recruitment of teachers newly graduated from the Pedagogic University, as well as other institutions of higher learning involved in the preparation of prospective teachers. This situation gave impetus to a new trend, which consist of diversification of programmes at the Pedagogic University.

For that reason, there is a noticeable development of programmes at undergraduate and postgraduate level, which are neither related to education nor to teacher education. Due to that, teacher education programmes are gradually coming to play second fiddle to other emerging



programmes, where the emerging courses are not related to education, and have contributed to *distraction*<sup>57</sup> of academic staff.

Beyond that, there seems to be a process involving a loss of identity as teacher educators. It is noticeable that there is a large amount of competition by the lecturers for gaining access to more hours<sup>58</sup> in different, newly introduced programmes. This situation may contribute to creating a potential tension between the coordinators and the lecturers, who seek an opportunity to teach and have the possibility of increasing their salaries.

#### **10.4 Good intentions are not enough**

The model developed by the Pedagogic University was introduced to address many issues regarding teacher education, as well as the development of the higher education system. The intention was also to redress issues of inequality as a legacy of the colonial period which, unfortunately, due to many factors, were also maintained during a considerable part of the newly independent country.

For these reasons, the model in place makes necessary consideration towards teachers being prepared close to their homes and workplaces, helping them to avoid high accommodation costs during their study. In my view, this process is particularly important in addressing previous constraints, but the process of preparation of teachers throughout the country, trying to replicate the same programmes, raises many questions, with some being more important than others.

For instance, it seems to be clear that although the intention of the institution is to prepare well-qualified prospective teachers, there are doubts as to whether this can be done by unqualified academic staff. The existence of discrepancies in terms of qualifications of the lecturers working in different branches is a matter of some concern. Thus, there is a noticeable concentration of

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<sup>57</sup> During interviews with academic staff and heads of department, the perception was that some academic staff members are assuming a false identity simply in order to access to more hours in different programmes. Due to its tradition, the Pedagogic University has been recruiting academics with a background in teaching different subjects, and not mere 'pure specialists.'

<sup>58</sup> In programmes where students have to pay for commercial fees, academic staff have a separate contract establishing a payment per hour according to their qualifications. There have been signs of competition for hours amongst them.

lecturers with higher qualifications, holding PhD and Master's degrees, in Maputo. There is therefore a need to transform the current scope through introducing programmes, which might contribute to a necessary upgrading of academic staff qualifications in different branches. Studies across the world recognise that the qualification of the lecturers has a large influence on the quality of the graduates. This raises the question as to whether the institution is producing teachers of an acceptable calibre in some of its branches.

#### **10.4.1 The inevitability of changes**

Again, there is considerable debate, which ought not be isolated from what has been happening in the world more broadly, related to public institutions of higher education, where neoliberalism is in the ascendant, and where sustainable alternatives have yet to be found.

At the Pedagogic University, two different positions have emerged. There is a more conservative one, which advocates change within the mission of the institution, where the idea is to maintain the original mission, bringing a new dimension of teacher education programmes by preparing teachers for the whole education system and combining the concurrent model and the consecutive models by introducing and reinforcing postgraduate programmes. The second idea is more related to commercialisation of certain programmes, creating a situation where some students pay full fees for their studies. Through this model, the institution may be able to generate funding, and the academic staff might have an opportunity to improve their salaries.

My opinion is that the ideal solution would be the augmentation of the budget of the Pedagogic University by the government, so that it could stick to its major mission, with a relative financial stability, enabling it to develop sustainable programmes.

As this situation is far from being reached, the Pedagogic University has sought its own way to fund itself through marketable programmes, which, in the same way, may help to subsidise teacher education programmes, as long as a clear cross-funding scheme is put in place.

Therefore, changes become inevitable. In other words, there is no way to avoid these changes within a context where the funding is scarce, and where students cannot pay the high cost of fees in teacher education programmes. It ought to be remembered that for most, becoming a teacher is not their first choice.

## 10.5 Further research initiatives

The research contained in this thesis by no means represents the final word on teacher education development in Mozambique, in fact, far from it. While I address the questions I set out to explore the case I selected, new concerns and issues came to mind. For that reason, there is room for further investigation.

Thus, future research initiatives might more accurately investigate the implications for the absence of a teacher education framework. An analysis is required of how the changes of programmes impact upon the professional identity of the teacher educators. A case study of comparative research involving different institutions offering university-based teacher education, examining patterns of similarities and differences may try to come to terms with their diversity; and ought to look at the interface between university autonomy and the need for a national policy for teacher education development.

