

## CHAPTER 2

### THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

#### 2.1 INTRODUCTION

In this chapter I address specific theoretical matters regarding teachers' continuing professional development (TCPD) from a multidimensional viewpoint. Hence the various aspects related to professional development (PD) form the theoretical basis of my study. I reviewed the literature which deals with the topic of my study (professional development) as well as with educational change, learning styles, transformative learning, cooperative learning, instructional design and assessment.

This PAR study was conducted to apply the theories of a self-directed professional development approach on TCPD and to contribute to the wide body of existing knowledge, as I previously explained. My study fits into the nature of the action research aim stated by Kember (2000:25):

*Perhaps the clearest distinction between action research and other modes lies in the attitude to changes to what is being researched. (...) Action researchers set out with the avowed intention of improving their practices. Action Research (...) contributes to both social practice and the development of theory.*

Kember (2000:23-24) on stating the nature of action research indicates three conditions for action research referred to Carr and Kemmis (1986:156-66). He states that "firstly, a project takes as its subject-matter a social practice". In the context of this study, the social practice is primary education. In this sense, the learning facilitation by teachers in their own classes and school supports the first condition stated by Kember. "Secondly, the project proceeds through a spiral of cycles of planning, acting, observing and reflecting". My study integrates the four components of action research, as explicated in Chapter 3. The group of teachers involved in the study as participants systematically participate in both the design and the implementation

process; the teachers also reflect on their practices, and present suggestions and critiques to evaluate the process. “Thirdly, the project involves those responsible for the practice”. The people “responsible for the practice” in my study are the primary school teachers.

Applying the action research “participative” nature indicated by Kember (2000:24) had as a consequence that the study covered a time span from 2007 to 2010, since teachers are only available for a very short time after their class period and school duties. Thus, research activities had to be carried out accordingly.

The findings of this PAR study are first and foremost applicable to the individual teachers who participated in the study. However, the MINED and the TCPD providers in Mozambique can use the outcomes of this study to support teachers in other locations by making the model of PD available, for instance to all teacher training colleges, all PD providers and to teachers themselves.

The epistemological view of this study attempts to understand and interpret teachers’ practice and the ways in which teachers handle responsibility for their own CPD. I followed an interpretative theoretical basis to orient the interpretation of the teachers’ experiences and the discussions that were held during all the steps of the project. This basis serves to understand and get insight into the field of self-directed professional development. The epistemological view of my study is not positivistic.

The theoretical framework of my study seeks a theoretical understanding of CPD. Therefore I also reviewed the literature which deals directly with the topic of my study as well as with educational change, transformative learning, instructional design and action research. Insight into those pertinent scientific matters will be fruitful to critically review and elucidate possible reasons for the low individual responsibility for CPD among teachers in Grades 1 and 2 and it was helpful in designing a more effective intervention. In order to have a better understanding of the teachers’ role within the wide process of change, scholars who describe the phenomenon and the meaning of educational change such as Fullan (1992, 1993, 1997, 1998, 2001), Hargreaves (1992, 1998, 2000), Liberman (1998) and Hopkins (1993, 2001)

were consulted. The diversity of teacher development approaches were also studied as done by Day (1990), Day and Sachs (2004) and Christie et al. (2004). Concerning educational change attained through action research, Elliot (1991) was studied.

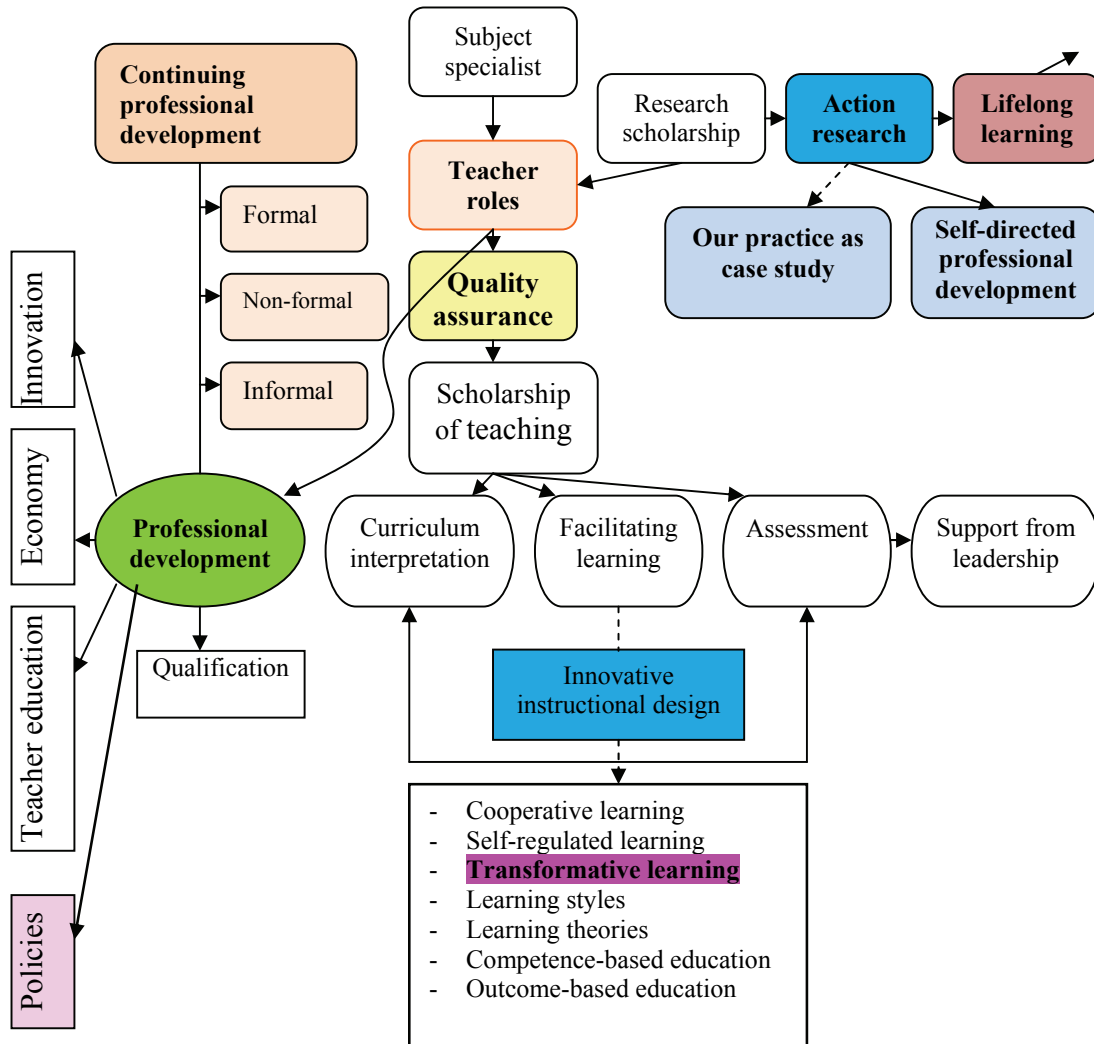
My literature review also contains works on instructional design applied to PD, for example Gagné (1985) with his discussion about learning; theories of instruction by Reigeluth (1987); descriptions of theories and models of instructional design by Romizovsky (1984) and Morrison, Ross and Kemp (2001) about the process of effective instruction.

Due to the exploratory nature of this PAR study as referred to in Chapter 1, the theoretical framework provides a holistic approach of TCPD. This framework integrates the specific theories that are used – according to the phase of my study in order to answer a particular issue of the study research questions. In this study I intend to learn from the teachers' multidimensional classroom practices. As “learning is a holistic process of adaptation to the world” Zuber-Skerritt (1992:104), I will not use a reductive approach by applying one specific learning theory since no unique theory summarises TCPD. In this same flow of reasoning, Flood (2001:141) argues that “reductionism, let us be reminded, advocates analysis of phenomena, which means breaking them down into constituent parts and then studying this simple elements in terms of cause and effect relationship”.

Notwithstanding the holistic approach of TCPD, the visual representation of my theoretical framework does not encompass the exhaustive theoretical thinking guiding TCPD. Rather, it shows a picture of the intellectual puzzle driving this study to explore an intervention to support primary school teachers in taking responsibility for their own CPD.

On exploring an intervention for TCPD, the theoretical framework discussed in this chapter assisted me in gaining insight into TCPD and in providing the theoretical basis for the topic being studied. The insight from this chapter guided my intention to answer the research questions as well to analyse the results and findings of this study. Figure 2.1 shows the holistic representation of TCPD theoretical framework in this study.

Figure 2.1: Holistic theoretical framework for teacher continuing professional development



The above framework represents the multi-dimensional nature of the professional development intervention. Only the essential aspects included in the figure, as highlighted by means of shadowing, are discussed next.

## 2.2 PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT

The purpose of this section is to examine the concept of PD of teachers. The literature on professional development of teachers is replete with perspectives on analysis and discussion on teaching as a profession and teacher professionalism (Sachs, 2003). For instance, Darling-Hammond (2006) refers to professional standards and professional communities whereas Hargreaves and Fullan (1992) examine professional development and professional growth of teachers. In this study, I discuss PD with the intention to get insight into the professional development of teachers and not to deepen a discussion on understanding about whether or not facilitating learning within formal settings is considered an integral part of the teaching profession or not.

### 2.2.1 Professional Development as Concept

The concept *professional development* brings to mind the dimensions of profession, professionalism and development. Facilitating learning as a profession is an expression widely used, not only among those who facilitate learning themselves but also among others like laypersons, politicians, and the media (Hoyle, 1995). A wide variety of definitions is used to explain the terms *profession*, *professional* and *development* as indicated in the following discussion.

#### *Profession*

A large number of writers have been tempted to define the term *profession* and/or describe a set of criteria that could be used to define the term *profession*. In this regard Cogan (1995:105) simply states that an attempt on defining profession “is to invite controversy” since there is no consensus on previous definitions which have been formulated, taking into consideration a specific case. In searching for such definitions, Hoyle (1995) based his assumption on the functionalist theory of the professions that states that “the professions are those occupations whose members bring a high degree of knowledge and skill to those social functions which are most central to the well-being of society”. Table 2.1 offers the criteria generated by Hoyle (1980) and quoted by Hoyle (1995). However, Hoyle (1995) cautiously

points out two aspects: the first one is that the criteria are not all of the quality met in all societies; the second aspect is that facilitating learning as a profession does not fully meet all the criteria.

<b>Issues raised</b>	<b>Criteria for the Professions</b>
Definition	A profession is an occupation that performs a crucial social function.
Requirements	The exercise of this function requires a considerable degree of skill.
Context	This skill is exercised in situations that are not wholly routine, but in which new problems have to be handled.
Ways to gain knowledge	Thus, although knowledge gained through experience is important, this recipe-type knowledge is insufficient to meet professional demands and the practitioner has to draw on a body of systematic knowledge.  The acquisition of this body of knowledge and the development of specific skills require a lengthy period of higher education.
Components of professional education	This period of education and training also involves the process of socialisation in terms of professional values.
Nature of the values	These values tend to centre on the pre-eminence of clients' interests, and to some degree they are made explicit in a code of ethics.
Professionals' responsibility on the use of skills	Because knowledge-based skills are exercised in no-routine situations, it is essential for the professionals to have the freedom to make their own judgement with regard to appropriate practice.  Because professional practice is so specialised, the organised profession should have a strong voice in the shaping of relevant public policy, a large degree of control over the exercise of professional responsibilities, and a high degree of autonomy in relation to the state.
Acknowledgement	Lengthy training, responsibility, and client-centeredness are necessarily rewarded by high prestige and a high level of remuneration.

Table 2.1: Criteria generated from the functionalist theory of the professions (adapted from Hoyle, 1995:12)

The assumption here is that a profession is a set of cognitive matters leading to technical or practical learning and the affective domain which involves attitudes, values and beliefs.

Siggler and Hiebert, quoted by Fullan (2001:253), corroborate the above criteria by simply commenting that “a profession is not created by certificates and censures but by the existence of a substantive body of professional knowledge, as well as a mechanism for improving it,

and by a genuine desire of the profession's members to improve their practice". Their comment goes further than the idea that a profession is characterised by holding certificates. They emphasise the fact that not only knowledge but also the adequate use and improvement of that knowledge is the basic condition of a profession. Hargreaves (2000) takes a different approach and cautiously analyses this concept. He emphasises the understanding of the concept in other fields than in education, maintaining that:

*Outside education, professions have been represented theoretically, in the image of those who belong to them, and who advance their interest as having a strong technical culture with a specialized knowledge base and shared standards of practice, a service ethic where there is a commitment to clients needs, a firm monopoly over service, long periods of training, and high degrees of autonomy.*

(Hargreaves, 2000:152)

With reference to these discussions, it appears that facilitating learning still is a vast field for discussion on the profession concept. However, the discussion needs to be contextualised, looking at the specific contexts where teachers work. The ideas mentioned by the above authors seem to have been formulated from geographical contexts where to be a teacher one should be educated in formal settings. In other words, the interpretation is that the commencement of the profession is provided by the specialised institutions which that profession refers to. In developing countries like Mozambique, the demand for professional services is increasingly high. Therefore, in some social fields like education, there are tasks where to enter the profession (and facilitating learning is one of the cases) professional knowledge and skills are not required.

The previous discussions on the term *profession* encountered gaps concerning the number of criteria and the contents indicated by the authors in Mozambique and other developing countries. These gaps or inadequacies, in summary, jointly form the weakness of the teacher education models with respect to:

- the entry level and the degree conferred to the graduates in initial teacher education;
- duration of the programme;

- knowledge and skills acquired throughout the attendance of teacher education programmes;
- teachers' responsibility for their continuing professional development and innovation;
- overall acknowledgement of the profession by the society.

### *Professional*

Sachs (2003:2-3) discusses the terms *professional* and *professionalism* and he relates these terms to what it means for those who facilitate learning to be professional and the meaning of belonging to the facilitation of learning profession. He starts in a provocative manner when he continues saying that

*at a time real estate agents refer to themselves as professionals, window cleaners claim that they provide professional service and sellers of used cars celebrate a professional code of practice, we are left asking what relevance the concept has for teachers individually and collectively?*

With respect to facilitating learning, its professional basis is randomly discussed with regard to practical issues in the teaching profession in terms of knowledge, expertise, commitment and responsibility. Accordingly Darling-Hammond (2005:4) simply comments that:

*These professional cornerstones are only haphazardly developed in teaching, where preparation is not always required for practice and where bureaucratic rules and employer-employee contracts are often developed and implemented without regard to professional knowledge or the needs of clients. At the same time, teachers as a group exercise little control or responsibility for defining, transmitting, and enforcing standards of professional practice in teacher education and certification policies, school personnel decisions, or the job review of practice.*

Here Darling-Hammond (2005) stresses the importance of initial teacher education to the professional component of facilitating learning. She discusses this component from both perspectives: from an education decision-maker's perspective, implying appointing an individual to be a teacher without the required education and professional, and from a



teacher's perspective, implying that teachers do not take responsibility for evolving the issues directly linked to facilitating learning.

Bransford, Darling-Hammond and LePage (2005), supporting the importance of initial teacher education what they name 'preparation', state that like in other professions, medicine, engineering, law and architecture, the field of facilitating learning should build a set of practices developed from a consensus with reference to the required knowledge and skills for teachers in order to profit from profession-wide knowledge. They continue to say that "if teachers are to have access to the knowledge available to inform their practice, such consensus must become a reality for the teaching profession as well" (Bransford et al., 2005:9).

From the previous statements it is clear that to be professional in any profession, a basic initial education comprising areas of understanding and consensus with respect to what learning objectives, content, skills and professional character have to be developed.

#### *Development*

With respect to the term 'development', Darling-Hammond (2005:232) has the assumption that development means both a rupture from a static attitude and the willingness to improve

*Development is growth and maturation. Growth must be related to an increase in the amount and quality of knowledge possessed by individuals. Maturation indicates that the individual has been able to interrelate the knowledge of various types in order to reinforce the goal achievement which each individual is entitled to identify and describe.*

#### *Professional development*

Like the separate concepts of 'profession' and 'development', the united concept of 'professional development' is also explained by an abundance of terms in educational literature. From the previous definitions of profession and development, PD can be explained

as a growth in the profession based on individual planning and desire to achieve higher and better levels of knowledge, skills and values. However, professional development encompasses more than knowledge.

Bezzina (2002:58) discusses the phrase *professional development* in the context of the learning facilitation and she understands PD as short-term programmes that include activities to be performed towards the promotion of personal and professional growth of learning facilitators.

Glatthorn, Jones, and Bullock (2006:40) also look at the term ‘staff development’ from an institutional perspective, namely the school system or the school itself when they state that

*Staff development includes organized training programs provided for groups of faculty and offered by the school system or the school. Two elements are crucial. First, staff development is presented to groups of faculty, to distinguish it from individual services of supervision. Second, the programs are offered by the school system or the school, in contrast to graduate courses offered by a university. Of course, many effective staff development programs have been the result of collaborative school/university activities.*

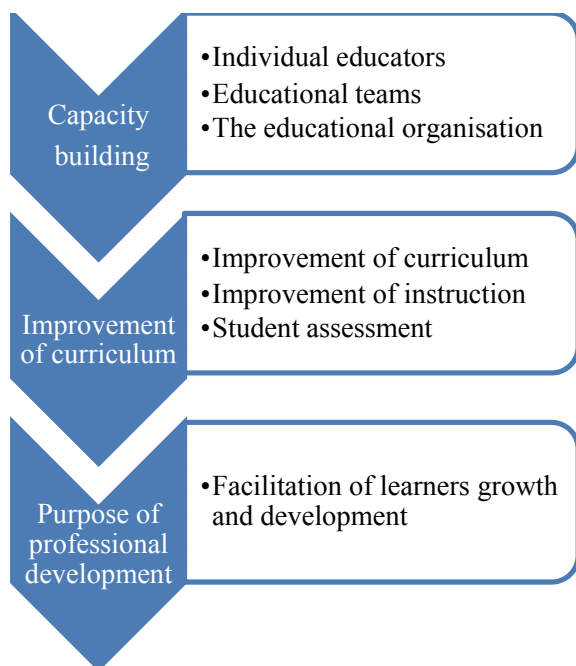
The understanding here is, first of all, that the initiative and responsibility for being engaged in professional development programmes rely on others than the teachers themselves. Secondly, this definition excludes academic courses. However, academic courses are also ways for PD. For instances, Jablonski (2001) discusses doctoral courses as forms of PD in the United States of America. In the case of Mozambique, academic courses form part of PD that people follow.

According to Díaz-Maggioli (2004:5) PD can be defined as “a career-long process in which educators fine-tune their teaching to meet student needs. As such, it directly tackles teachers’ teaching styles – the patterns of decisions teachers make when mediating their students’ learning”. This understanding of PD implies a previous learning in initial teacher education colleges and successive activities aimed at improving or adjusting pedagogical knowledge and skills, values and attitudes. However, in contexts of insufficient qualification or lack of

qualification like Mozambique and other developing countries, PD consists of short-term programmes aiming at filling gaps. Therefore, in the learning profession facilitation, Secondly, PD also refers to programmes involving all learning facilitators from the same grade or level of education concerning a subject or issues that they have in common.

In discussing PD, Gordon (2004:5) takes a different perspective on the previous definitions and expands it by addressing issues related to the factors that affect learners' learning. Thus he provides a definition of “*successful* professional development, which includes experiences” related to capacity building, learners' learning and the purpose of PD.

Figure 2.2: Experiences that characterise successful professional development (adapted from Gordon, 2004:5)



This view expresses the traditional characteristics of a PD programme, since it stresses matters concerning educational policies and does not take into consideration components related to the “total teacher and total school” (Fullan & Hargreaves, 1992:5). Section 2.3 offers the components suggested by these authors. Likewise, in Mozambique, PD

programmes are mostly recommended by the Ministry of Education or national and international organisation working in this field.