A study involving different branches of the Pedagogic University may be fruitful in finding out whether academic qualifications and experience influence student outcomes.

Studies on the pedagogical implications regarding the different type of students selected through different procedures in order to access to teacher education programmes at the Pedagogic University would be interesting to inform how to improve and refine the admissions criteria.

Another aspect which gives room for further research in future is where to place<sup>59</sup> teacher education programmes in Mozambique: within universities or teacher education colleges? In other words, what is most suitable for a Mozambican, taking into consideration the broader trends, and the regional experiences specific to the country?

An investigation on how to develop a sound national framework for teacher education development programmes.

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<sup>59</sup> In relation to this particular issue, I found interesting the position of Osman (2010) where she states that the important issue to remember it is not the location of teacher preparation programmes, but rather what is contained in teacher preparation programme, and how it prepares teachers to teach the nation's children.

Finally an investigation on the emergence of new programmes and the repositioning of the Pedagogic University within the tertiary education in Mozambique may be followed up in order to understand future implications.

In this section I tried to highlight what I consider issues that may merit investigation in near future in order to enlarge the knowledge of teacher education development in Mozambique as well as to contribute to broader scholarship. The next section draws final conclusions.

### **10.6 Closing remarks**

One area explored by this research was the policy dimension regarding teacher education development. The discussion related to the interface between university autonomy and the role that should be played by the government as the major funder of the public higher education institutions was also put forward. The relationship between the Ministry of Education and the Pedagogic University was brought to the fore.

The study suggests that many factors contribute to the current situation. Budget for education in general, and for the higher education in particular, has not being enough to address the demands for schooling. This has been a trend all over the world. Thus, the education budget has been facing some constraints as a result of crisis in many developed countries. The situation is even worse in many African countries, principally in sub-Saharan Africa, including Mozambique. Therefore the education sector, as a soft target, has been suffering from a lack of financial resources, which puts different institutions under pressure because they need to find ways for generating additional funds for their operations. There is a need for developing of a policy framework on teacher education, which is a complex and intricate process. This study recognises that a broad and comprehensive policy that covers all aspects of university-based teacher education should be put in place. In that regard, some broad issues should be considered by Mozambican institutions in charge of designing and implementing education policies.

Currently, the internal trend in the Pedagogic University is characterised by an attempt to harmonise what is happening in all branches. It seems to be difficult, because the branches have different backgrounds in terms of human resources, as I explained above.

## 10.7 Final thoughts

This concluding chapter tried to summarise the major aspects developed in this research. I highlighted the complexity of the research journey and challenges related to the process of constructing the argument, which is based on evidence brought by data. I underlined the major insights, which I grouped according to the questions that this research tried to answer. I also made some suggestion for new opportunities for further research on teacher education development, not only at the Pedagogic University, but in the country at large.

Although there are difficulties in developing a sound balance between national and internal policies due to lack of coordination between the different stakeholders and the absence of teacher education development framework, the Pedagogic University has been the cornerstone in developing secondary school teacher education by creating branches all over the country, and has moved from a consecutive model to a concurrent model of programmes, where a professional component is provided at the same time as the general component, which is innovative in terms of secondary school teacher education programmes in Mozambique. The future of the Pedagogic University may be determined by its ability to address issues regarding the internal and external coordination of its teacher education programmes. Internal coordination refers here to all the processes of harmonisation of programmes developed in its branches spread all over the country. With external coordination, I refer to the role to be played by the Pedagogic University, and its positioning within the context of a well-established national policy and strategy of teacher education development in Mozambique.

The issue of funding in an institution which is more related to teacher education programmes will probably continue to be a major concern. As stated in this research, education is a soft target in different countries of the world. The economic crisis, which from time to time affects the developed countries, with large implications in developing countries, strongly influences the education budget. The ways in which public institutions of higher education might address this particular issue will be crucial to dealing with issues of access, quality and relevance. This question is more sensitive in an institution such as the Pedagogic University, which has as its major tradition, the goal of preparing teachers for the different subsystems of education in Mozambique.

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## APPENDICES

### APPENDIX A: INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

The interviews are intended to probe issues related to heads of departments, academic staff and student expectations, experiences, perceptions and interpretations with regard to teacher education at Pedagogic University. They will be open-ended and allow the interviewees to talk about individual experiences and views on the issues without losing the focus on the research. As such, the following questions are intended to guide the interviewer and are not to be followed with rigidity.