From the above understanding, there is an urgent need to re-examine PD as part of an institutionalised training system executed by the school and the teacher education institutions in Mozambique. From as early as 1998, Ingvarson (1998) claims the importance of a PD by the reference to “professional development system”. He notes that the mechanisms that each country implements to support school on the implementation of educational reforms “have to generate ideas for improvement, to keep these ideas circulating, and to provide opportunities for teachers to share them and to learn how to use them” (Ingvarson, 1998:1007). Developing the idea of ‘professional development’ he enumerates key components of a PD system, in the following way:

- The governance: control questions
  - Who determines goals and purposes?
  - The allocation of resources
  - Legitimation of in-service education activities: for credit; for promotion
  
- The knowledge: goals of the PD system
  - How goals and purpose are determined
  - The basis for determining what teachers should get better at
  - The main goal helps teachers learn how to implement an employer determined policies
  - Does the system depend on standards?
  
- The incentives
  
- The provider

From the previous definitions I am of the opinion that, in this study, professional development is the process that provides the opportunity of increasing those above-mentioned professional competencies, attitudes and values. This can be obtained by using

formal and/or informal education settings, which can comprise upgrading academic or professional courses, in the first place, or in-service programmes that focus on learning, how to become a professional facilitator through collaborative and individual learning activities and also through observation of the work of other colleagues or professionals

### **2.2.2 Practices of Professional Development**

A wide variety of people such as teachers, engineers, lawyers and medical doctors are regularly expected to attend PD programmes for a variety of reasons: credit completion, career growth, lifelong learning and professional upgrading or as a mandatory activity. When deciding on engaging in PD programmes, one can probably combine two or more of those reasons in order to find a satisfactory way of ensuring sustainability in the profession.

The intended learning outcomes in the professional development of teachers mostly comprise activities that lead to acquisition and/or improvement of knowledge and competencies about new or specific subject matter, methods of facilitating learning, information related to changes in education paradigms and policies.

Yet, concerning what professional development of teachers should be, several authors (Bolam & McMahon, 2004; Christie et al., 2004; Day & Sachs, 2004; Sugrue, 2004) use the phrase *continuing professional development* stressing the fact that PD should be ongoing and permanent activity. Continuing professional development of teachers which considers that “teachers, individually and collectively, take charge of their own professional development” (Christie et al., 2004) is the theoretical basis of this study.

A distinction between the different ways in which professionals can develop themselves is offered by Sugrue (2004). He uses the phrase “The nature of continuing professional development practice” and considers three main modes, namely formal, non-formal and informal. Table 2.2 shows his views.

Formal	Non-Formal	Informal
Taught courses	Emphasis is on inquiry/ learning	Individual, private
Credit and non-credit by university personnel and CPD experts, facilitators	School based/focused	Includes: staffroom conversations; occasional lectures, family/close friends; reading professionally related journals/magazines; TV/video
Short “in-service” as well as extended post-graduate course modules for awards (diploma/degrees)	Partnerships: school/ university	
	Networks: interests, subjects, innovations	Unplanned/opportunistic conversations
	Communities of practice: professional support, sharing expertise, knowledge generation, action-orientated	Hobbies/interests

Table 2.2: The nature of CPD practice

Grundy and Robinson (2004:146) point out the importance of professional development by the reference to the example of Australian schools where the academic year begins with planning and PD. This stance indicates that PD is an essential activity for teachers already in the profession and those newly appointed.

### 2.2.3 The Mozambican Case of Professional Development

In Mozambique the recent approach on what professionals should do to improve their professional skills is generally referred to as *desenvolvimento profissional* (professional development), instead of the term *curso de capacitação* (programme for skills training) largely used throughout the past decades in the education sector. *Curso de Formação* (training programme) is another term used to name professional development mainly in other sectors. Accordingly, PD includes all those programmes aiming at upgrading professionals or providing opportunities to acquire professional skills for those who are entering the profession without specific preparation.

In countries like the United States, Australia, New Zealand and the United Kingdom teachers point out the decrease in status and recognition of the profession. In Mozambique teachers

complain about the teacher's status in society. They feel that the society does not realise their real value. In this respect, at the MINED level, there is no doubt that they are concerned about the teacher's status and the important role that teachers play in the education system. The Education Sector Strategic Plan states that the issues related to teachers' motivation and satisfaction and also the work conditions have to be examined in combination with the budget for salaries (República de Moçambique, 2006:18).

With reference to the professional development in Mozambique, the MINED emphasises the importance of in-service teacher education, continuing professional development of teachers and teacher educators through the programmes of the current National Strategy for Teacher Education (Ministério da Educação, 2004). Consequently PD is viewed in the context of the teacher education policy agenda due to the pressure of reforms and the weakness of the education achievement. To attain the proposed aims, the MEC acts upon PD programmes, which are concentrated, on the one hand, on educational policies and, on the other hand, on the improvement of the education provided in schools and institutions for teacher education. However, there is a lack of differentiation between PD programmes for teachers and teacher educators who are already in the profession for a considerable time and such programmes for those who are rapidly prepared to enter the profession in the beginning of the academic year.

Actually PD has been looked upon as short-term programmes basically aiming at the provision or improvement of professional skills to newly appointed teachers, teachers who are in the profession and teacher educators. The newly appointed teachers are individuals who have only completed Grade 10 or 12 and did not attend any kind of teacher education before. This group of teachers is trained through short-term programmes at ZIP level by provincial or district pedagogical technicians.

The PD programmes carried out by the MEC at the beginning of the academic year are of great value for the centrality of learners' learning within the facilitating learning process and for the role of PD. Developing this line of thinking, Grundy and Robinson (2004:146) argue that carrying out PD activities at the beginning of the academic year not only shows the

newly appointed teacher that PD is central to her/his work, but also that PD is a continuing activity in the teacher's career.

Henceforth, because of this great emphasis on improvement of education that, in other words, means improvement of the learners' learning, the PD programmes previously referred to include objectives related to individual teacher's needs in order to grow as a person. In fact the crucial aim of PD programmes is the learners' learning. However, "an appropriate balance between meeting the needs of the individual professional, on the one hand, and the school and national policy on the other" (Bolam & McMahon, 2000:278) has to be explored.

Professional Development provided by the Ministry of Education still takes place in the form of workshops and seminars following characteristics of traditional professional development training. At school level peer assessment takes place mainly among teachers from the same grade or coaching and supervision given by the school pedagogical dedputy. The frequency of PD activities fluctuates, mostly when a new paradigm of facilitating learning or a new curriculum has to be introduced. This is the case when a new education concern, like achievement in a specific grade, arises. That is why PD programmes have been systematically provided to teachers facilitating learning in Grades 1 and 2. Teachers' participation in these programmes is compulsory. Díaz-Maggioli (2004:6), referring to the distinction between traditional professional development and the more innovative ones, which he names "visionary professional development", identifies the characteristics of both approaches , as shown in Table 2.3.

<b>Traditional Professional Development</b>	<b>Visionary Professional Development</b>
Top-down decision making	Collaborative decision-making
A "fix-it" approach	A growth-driven approach
Lack of programme ownership among teachers	Collective construction of programmes
Prescriptive ideas	Inquiry-based ideas
One-size-fits-all techniques	Tailor-made techniques
Fixed and untimely delivery methods	Varied and timely delivery methods
Little or no follow-up	Adequate support system
Decontextualised programmes	Context specific programmes
Lack of proper evaluation	Proactive assessment
Pedagogical (child-centred) instruction	Andragogical (adult-centred) instruction

Table 2.3: Characteristics of traditional vs. visionary professional development (adapted from Díaz-Maggioli, 2004:6)



The characteristics of a visionary professional development approach as shown in Table 2.2, qualitatively add innovative ideas to the traditional one. However, visionary PD still misses the personal development dimension that PD should encompass, for example, rewards and incentives (like promotion in someone's career), as Hargreaves and Fullan (1992:8) state

*There are personal development issues specific to the teaching career itself. Promotion brings its rewards and incentives. Equally the denial of promotion can create careers that become 'spoilt', leading their bearers to become disenchanted, even cynical, as they no longer feel valued by their organizations.*

However, the list of characteristics of visionary professional development, which I interpret as a more innovative PD, misses the teacher's responsiveness to the programmes and the willingness to be engaged in PD through self-directed PD. Clark (1992) supports this statement in saying that "teachers are not passive, needy, deficient and homogeneous". Self-directed PD is being discussed in Section 2.7 as a model of teachers' continuing professional development.

Summing up the previous discussion on the concept and practices of PD, I have the view that PD should move from traditional practices to more innovative ones, including self-directed PD. Another issue to keep in mind is that PD should be a continuous and systematic activity throughout the career of teachers, teachers' educators and other educators in order to allow them to acquire and/or to develop the required professional skills in the context where they work. The term *educators* here is used as in *The Norms and Standards for Educators* (Department of Education, 2000) to refer to individuals who facilitate learning or educate other individuals or who provide PD services at public or private schools, offices or institutions devoted to further education. In this sense the term is applicable to a variety of functions in the education field, for instance to those who facilitate learning in classrooms, principals, head of departments, heads or pedagogical teams at district, provincial and national levels. In addition to the issues to be taken into account is the fact that it does seem logical that PD is a process to be carried out by teachers themselves.

The following section of teachers' continuing professional development traces different understandings in relation to this topic, which provide a deeper insight into the concept of

professional and a model of PD where the individual teacher takes responsibility for her/his PD.

### **2.3 TEACHER CONTINUING PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT**

The discussion on CPD in this section takes into consideration both teachers and teacher educators. Thus, the theoretical and practical issues related to teachers can be applied to teacher educators as well. However, specific emphasis is put on teachers, the crucial component in the focus of the present study.

The field of CPD has been object of a large number of researches and debates and the extensive literature in this field uses various terms with respect to CPD. For instance, continuing professional development (Day & Sachs, 2004) or professional development of teachers (Fullan, 2001) or simply teacher development (Fullan & Hargreaves, 1992), teacher development, in-service education and training (INSET), staff development, career development, human resource development, professional development, continuing education and lifelong learning (Bolam & McMahon, 2004:33) are some of the terms used.

Whatever term is used, an analysis of CPD activities or programmes may be of great importance. For example, an analysis concerning a deep understanding of the teacher roles and motivation, the context in which teachers acquire and develop knowledge, skills, values and attitudes, the specific and exclusive context in which teachers participate in CPD, and the complexity of the facilitation of learning could be helpful to the contemporary debate in this field.

The length of the era in which research concerning CPD and its main characteristics took place is illustrated by Fullan and Hargreaves (1992:1) in the following way

*We divide the period of research on teacher development since 1975 into two broad phases. The first phase analyzed the relationship between teacher development and successful implementation of innovation – we call this the*

*innovation focused-period. The second phase takes the matter more deeply by considering the total teacher and the total school.*

The *innovation focused-period* relates teacher development to the successful implementation of innovations, since “successful change involves learning how to do something new” (Fullan & Hargreaves, 1992:1). Adhering to this interpretation, (Rodrigues, 2005:1) views innovation as one of the possible origins of professional development.

In discussing “the total teacher and the total school phase”, Fullan and Hargreaves (1992:5) describe a framework that involves four main elements:

- The teacher’s *purpose*
- The teacher as a *person*
- The real world *context* in which teachers work
- The *culture* of teaching: the working relationship that teachers have with their colleagues inside and outside the school.

My understanding is that the four elements have to do with school-based professional development. With reference to school-based professional development, Moon (2007:356) consistently refers to the contemporary debate and policies about TCPD. He argues that TCPD “is best articulated close to practice, in contexts where teachers see the relevance of change and can engage in dialogue and the shared construction of new meanings with immediate colleagues and others who might play a support role”. This reasoning is corroborated in this study by exploring the intervention at the teachers’ work place. According to Moon (2007:356) this scope is of value, particularly to developing countries where financial resources still are a challenge and “where many people teaching in schools are unqualified or under-qualified”.

Besides this, the total teacher and the total school phase, as referred to by Fullan and Hargreaves (1992:1) seems to me to encompass the more recent TCPD paradigm which views teachers as both learners and teachers and promotes learner-centred professional development. Yet, the four elements to be taken into consideration in TCPD can be largely

covered by a self-directed professional development intervention within an action research paradigm. In this regard, McNiff and Whitehead (2006:8), state that

*Action research can be a powerful and liberating form of professional development enquiry because it means that practitioners themselves investigate their own practice as they find ways of living more fully in the direction of their educational values. They are not told what to do. They decide for themselves what to do, in negotiation with others.*

However, action research can also be an individual project (McNiff and Whitehead, 2006:8) or an “individual problem-solving activity” (Kember, 2000:28).

In-service education is the most used term to name the activities or programmes performed by teachers towards their upgrading. In this regard, as far as 1990 Maurice defended that ‘in-service training’ encompasses programmes for “continuing teacher education following licensure and employment” (12). Darling-Hammond and McLaglin (1995:2) state that “traditional notions of in-service training or dissemination need to be replaced by opportunities for ‘knowledge sharing’ based in real situations”. The reason for doing this, they continue, is that “teachers need opportunities to:

- share what they know
- discuss what they want to learn
- connect new concepts and strategies to their own unique contexts.

Day and Sachs (2004:8) describe how they look at in-service training maintaining that the narrow INSET model (in-service education and training) continues to be the principal means of accessing development and appears to be the most efficient and cost-effective way to reach the huge population of teachers. This is the case of TCPD provided in Mozambique and in many developing countries; INSET has been the main TCPD model adopted due, on the one hand, to financial constraints and, on the other to shortage of expertise to respond to the demands of a large number of primary school teachers. A critical analysis of INSET in developing countries, brought Christie et al. (2004) to the conclusion that in many African countries, financial constrains determine the adoption of short-term pre-service education of

teachers and INSET is used to complete education provided by teacher education colleges “rather than being a continuum. Guinea and Malawi provide examples of the use of INSET to allow untrained teachers to become qualified” (Christie et al., 2004:172).

In addition to teachers' needs mentioned before by Darling-Hammond and McLaughlin (1995), it seems to me essential that teachers become actively involved in and have ownership of their CPD. The issues related to the context of learning and the specific contexts in which teachers will use new knowledge and skills, appear to be a prerequisite to be taken into consideration in CPD.

Taking into consideration the limitation of the concept of INSET or job training, Muijs, Day, Harris and Lindsay (2004:291-92) hold that “both are more limited than CPD, as CPD can encompass a wide variety of approaches and teaching and learning styles in a variety of settings (inside or outside workplace).

According to Grootenboer (n.d.:1) CPD frequently means being involved in studies for further or advanced academic qualification, updating courses, learning-workshops, seminars, self-study on professional reading and mutual assistance. Boyle, While & Boyle (2004:46) note that “the continuous deepening of knowledge and skills is an integral part of development of any professional working in any profession”. Consequently, TCPD should therefore be of concern since facilitating learning is a changing profession” (Day, Flores & Viana, 2007:249).

The research paradigm mostly used by teachers in CPD is action research. Action researchers such as McNiff, Lomax and Whitehead (2003:49) argue that it “is a process of self-study”. Practitioners engage in action research to improve their learning about their own workplace.

In general, the literature on teacher professional development emphasises the fact that pedagogical knowledge and skills, values and personal qualities and the need to effectively carry out classroom practices must be regarded as the central aim of TCPD. For understanding CPD

*the function of CPD may be seen to be one of the three imperatives: to align teachers' practice with educational policies (see South America, Europe, Africa, Singapore and Australia as examples of this); to improve the learning outcomes of the students by improving the performance of teachers; or ... to enhance the status and profile of the teaching profession.*

(Day & Sachs, 2004:22)

With reference to the improving the achievement of learning outcomes by learners, the National Staff Development Council (2006:1) suggests that the activities included in a PD programme should embrace topics related to the subjects that teachers teach, to the strategies they use, the assessment tools and procedures used to assess learners' progress, and the knowledge and understanding about how students develop and learn. The National Staff Development Council (2006:1) further states that another characteristic to be taken into consideration in teacher professional development is that the teachers will learn through the same instructional approaches that they can use with their learners.

In the perspective of Day and Sachs (2004:3) PD for teachers should be a continuing activity in order to attain its main aim to permanently update teachers' professional actions. They then argue that TCPD embraces "all the activities in which teachers engage themselves during a career course directed at the enhancement of their work" (Day & Sachs, 2004:3). Due to the crucial role of CPD for teachers and the attention that educational sectors and the teachers themselves should give to professional development, Day and Sachs (2004:3) go on saying that "this is a deceptively simple description of a huge complex intellectual and emotional endeavour which is at the heart of raising and maintaining standards of teaching, learning and achievement in a range of schools, each of which poses its own sets of special challenges" (Day & Sachs, 2004:3). Corroborating this view, Darling-Hammond and McLaughling (1995:3) note that currently PD cannot simply be seen as an activity to support the facilitating of learning and the building of knowledge, since teachers should also be supported to reflect on their practices and how to adapt new knowledge and beliefs to the contexts in which they work.

The provision of TCPD varies from context to context and largely depends on the financial resources of a country and, in some cases, on financial resources in the provinces as a result of external funds from NGOs. These situational variations cause differences in terms of

teachers' opportunities for CPD in less funded provinces. For instance, in a country such as Mozambique, where "financial austerity and underdevelopment, competing claims for funding within education systems are inevitable" (Christie et al., 2004:170), TCPD is not effectively covered. The government faces financial constraints that make it very difficult to systematically afford TCPD programmes. Besides this the support from NGOs is extremely selective in terms of geographical context either with respect to provinces/districts or to specific schools.

Thorough evaluation is essential for TCPD programmes, but the reality in education is that very often the programmes are not systematically evaluated (Muijs et al., 2004:297). What Guskey, quoted by Muijs et al. (2004:298) suggests, is that one of the limitations of current evaluation has to do with the content of the questionnaire use

*Where some evaluation does exist, this usually takes the form of participant satisfaction questionnaires. Obviously, this allows one to gauge whether participants consider the event to have been enjoyable and successful, but it does not deal with issues such as the gain of knowledge or changes in practice that are expected from professional development, and certainly it does not evaluate whether there have been changes in student outcomes.*

### **2.3.1 Continuing Professional Development of Teacher Educators**

The need for addressing PD of teacher educators derives from their role in teacher education and TPD. In general, initial teacher education has been the starting point for primary and secondary school teachers to acquire and/or develop pedagogical knowledge and skills. At the same time, initial teacher education also appears to be the beginning of self-directed professional development. In fact, "teachers' educators spend much time involved with professional development of teachers. In pre-service teacher education they prepare student teachers for professional development by giving them tools for reflection and for continuous learning" (Smith, 2003:202).

Smith (2003:202) introduces the importance of PD of teacher educators, arguing that “teacher educators know much about professional development and how to help others to develop professionally”. The researcher continues asking a provocative question concerning PD of teacher educators: “What do we know about how teacher educators develop?” The answer to this question would appear to be crucial for understanding the tendency or the reluctance towards PD among teacher educators.

Teacher educators are co-responsible for the learning of their student teachers. Therefore they themselves have to update their content knowledge. To do so, they have to be engaged in continuous professional development. Commenting on this idea, Smith (2003:203) continues by saying that “a danger in teacher education is fossilization”. It is difficult to change well-established teacher education programmes, even though the educational field that benefits from the services is in a constant process of change. This fossilization can take place especially in autonomous teacher education institutions, where they have total responsibility for the programmes provided. In Mozambique, where teacher education is greatly centralised, resistance to change in teacher education colleges can occur as isolated cases, mainly due to weakness of the management of the education system or, yet, shortage of financial resources, learning materials and knowledge and skills.

However, in spite of the teacher educator responsibilities already mentioned, most teacher educators have not been formally prepared for the activities they are performing. Many of those who are in the profession have been teachers, and in general hold a higher education certificate. However, they do not have had any preparation for facilitating learning (Smith, 2003) or teaching in higher education institutions. Similar situations happen in Mozambique, where teacher educators for primary school teachers are people that have graduated to be a teacher in secondary education, but have never facilitated learning before, not even at the level which they were prepared for (Ministério da Educação, 2004).



## **2.4 MAIN FACTORS INFLUENCING TEACHERS' CONTINUING PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT**

The domains involving the teacher's task previously referred to require that teachers be engaged in CPD programmes since facilitating learning "is forever an unfinished profession. Thus, professional development is intrinsic to the vocation of teaching. By its very nature, teaching is never complete, never conquered, always being developed, always changing" (Grundy & Robinson, 2004:146). In line with this statement, there are crucial factors that influence TCPD such as policies, changes in curriculum, teacher education, economy, academy, innovation and technology. Consequently the field of TCPD has been a matter of permanent discussion and intervention at all levels where both learners' learning and teachers' professional learning are the central focus of the activity, namely at school, district, provincial and central level. Professional development has also been an urgent topic on the agendas of MINED and NGOs working in the educational field. As an immediate result, the majority of TCPD programmes are government- and donor-driven (Christie et al., 2004:169).