Heads of department

1. How long have you been working at this University?
2. What have you done before joining the department?
3. How long have you been working as head of department?
4. How did you become head of department? Did you apply for the position? Were you appointed or elected?
5. In what way the work you have done before is contributing to what you are doing now?
6. How different the Pedagogic University is when compared to other universities in Mozambique?
7. Are you informed about the national policies related to teacher education? To what degree your activity is taking into account those policies? Can you do anything without them?
6. What are the teacher education policies in your university? Are they in line with the national policies?
7. To what degree the University has autonomy regarding the design and implementation teacher education programmes?
9. How the programmes related to teacher education come about?

10. Who developed the initial programmes in terms of assumptions, frameworks of principles, values and content?
11. The curriculum changes that have been occurring at national level are reflected on the university programmes?
12. How has the university responded to those changes?
13. How beneficial are the programmes given to the candidates to become better secondary school teachers?
14. How do you describe the students of your department?
16. Are they coming here by choice?
17. What kind of support is provided by the university to the future teachers after their graduation?
18. How do you monitor the courses running in your department across the country?
19. What kind of research is developed in your department?

#### ACADEMIC STAFF

##### **Questions on academic staff profile**

1. How long have you been working at this University?
2. Where did you work before join the Pedagogic University?
3. Why did you join this institution?
4. In what way the work you have done before is contributing to what you are doing now?
5. Did you have any specific preparation in order to be a lecturer?
6. What sort of research have you been developing?

##### **Questions on environment and Institutional culture**

7. How different is the Pedagogic University when compared to other universities in Mozambique?

##### **Questions on National and institutional Policies**

8. Are you informed about the national policies related to teacher education?
9. To what degree do your activities take into account those policies?
10. Can you do your activities without them?
11. To what degree are they aligned to the policies followed by the university?



### **Questions related to Programmes and strategies**

12. How did the programmes related to teacher education come about?
13. Who developed the initial programmes in terms of assumptions, frameworks of principles of principles and values and content?
14. The changes that have been occurring at national levels in terms of curriculum are reflected on the university programmes?
15. How has the university responded to those changes?
16. How adequate are the programmes given to the candidates to become better secondary school teachers?
17. Do the programmes respond to the challenges related to the improvement of the quality of the secondary education?

### **Questions About students**

18. What kind of students are you preparing to become secondary school teachers?
19. Are they coming here by choice?

### **Questions about university Support**

20. What kind of support is provided by the university to future teachers after their graduation?

### **STUDENTS**

1. How long have you been study at this university?
2. Why did you choose this university as your training institution?
3. Did you come here by choice?
4. How were you selected for this programme?
5. Did you have any sort of preparation beforehand?
6. What factors influenced your choice of university?
7. How different is the Pedagogic University when compared to other universities in Mozambique?
8. What expectations do you had of your training for the teaching profession?
9. What factors contributed towards your decision to study in the field of education?
10. To what extent have they changed?
11. To what degree do the way the programmes running in your course give you enough ability to become a well-qualified secondary school teacher?
12. Do you find any difference between the ways how content subject and pedagogic content

are delivered in your course?

13. Do you think that they are balanced for you to become a competent teacher?

14. What would you like to see changed within your course, department or faculty?

15. How do you intend to conclude your degree?

## APPENDIX B: INFORMED CONSENT FORM

**Research Proposal:** Mapping out the Path of Teacher Education Development in Mozambique:  
A Case Study of the Pedagogic University (1985-2012)

I, (full name) \_\_\_\_\_

Hereby agree to participate in the study on the Mapping out the Path of Teacher Education Development in Mozambique: A Case Study of the Pedagogic University (1985-2010).

I understand that I will be interviewed for about one hour, that the interview will be tape-recorded and that tapes and transcripts will be stored in a locked cabinet. I hereby consent to this recording of the interview and to the use of my anonymous responses in the project.

I further understand that my responses will be treated confidentially. I will not be identified in any way on the transcript of the interview or in any of the published results of the study. I may withdraw from the project at any time by contacting the researchers.

I understand that my participation is voluntary and that there is no penalty for not participating. I have not been coerced or pressured into signing this consent form.

Signature: \_\_\_\_\_

Date: \_\_\_\_\_

## APPENDIX C: STAFF INVITE

August 2011

Dear colleague,

**Research Proposal:** Mapping out the Path of teacher education development in Mozambique: A Case Study of the Pedagogic University (1985-2012)

I would like to personally invite you to participate in the above-mentioned research project. The aims of the study are to develop a retrospective and interpretive analysis of the secondary school teacher education development in Mozambique, the legacy and the changes.

I am interested in your expectations, experiences and perceptions regarding developments related to teacher education within your faculty, Department and course.

Participation in this study is voluntary.

You may choose whether or not to participate.

Your student name will **not** be used.