### **2.4.1 Policies Influencing Teachers' Continuing Professional Development**

Policies leading to CPD are frequently related to standards to be followed by teachers and their respective teacher assessment procedures, expansion of education and learners' academic achievement. For instance, policy driven CPD in developed countries like Australia (Grundy & Robinson, 2004) and the United States of America (Fullan, 2001) mostly aims to promote CPD, which allow teachers to bring about a set of standards established by a national board. As an example, this author writes that in the United States of America, the National Board of Professional Teaching Standards (NBPTS) describes domains for certified teachers. Those standards are also considered assessment procedures and are referred to as beliefs of values that teachers should demonstrate (NBPTS, 1993.). South Africa serves as an example of a developing country aiming at TCPD, as incorporated in *The National Policy Framework for Teacher Education and Development in South Africa*. Teachers are encouraged to perform in schools the roles for educators established in the *Norms and Standards for Educators* (Department of Education, 2006:16). In some developing countries

like Mozambique, the immediate post-independence policies on expansion of education opportunities, with emphasis on primary education, poses the need for TCPD programmes, mainly for teachers without professional education.

Rodrigues (2005:1) claims that besides pedagogy and innovation, politics is one of the origins of the debates and interventions on CPD and she goes on to say the following concerning the politics-driven professional development

*The responsibility for teacher professional development has shifted over the decades as politicians, policy makers and political activities decide on the nature and location of review and determine who should have and hold the authority to accredit and evaluate.*

In this regard Mozambique is no exception. Examples are expanded education opportunities put into practice through international policies concerning free primary education, such as Universal Primary Education (UNDP Mozambique, 2004-2011), Education for All (UNESCO, 2000), and the Millennium Development Goals (UNDP Mozambique, 2011) for primary education. On the other hand, there is the government's concern about the low academic achievement in schools, and the consequent need for improvement of pass rates and the standards attained by learners. Programmes fostered under such policies bring about the necessary shift in teacher education and TCPD. According to the Commission for Africa (2005), the success of Education for All by 2015 requires significant attention to teacher professional development. These policies change the focus on mutual assistance at school level to a cooperative approach at ZIP or Resource Centre. It is also a change from seminars and workshops to the recent emphasis on pedagogical journeys.

Rodrigues (2005:3) indicates three distinct factors that drive TCPD. She refers to the context of developed countries where provinces/districts and even schools embrace significant autonomy concerning teacher qualifications, teacher education programmes, curriculum, assessment, professional development, etc. However, in Mozambique, like in many other developing countries, with a highly centralised educational system as well as a politics-driven orientation, the distinction between politics, pedagogy and innovation is to some

extent very difficult to perceive. Pedagogy and innovation also follow a politics-driven orientation. With respect to the impact of politics, pedagogy and innovation on TCPD, a clear distinction can probably be noticed between public and private schools or institutions for teacher education.

In Mozambique the immediate post-independence politics on citizens' equality, the policies on equal access to education and the required changes in the curriculum from the colonial education to the National System of Education posed the need for urgent and rapid teacher professional development with the aim of accommodating the new national perspectives on education. From 1975 educational policies, strategies, circulars, and even policy makers' recommendations have led to different activities or TCPD programmes. In this regard, activities such as *assistência mútua* (coaching of teachers by teachers from the same school through classroom observation), studies and planning at ZIP level, ZIP re-vitalization programmes (Hoppers, 1998:233) and regional teacher resource centres (Hoppers, 1998:232). On promoting TCPD, more recently, a significant investment on the 'pedagogical journey' – a programme based on a strong focus on methodologies on facilitating learning in Grades 1 and 2 (Ministério da Educação e Cultura, 2008) is weekly running throughout the country.

In my opinion, 'pedagogical journey' seems to have two critical weaknesses. On the one hand it is the issue of "access to information" suggested by Fullan (2001:58). The majority of primary schools and ZIPs are located in rural areas with a great lack of expertise. In these contexts there are insufficient and dispersed knowledge-based and examples of good practices. On the other hand, the issue is related to the combined causes of low achievement in Grades 1 and 2 that are not understood in the same manner among teachers and other educators. While teachers refer to aspects like large classes, learning material, time, and do not feel fully committed, other educators mainly refer to teacher qualification. This different perspective on analysing learner achievement brought Hopkins et al. (1994:18) to the conclusion that "although policies set the directions and provide a framework, they do not and cannot determine outcomes".

Two reasons in particular seem to me to be related to the shortcoming of most of these initiatives. The first one has to do with the overall conceptualisation of TCPD in the global

strategy for teacher education, which perceives teachers as workers who should be developed instead of being supported in their attempts to develop themselves. Consequently the initiatives to change the scenario of deficient reading and writing skills among learners enrolled in the lowest grades of primary education are content-driven and follow a top-down orientation, in terms of objectives, content and approaches (Ministério da Educação e Cultura, 2008). Moreover, the TCPD models used have a low focus on the learning needs of the individual teacher and are fragile in the sense that they do not deliberately promote teachers' responsibility for their own CPD.

This illustrates what Day and Sachs (2004:9) state with reference to the top-down orientation on TCPD, saying that outsiders that look at classroom practice assume that teachers lack knowledge and skills. As a consequence, a set of learning units or content are planned and included in in-service training and development. Fullan (2001:15) comments on the inadequacy of a top-down orientation in the following way: "In-service education or ongoing staff development – explicitly directed at change – has failed in most cases, because it is ad hoc, without continuity and unconnected to any plan for change".

The second reason is contextual. TCPD is delivered to all teachers in the country without taking into consideration contextual aspects like teacher preparation. The majority of teachers do not have a sufficient pedagogical basis concerning facilitating learning in the lowest grades of primary education. This weakness limits the chance for teachers to attain the total of objectives that are established in such TCPD programmes.

The successive approaches that focus both on the structure and the provision of TCPD, aiming at the improvement of the teachers' pedagogical knowledge and skills, have not been a complete success since there is a weak capacity of pedagogical competency at school and ZIP level. This weakness is mainly a consequence of a lack of attention for or an insufficient preparation during initial teacher education of primary education matters (Ministério da Educação, 2004:14).

The 2004-2015 strategy for teacher education is based on studies and consultancy reports of the sectors that are concerned with teacher education and it incorporates the strategy designed for the 2002-2004 period (Ministério da Educação, 2004:3). The latter strategy is more comprehensive than the former one and it embraces initial teacher education and TCPD.

The MEC implemented an in-depth institutional reform on teacher education, attempting to enhance the level of education provided. In doing so, from 2007 onwards, all teacher education colleges only receive graduates from Grade 10 and the course for which the entry level used to be Grade 7 has stopped (Ministry of Education and Culture, 2007).

In many African countries TCPD is part of the overall structure of teacher education. However, as Christie et al. (2004:169) indicate, the policies do not clearly distinguish teacher education from TCPD. In this regard TCPD is pointed out by the MEC of Mozambique within the context of the improvement of the quality of teacher education in the *Estratégia para a Formação de Professores – 2004-2015 – Proposta de Políticas* (Teacher Education Strategy – 2004-2015 – Policies Proposal) (Ministério da Educação, 2004). In this document there is no specific topic regarding TCPD; only the *Plano de Implementação da Estratégia para a Formação de Professores – 2004-2015* (Implementation of Teacher Education Plan – 2004-2015) describes some indicators and activities to be carried out (Ministério da Educação, 2004).

Regarding the statement of Moon (2007) about unqualified or under-qualified people who are currently facilitating learning, my comment is that TCPD in developing countries should be the first priority on the education sector's agenda. The main reason for this is the weak qualification of the newly prepared teachers on top of the number of unqualified teachers already in the profession, coming from accelerated models of teacher education programmes. On defining the qualities of a professional teacher, the National Board for Professional Teaching Standards (2002.) describes a list of five core positions that the teacher should reveal, namely:

- *Teachers are committed to learners and their learning*  
The teachers significantly contribute to making knowledge accessible to all learners and to providing opportunities to acquire and/or develop competences, acting on the beliefs that all learners can learn. They care for all learners and recognise differences in learning paces. The teachers use practices informed by learning theories.
  
- *Teachers know the subjects and how to facilitate learning in those subjects*  
The teachers have significant understanding of the subjects and develop critical thinking of the students. They are aware of learners’ background, adjust their practices according to the view of the real situation of the class and assign appropriate remedial tasks.
  
- *Teachers are responsible for managing the monitoring of learners’ learning*  
Teachers adapt the learning unity sequence, repeating or improving learning tasks, without prejudice of the curriculum, in order to ensure effective assessment of class achievement.
  
- *Teachers think systematically about their practice and learn from professional experience*  
The teachers are involved in lifelong learning and critically examine what they and their learners do.
  
- *Teachers are members of learning communities*  
The teachers work with fellow teachers or with professional groups dealing with similar subjects and/or fields (adapted from National Board for Professional Teaching Standard, National Office, 2002).

Darling-Hammond (2006:20) states that “although many people believe that anyone can teach – or, at least, that knowing a subject is enough to allow one to teach it well – the evidence strongly suggest otherwise”. These factors have significant impact on TCPD since teachers have an array of roles to play as educators, as the next sub-section outlines.

## 2.5 TEACHER ROLES

For the purpose of this study the term ‘teacher’ means educator and these two terms are used interchangeably since both refer to the teaching profession. Therefore it is important to define ‘teacher’ aiming at providing consistence within the available literature. Teacher has been defined in various ways. These include “a person whose job is teaching in a school: a history/science, etc. teacher” (Wehmeier, McIntosh, Turnbull & Ashby, 2005).

The teacher is the one who teaches. In other words, from an instructional perspective, the teacher is that person who accomplishes different roles to facilitate learning. Facilitating learning is a widely used term in teachers’ effectiveness and teachers’ quality studies to describe the teachers’ pedagogic practices in the classroom. The focus here is on the procedures that the teachers select and on how they organise the facilitation of learning. As Hopkins et al. (1994:52) claim, facilitating learning is the skill that “has the most demonstrable impact” on learners’ learning. Further on Hopkins (2001:71) argues that the quality of the facilitation of the learning process is a crucial focus point to evaluate academic achievement as it reflects the teachers’ skills to promote effective learning for their learners.

Facilitating learning is a complex activity due to the number of tasks and roles of the teacher and the variety of locations where the facilitation takes place (Scheerens & Bosker, 1997:20). The National Staff Development Council (NSDC) (2006:1) advocates that to respond to this demand, teacher professional development initiatives can provide opportunities to teachers to acquire and/or develop their subject knowledge, their command of instructional methods and their understanding about learning. For the purpose of this study these assumptions give a deeper insight into the design of my research instruments as I want to obtain the teachers’ background during the baseline analysis.

Gagné (1985:2) claims that learning is “a change in human disposition or capability that persists over a period of time and is not simply ascribable to processes of growth”. The importance of learning is portrayed by Mizell (n.d.:22) when claiming that to promote learning, the main concern among teachers and education managers should change from what

teachers are able to teach to what learners should learn. This statement implies planning of the learning opportunities and aligns with Smith and Ragan (1999) who claim that learning has to be carefully planned and assessed, taking into consideration the learners' learning needs and the tasks to be realised. As William, Lee, Harrison and Black (2004:49) suggest an "increased use of formative assessment (or assessment for learning) leads to higher quality learning".

Corroborating Hopkins et al. (1994) who note that learners' learning is the most visible impact of the teacher's work, I consider that it is of importance to discuss what implications teacher roles have for learning.

Early in this section I refer to the teacher as the one who accomplishes different roles. Teacher roles can be described in different ways by learners, parents and people in the educational field and even by teachers themselves (Biddle, 1997:499). Biddle (1997:500) continues saying that "similar disparities of coverage may be detected among scholars who have addressed 'the role of the teacher'; many authors have expressed ideas about this subject, presuming agreement which is simply not true".

On reviewing recent research on teacher roles, Biddle (1997:500) distinguishes three comprehensive categories, namely roles concerned with social position, with teacher behaviours and with expectations assumed for teachers.

Role theory begins to be a topic of scientific study when scientists in the social field develop the understanding that in social life people perform roles just as actors in the theatre do. As a result of this insight, (Biddle, 1997:501) considers three different major contributions

*For Ralph Linton (an anthropologist), role theory was a means for analyzing social systems, and roles were conceived as 'the dynamic aspects' of social positions (or 'statuses') that are recognised in societies. In contrast, George Herbert Mead (a social philosopher) viewed roles as the coping strategies that individuals evolve as they interact with other persons and spoke of the need for understanding others' perspectives ('role taking') as a requisite for effective social interaction. And Jacob Moreno (a psychologist) saw roles as the habitual*



*tactics that are developed by persons within primary relationship and argued that an imitative behaviour ('role playing') was a useful strategy for learning new roles.*

From these concepts and others that are generated in recent studies – also from a different perspective – Biddle (1997:501) distinguishes three basic role concepts: *Role as a social position*, *Role as a characteristic behaviours* and *Role as expectations*. Table 2.4 summarises Biddle's (1997:502-503) approach to teacher role concepts.

<b>Basic Role Concepts</b>	<b>Nature</b>	<b>Focus</b>	<b>View/assumption about teachers/ indicators</b>
Role as a social position	Occupational roles	Structural characteristics of the teacher's identity	Teachers are members of recognised positions Composition of the teacher population Function accomplished by teachers Development of identity for teachers Status of teaching profession Condition for entry in the profession
Role as characteristic behaviours	Behavioural roles	Teacher behaviours in the work context	Teachers' behaviour in the classroom or school Teachers' behaviour in the social and political arena Teachers' contribution to the tasks of education Joys and difficulties faced by teachers
Role as expectations	Affective roles	Expectations held for teachers	Teachers' expectations Education managers' expectations Society's expectations Teachers' beliefs, preferences, attitude, values and tasks

Table 2.4: Role concepts (adapted from Biddle, 1997:502)

The above mentioned role concepts are viewed in an independent way. In this respect, Biddle (1997:502) admits that none of these three concepts for teacher role has precedence over or preclude the others, but each “represents a facet of the complexities that embed the teacher, and each is capable of generating information for educators, scholars, and others concerned with education”.

Biddle's discussion is not concerned with teacher roles. Rather his discussion focuses on the role concepts and how to sort out the different teachers' roles that have been discussed by other authors.

According to Du Toit (2007:1) the *Norms and Standards for Educators* indicates that there are seven roles for all educators to be put into practice in a comprehensive manner, i.e., all the roles are equally important. This South African education policy document describes seven educator roles. Here the interpretation is that educators encompass teachers and those who have the responsibility of facilitating learning such as teacher and adult educators. The *Norms and Standards for Educators* describes the *roles*, their associated set of *applied competences* (norms) and *qualifications* (standards) for the development of educators. It also establishes key strategic objectives for the development of learning programmes, qualification and standards for educators. Accordingly the roles to be performed are listed and detailed in Table 2.5. I also describe another set of roles (Table 2.6) which teachers should play while offering learning opportunities.

<b>Role</b>	<b>Indicators to be demonstrated</b>
<b>Learning mediator</b>	Learning mediation according to learners' needs including special education needs Construction of appropriate learning environments Effective communication showing recognition of and respect for the differences of others Sound knowledge of subject content and various principles, strategies and resources appropriate for a specific context
<b>Interpreter and designer of learning programmes and material</b>	Understanding and interpretation of learning programmes Originality on design of learning tasks Identification of the requirements for a specific context of learning and select and prepare suitable text and visual resources for learning Effective selection, sequencing and pace of the learning to the differing needs of the subject/learning area and learner
<b>Leader, administrator and manager</b>	Appropriate decisions to the level Manage learning in the classroom Efficient accomplishment of classroom administrative duties Participation in school decision making structures
<b>Scholar, researcher and lifelong learner</b>	Effective diagnosis of problems affecting learning Achievement of ongoing personal, academic, occupational and professional growth through pursuing reflective study and research

Role	Indicators to be demonstrated
<b>Community, citizenship and pastoral role</b>	<p>in her/his learning area, in broader professional and educational matters, and in other related fields</p> <p>Promotion of a critical, committed and ethical attitude towards developing a sense of respect and responsibility towards others, one that upholds the constitution, and promotes democratic values and practices in schools and society</p> <p>Ability to develop a supportive and empowering environment for the learner and respond to the educational and other needs of learners and fellow educators</p> <p>Supportive relationship with parents and other key persons and organisation based on a critical understanding of community, cultural and environmental development issues</p>
<b>Assessor</b>	<p>Understanding of assessment of learners' learning as an essential feature of the facilitating of learning</p> <p>Understanding of the purposes, methods and effects of assessment; ability to provide helpful feedback to learners</p> <p>Effective design and management of both formative and summative assessment in a way that is appropriate to the level and purpose of the learning and meeting the requirements of accrediting bodies</p> <p>Detailed records and diagnostics of assessment</p> <p>Understanding of the correct interpretation and use of assessment results as a way to feed the improvement of learning programmes</p> <p>Assessment of individual learners, showing that their learning has been achieved</p> <p>Analysis of individual learners, showing that their learning has been achieved</p>
<b>Learning area/subject/discipline/phase specialist</b>	<p>Having a thorough base of knowledge, skills, values, principles, methods, and procedures that are relevant to the discipline, subject, learning area, phase of study or professional or occupational practice</p> <p>Knowledge and – where appropriate, research and management – about different approaches to facilitating learning, and how these approaches may be used in ways that are appropriate to the learners and the context</p> <p>Understanding of the knowledge appropriate to the specialism</p>

Table 2.5: Teacher roles and specific indicators to be demonstrated

The roles for educators described in the *Norms and Standards for Educators* merge levels of both competences and qualifications in the sense that they indicate what an educator should know and be able to do. Although the roles include a significant part of the educator roles, with respect to Mozambican context, I add two roles concerning the inherent follow-up that the teaching profession involves. The additional roles are indicated in Table 2.5.

<b>Role</b>	<b>Indicators to be demonstrated</b>
<b>Learning promoter</b>	Construction of permanent motivation environment Sound communication showing friendship Supportive dialogue on learners achievement
<b>Attendance monitor</b>	Monitoring of learners' presence in class showing specific follow-up of potential drop-out learners Monitoring of learners' presence in class showing sensitiveness on gender issues

Table 2.6: Additional teacher roles

In analysing the role concepts and the roles for educators, I think that both are of value to be taken into consideration in the teaching profession, since it is important to ensure that the different dimensions of the profession have been considered. Therefore, I agree with Biddle's view in the sense that the role concepts approach is the starting point for a description of what the teacher's role will be. In other words, role concepts are concerned with the nature of the roles, whereas the roles for educators specify the substance of each one of the roles. Moreover, I think that, apart from professional characteristics, what are the most visible roles (*teachers' behaviour in the work context*), are the three concepts encompass the affective dimension of the teaching profession.

Around the Mozambican primary schools, there are a significant number of teachers who have often been appointed to facilitate learning in Grades 1 and 2 for many years. Such group of teachers could be prepared to build a body of phase or grade specialists at school level due to their experience.

## 2.6 CHANGE NEEDED IN PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT

According to Fullan and Hargreaves (1992), the focus on the relationship between teacher professional development and educational change begins to be a matter of discussion in the late 1970s. In Mozambique teacher professional development has also been related to educational change. This change mainly refers to curriculum change, new teacher education

models, mainstream of inclusive education and gender perspectives in education. The shortcoming of those changes is that the teachers do not have time to share their knowledge, nor to reflect on the ways to implement the new knowledge and skills at classroom level. Darling-Hammond and McLaughlin (1995:2) support this statement in that “teachers need opportunities to ... connect new concepts and strategies to their own unique context”

Educational changes to be implemented at classroom level have often been introduced via CPD, involving teachers, school principals, head teachers and pedagogical technicians at district level up to central level. As Fullan (2001:38) notes, “educational change involves ‘change in practice’ and leads to innovation”. Fullan (2001:39) goes on to discuss the dimension of change and its simultaneous aspects

*Innovation is multidimensional. There are three at least three components or dimensions at stake in implementing any new program or policy: (1) the possible use of new revised materials, (instructional resources such as curriculum materials or technologies), (2) the possible use of new teaching approaches (i.e., new teaching strategies or activities), and (3) the possible alternation of beliefs (e.g., pedagogical assumptions and theories underlying particular new policies or programs).*

Fullan (2001) uses educational change or innovation in education with a similar meaning. Throughout my study I pay attention to innovation and to the assumption of doing things different and better. I attempt to place the teachers and their classroom practice at the centre of professional development activities.