Your responses will be anonymous and will not be made available to staff members at the university.

There is no penalty for you choosing not to participate.

If you may wish to stop your participation at a particular time, you may feel free to do so.

You do not have to answer questions that you do not want to.

If you do not wish your interview responses to be used in the study, you may contact us, and we will remove your responses from the study.

By participating in this study, you will be interviewed by me.

Individual interviews and focus group will take place during August, September and October 2011, and they will be approximately 45 minutes long. The results will be used **only** for academic purposes.

This study will not pose any risks nor result in any side effects, or have any direct or immediate benefits to you. If you feel that you have in any way been disadvantaged during your participation in the course of the study, or if you have any other questions about this research project, or concerns about privacy, please do not hesitate to contact me, on +258 49 71 11, +258824281420.

If you are willing to participate, please e-mail me at [Juliano.bastos@students.wits.ac.za](mailto:Juliano.bastos@students.wits.ac.za) or [netobastos@myway.com](mailto:netobastos@myway.com)

Kind regards,

Juliano Neto de Bastos

## **APPENDIX D: ETHICAL CLEARANCES**



REPÚBLICA DE MOÇAMBIQUE

MINISTÉRIO DA EDUCAÇÃO

GABINETE DO MINISTRO

## CREDECIAL

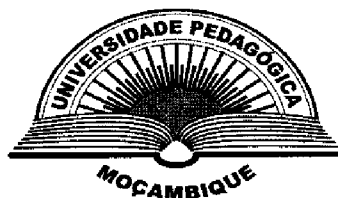
Para os devidos efeitos credenciamos o Docente **Juliano Neto de Bastos**, afecto à Faculdade de Ciências Sociais, Departamento de História da Universidade Pedagógica para fazer a pesquisa e recolha de dados necessários relacionados com a formação de professores secundários em Moçambique no período compreendido entre 1985-2010, junto a entidades relevantes.

Nesta conformidade está autorizado a efectuar entrevistas a professores e a ter acesso a documentos pertinentes.

Sem mais assunto subscrevemo-nos com a mais elevada consideração.

Maputo, aos 05 de Setembro de 2011





Universidade Pedagógica  
Faculdade de Ciências Sociais

### Credential

In the context of the course of Doctorate at Wits School of Education, Johannesburg, **Mr. Juliano Neto de Bastos**, lecturer at the Department of History, Faculty of Social Sciences, in Maputo, having submitted a PhD research proposal with the title *Mapping Out the Path of Teacher Education Development in Mozambique: A case study of the Pedagogic University (1985-2010)*, needs to begin his field work at the Pedagogic University in the following Faculties: Natural Sciences and Mathematic; Education Sciences and Psychology; Physical Education and Sports; Languages, Communication and Art; and Social Sciences.

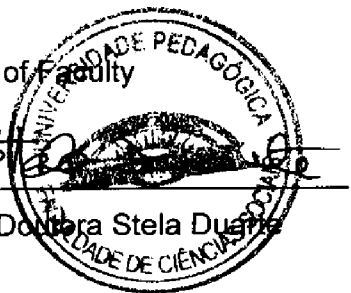
He will conduct interviews with academic staff, heads of departments and students. He should also be provided access to documents related to secondary school teacher education development programmes.

Therefore this serves to accredit him so that he can have support from your side.

Maputo, 31 de Agosto de 2011

Dean of Faculty

Prof. Doutora Stela Duarte





Wits School of Education

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Website: [www.wits.ac.za](http://www.wits.ac.za)

Student number: 0318709F

Protocol number: 2011ECE139C

30 August 2011

Mr. Juliano Neto de Bastos

C/o Stiemens and De Beer

BRAAMFONTEIN

2001

Dear Mr. Bastos

Application for Ethics: Doctor of Philosophy

Thank you very much for your ethics application. The Ethics Committee in Education of the Faculty of Humanities, acting on behalf of the Senate has considered your application for ethics clearance for your proposal entitled:

Mapping out the path of teacher development in Mozambique: A case study of the Pedagogic University

The committee recently met and I am pleased to inform you that clearance was granted. The committee was delighted about the ways in which you have taken care of and given consideration to the ethical dimensions of your research project. Congratulations to you and your supervisor!




Please use the above protocol number in all correspondence to the relevant research parties (schools, parents, learners etc.) and include it in your research report or project on the title page.

The Protocol Number above should be submitted to the Graduate Studies in Education Committee upon submission of your final research report.

All the best with your research project.

Yours sincerely

  
Matsie Mabeta  
Wits School of Education

(011) 717 3416

Cc Supervisor: Prof. M Cross (via e-mail)