There is a need for innovative TCPD models. However, it is essential that the process leading to implementation – what Fullan (2001:53) defines as “initiation” – takes into consideration a set of factors affecting that initiation:

- Existence and quality of innovations
- Access to innovation
- Advocacy from central administration
- Teacher advocacy

- External Change Agents
- Community pressure/Support/Apathy
- New policy-funds (federal/state/local)
- Problem-solving and bureaucracy orientations.

(Fullan, 2001:53-65)

McLaughlin (1990:13) supports this stance in that there are key factors to be taken into consideration at a policy and at a practice level. This researcher summarises the factors that he names “interpretations”, in the following way:

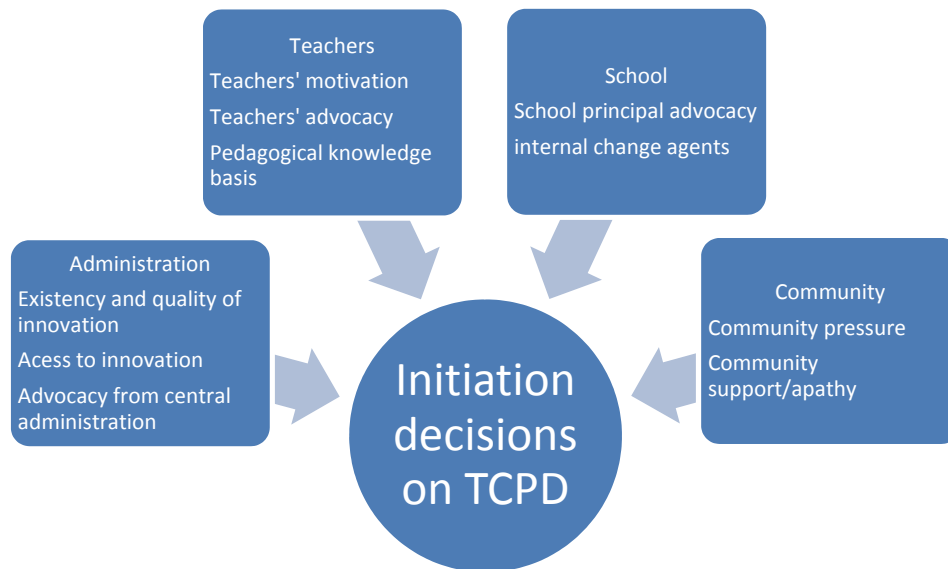
- The significance of teachers’ initial motivation to participate in a PD project
- The role of external consultants
- The structures available to provide resources and support for teachers’ professional growth.

In the context of developing countries like Mozambique, due to the shortage of qualified teachers at school level, it is possible to identify the following factors as identified by Fullan (2001):

- teacher motivation
- internal change agents at school or ZIP level
- school principal advocacy.

In this sense the factor associated with the initiation of TCPD should be categorised into four categories, namely administration, teachers, school and community. Figure 2.3 shows a visual representation of the factors.

Figure 2.3: Factors associated with initiation of continuing professional development (adapted from Fullan, 2001:54)



## 2.7 MODELS OF TEACHER CONTINUING PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT

For the past twenty years, the literature on professional development for teachers all over the world has described a vast range of models and approaches to TCPD. This is due to

*a shift in the rhetoric of teacher training and development from one in which individual teachers have been able to choose at will from 'smorgasbord' of (mainly) short one-shot workshops and lectures, to one in which lifelong learning is regarded as essential mandatory part of teacher's needs .*

(Day & Sachs, 2004:8)

The approaches to CPD vary as the PD itself does, since “various writers offer typologies of CPD, but each starts from its own assumption and adopts its own focus” (Bolam & McMahon, 2004:52). For instance, some show a preference for the underpinning “conceptions of knowledge associated with teachers’ learning and development” and come to describe a set of models (Day & Sachs, adapted from Cochrane-Smith & Lytle, 1999); others

put the focus on the purpose of the model, regarding the process leading to teachers' professional learning (Kennedy, 2005); other researchers describe typologies of CPD, stressing the teachers' roles and responsibility (Christie et al., 2004:171). On his turn, Thiessen (1992:85-86) refers to orientations and conditions to classroom-based teacher development. Other authors instead elaborate on a model for a specific syllabus or subject (Jamissen & Phelps, 2006; Boud & McDonald cited by Zuber-Skerritt, 1992:164) differentiate between models taking into consideration the type of work undertaken by the unit staff. Hargreaves (1994) indicates a model in which the emphasis is on a "symbolic relationship" between individual teachers and the education needs. Cunningham cited by Mushayikwa and Lubben (2009:377) argues that this variety of argumentations is an indication that professional development is a complex practice and cannot easily and linearly be explained as a cause and effect process.

Summing up the above assumptions of CPD, I agree with Christie et al. (2004) who approach CPD taking into consideration the teachers' roles and responsibility and Day and Sachs (2004) who emphasise the knowledge-in-practice generated by teachers at classroom level. My option is based on the intention to answer the research questions of this study.

## 2.8 TYPOLOGIES OF CPD

In consideration of the teachers' role in the process of activities aiming at CPD, Christie et al. (2004:173) discuss two typologies of CPD, namely the teacher as technician and the teacher as reflective practitioner. Here they move from top-down initiatives for TCPD, where teachers are simply viewed as "work-force" to accomplish the institutional needs to an innovative approach of learner-centred orientation.

Teacher role	CPD responsibility	CPD basis	CPD Approach	CPD outcomes
Technician	Institutions and systems	Teacher 'defect'	Reductive	Professional requirements
Reflective practitioner	The personal domain	Teacher 'growth'	Holistic	Lifelong learning

Table 2.7: Typologies of continuing professional development (adapted from Christie et al., 2004:171)



In reference to the teacher’s roles in CPD programmes Fullan (2001:255) sustains the argument that a significant number of professional development courses or even programmes have little or no impact since the topics as well as the content have been selected by people other than the teachers. This is the case where professional development courses are totally designed by education sectors at district, province, and central level and even by NGOs. The main concern here is a global topic or methodology related to a specific subject and there is no consideration how the individual teacher has been experiencing the process of facilitating learning.

In discussing CPD, Kennedy (2005) describes the characteristics of nine models of TCPD and asserts that “it is not suggested that the models will or should stand alone”. The models are organised into three categories, according to the purpose of the model, whether its basic function is to prepare teachers for the implementation of educational changes, or to involve the teachers in a “liberating form of professional enquiry” (McNiff & Whitehead, 2006:8). Kennedy (2005:248) identifies a transitional model, as shown in Table 2.7

Model of Continuing Professional Development	Purpose of the Model
The training model	Transmission
The award-bearing model	
The deficit model	
The cascade model	Transitional
The standard-based model	
The coaching/mentoring model	
The community of practice model	
The action research model	Transformative
The transformative model	

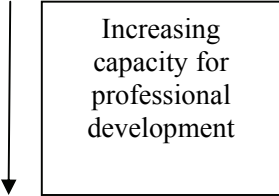


Table 2.8: Spectrum of continuing professional development models (Kennedy, 2005:248)

It seems to me that the models discussed by Kennedy (2005) clearly stress two positions or assumptions by claiming both the underpinning knowledge acquired and/or developed by teachers and the extent to which teachers take responsibility for their own CPD. In addition, the knowledge acquired via transmission reflects (mainly from a deficit model) a traditional view on the learning process, in which the teacher/expert is the one who knows everything and the learner just has to listen. The limitation of this model is outlined by Day and Sachs

(2004:9), arguing that at the outset of this model is the assumption that “teachers needed to be provided with something (knowledge, skills) which they did not already have”. The above mentioned two positions appear to be a claim for the need to change from a traditional view on PD and teaching to a more participative and innovative one.

Zuber-Skerritt (1992:219) consistently refers to the inadequacy of traditional methods founded on the transmission of knowledge and skills, arguing that “Traditional methods of manager and academic staff training, based on transmitting knowledge and skills from expert to novice, using the most effective presentation techniques, have been shown to be unsatisfactory in recent times.”

Besides the identification and comparison of CPD models, Kennedy (2005:247) proposes a framework for the analysis of CPD models in general, consisting of five questions:

- What types of knowledge acquisition does the CPD support?
- Is the principal focus on individual or on collective development?
- To what extent is the CPD used as a form of accountability?
- What capacity does the CPD allow for supporting professional autonomy?
- Is the fundamental purpose of the CPD to provide a means of transmission or to facilitate a transformative practice?

In the table below CPD models adapted from Kennedy (2005:248) are outlined.

<b>Models</b>	<b>Responsibility</b>	<b>Characteristics</b>	<b>Aims</b>
Training model	Experts Institutions	Skills-based Technocratic view of teaching	Acquiring competences
Award-bearing model	Institutions	Academic view of CPD Completion of programmes or studies	Mark of quality assurance
Deficit model	Institutions	Remediation	Eliminating deficit Improvement of performance Competent performance
Cascade model	Institutions	Skills-based Knowledge-focused Technician's view of teaching	Acquiring knowledge Acquiring skills
Standards-based model	Institutions	Evidence-based	Professional actions
Coaching/Mentoring model	Mentor Mentor/Mentee	One-to-one relationship Skills-based Counselling and professional friendship Clinical supervision	Professional development Professional learning
Community of practice model Action research model	Mutual engagement of a group Practitioners	Mutual accountability Action-based research Participation Collaboration Practice	Professional knowledge Practitioner development Transformation
Transformative model	Teachers	Integration of the other models Combination of processes and conditions	Transformation
Self-directed model	Teachers	Teacher initiative Clinical supervision Practice	Professional development Professional knowledge

Table 2.9: Models of continuing professional development

From the responsibilities and characteristics of the models indicated, it can be noticed that skills- and knowledge-based models are typical of top-down approaches, having a low teacher's involvement. The perception of the inadequacy of the institution-driven model with its focus on collective development is shared by Clark (1992:77) who says that it is necessary to consider the individual teacher "because each teacher is unique in important ways, it is impossible to create a single, centrally administrated and planned programme of professional development that will meet everyone's needs and desires". Accordingly, the changes or

innovations to be introduced have to take into consideration the individual teacher in order to promote participation and increase teacher advocacy.

However, the cascade model, in which a group of teachers are prepared to prepare others, apart from encompassing significant institutional responsibility, can, according to Hargreaves and Fullan (1992:3), “mitigate or even override many of these effects of top-down, ‘outside-in’ reform” but even in these circumstances the teachers have to deal with compulsory TCPD programmes and topics, which in general do not solve concrete pedagogical difficulties they face at classroom level when facilitating learning. In general, as the Mozambican education experience shows, the cascade starts at the Ministry of Education: a pedagogical team designs the programme, and organises provincial or regional sessions to prepare provincial pedagogical technicians who, in turn, will prepare district pedagogical technicians and the coordinators of Zones of Pedagogical Influence (ZIP). Following these three steps, the teachers are engaged in the TCPD programmes designed at Ministry of Education level. Usually these programmes follow a calendar also designed at central level. The cascade model has been the option in developing countries. Developing countries have in common low socio-economic and technical capacity. Therefore, the provision of TCPD to all teachers in a both professional and geographic diverse situation is still a great challenge to deal with.

Christie et al. (2004) argue that TCPD models and the expectations about it in Sub-Saharan African countries need to be understood differently than in the Western and Northern context. They go on to suggest that TCPD “needs to be understood in relation to broader issues of education, the state and development” (Christie et al., 2004:167). Corroborating this claim, it seems to me that teacher education institutions have to provide substantial qualifications to student-teachers so as to be effective learning facilitators. Then TCPD will serve to deepen the knowledge and skills previously acquired throughout initial teacher education. This perspective will be replacing the nature of current teacher education models that do not ensure basic knowledge and skills to facilitate learning in primary education.

From the perspective of the previous discussion, it appears to be of value to pay more attention to initial teacher education, which promotes self-directed professional development

in all contexts, in general, and particularly in developing countries due to the costs that TCPD require and the large number of teachers and the great shortage of human material and financial resources. Then self-directed professional development seems to be the model which takes into consideration adult learning and individual teacher's needs.

In attempting to demarcate concepts and explanations about TCPD, I present descriptions of self-directed professional development in the next sections of this study.

## **2.9 SELF-DIRECTED PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT**

Self-directed professional development does not mean that teachers are left alone in their individual professional learning. On the contrary, teachers should be supported through an effective learning facilitation process. Brookfield (1986:48) supports this statement by saying that no learning activity is completely self-directed or without external support or stimuli. Nevertheless, it is at the same time necessary to keep in mind that the teachers are not on the same level in terms of knowledge and skills, as they are "more diverse and unique than they are homogeneous" (Clark, 1992:77) even if they are coming from a similar academic and pedagogic background.

Van Eekelen, Vermunt & Boshuizen (2006) define self-directed professional development (SDPD) as the professional development that is led and performed by teachers' initiative. Self-directed professional development can also be understood as Self-directed Learning (SDL) performed by teachers towards their PD.

In this study, SDL is discussed in the context of adult education. Taking into account that teachers are adult people, one of the main aims in TCPD programmes should be to support teachers in developing self-directed learning skills (Brookfield, 1986:40). Thus the focus here is the process which allows adult learners to take control of what and how they are learning, with the emphasis on how they establish their learning goals, find the resources

adequate to their learning needs, take decisions concerning appropriate learning methods and have awareness of their progress (Brookfield, 1995).

According to Beitler (2005), the literature about the theory, practice and potential of SDL has been growing over the past thirty years. Throughout this period up till now researchers and writers have been defining SDL in different ways. However, what is common in such definitions is the focus on individual initiative and responsibility. Self-directed learning as Knowles, quoted by Brookfield (1986:40), argues is “a process in which individuals take the initiative in designing learning experiences, diagnosing needs, locating resources, and evaluating learning”. Accordingly, in this PAR I encouraged the PRs on analysing their classroom practices in order to identify new learning experiences, produce the appropriate learning tasks and material and identify the impact of those experiences on their CPD and learners’ learning.

### **2.9.1 Transformative Learning Theory**

The transformative learning theory is the theoretical base that is selected for this study. This theory is used as a learning paradigm and also as an aim to be achieved by the teachers involved in this PAR study. Transformative learning refers to learning that involves revision of significant aspects of our world view of ourselves or our way of “being in the world”.

According to Guba and Lincoln (2005:183), a paradigm consists of the way in which an individual person interprets reality, that is, the essential “set of beliefs that guide action”. In other words, a learning paradigm is the individual person’s interpretation of learning.

Dirkx (n.d.) argues that “transformative learning has emerged within the field of adult education as a powerful concept of understanding how adults learn”. This author goes on to state that the meaning and the way in which transformative learning (TL) is used in promoting learning vary according to one’s perspective. In defining transformative learning, Mezirow, quoted by Cranton (1992:17), bases his understanding on the idea of reformulation.

He suggests that the reformulation of an individual's "perspective of meaning" is guided by the process of critical self-reflection. Here Mezirow sees critical self-reflection as one's assessment of her/his assumptions. This author continues by saying that "this reformulation, along with acting on the reformulation, is called transformative learning. The effort to facilitate transformative learning is called emancipatory education". Emancipator educators use appropriate strategies of facilitating learning towards their learners' personal emancipation and involve learners in activities which challenge their views, promote critical thinking and compare their own views with different worldviews. Concerning emancipatory education referred to by Mezirow, the PRs and I have been involved in planning of learning material that included learning tasks to deal with low achieving learners. This strategy significantly changed our view in relation to learners' achievement and created the ability to formulating questions with reference to learners' learning and designing remedial tasks.

Mezirow (2003) introduces the idea of understanding TL in an epistemological perspective. He refers to TL "as the epistemology of how adults learn to think for themselves rather than acting upon the assimilated beliefs, values, feelings and judgement of others". Therefore, in using TL with adult learners, it is supposed that the educator provides sufficient opportunities to learners to critically think and reflect on their personal experiences, to critically assess and confirm their own beliefs, values and feelings. From this practical experience, the learners will have their own standards to assess others beliefs, values and feelings. In this respect, when promoting CPD and basic research skills, they critically reflected on their classroom practice. The reflection stage allowed me and the PRs to look critically at the new knowledge, practice and experience and to be influenced and influence one another. The PRs changed the way in which they understood the different learning pace in the class. Such understanding guided them in providing remedial tasks for low achieving learners. To me the reflection provided new strategies in dealing with TCPD and researching classroom practices. Instead of indicating what is wrong and unproductive, I opted for more participative solutions concerning what to improve or do better.

According to Mezirow (1997:5)

*transformative learning is the process of effecting change in a frame of reference. Adults have acquired a coherent body of experiences – associations, concepts, values, feelings, conditioned responses – frames of reference that define their life world. Frames of reference are the structures of assumptions through which we understand our experiences.*

To substantiate the previous quotation, in this PAR the starting point towards our CPD was what we knew, did and thought regarding pedagogical practice in order to visualise what good practice should look like. Grabove (1997:89) refers to Mezirow who is also of the opinion that the ultimate goal of adults being involved in education “is reflective and transformative learning. However not all change are transformative and not all critical reflection leads to transformative learning”. Change can be attained by plain learning or assimilation of knowledge without change in the way the individual views the world and her-/himself, whereas transformation means to be aware of either own assumptions or other assumptions.

He goes on to say that transformative learning is a rational, analytical, and cognitive process and that “the concept of transformative learning is an intuitive, creative, emotional process” (Grabove, 1997:90). Grabove (1997:90) reminds us of the challenges transformative learning holds for everyone involved

*Transformative learning cannot be taught; it is the learner who experiences transformative learning. Most important, facilitating and engaging in the process of transformative learning require a great deal of effort, courage, and faithfulness on the part of both the educator and the learner, because there is considerable risk and the effort may or may not result in a reward.*

Although transformative learning cannot be taught, transformative educators differ from other educators since they explicitly facilitate learning for transformation purposes. They work to encourage a kind of learning that can transform an individual’s beliefs, attitudes or perception. In this process the learners also have to responsibility for the results attained, as



they should honestly explain their thinking and reasoning in order to identify their assumptions (McGonigal, 2005).

Linked to Grabove's view, Mezirow (1997:10) refers to the following

*To facilitate transformative learning, educators must help learners to become aware and critical of their own and others' assumptions. Learners need to practice recognizing frames of reference and using their imagination to redefine problems from a different perspective.*

This statement corroborates Grabove's stance with respect to the importance of the opportunities given to the learners to critically look at both their and others assumptions. Cranton (2002:66) identifies seven features from the steps leading to transformation in the following way:

- *An activating event* that typically exposes a discrepancy between what a person has always assumed to be true and what has just been experienced, heard, or read.
- *Articulating assumptions*, that is, recognising underlying assumptions that have been uncritically assimilated and are largely unconscious.
- *Critical self-reflection includes* questioning and examining assumptions – where they came from, the consequences of holding them, and why they are important.
- *Being open* to alternative points of view.
- *Engaging in discourse*, where evidence is weighed, arguments assessed, alternative perspectives explored, and knowledge constructed by consensus.
- *Revising assumptions and perspectives* to make them open and better justified.
- *Acting on revisions, behaving, talking, and thinking* in a way that is congruent with transformed assumptions or perspectives.

This study pays attention to the features leading to transformation, particularly to those related to an *activating event*, *critical self-reflection*, *acting on revisions*, *behaving*, *talking* and *thinking*. Throughout the PAR study the teachers are involved in discussions about their

experiences and their practice and they are encouraged to try out new alternatives in order to improve their actions.

As far as Fisher-Yoshida, Geller and Wasserman (n.d.:2) are concerned, transformative learning is driven by six dynamic issues for human resource development practitioners, namely:

- Identifying and reflecting on the key influences on one’s frame of reference or worldview
- Critical reflection
- Praxis, reflection on action
- Dialogue
- Empathy
- Intercultural appreciation.

According to Cranton (2002) there are no specific methods of facilitating learning that ensure transformative learning and she adds that critical reflection can be promoted by a provocative statement in a lecture, a story told by a fellow student, or an argument set out in an article, just as the most carefully crafted exercise would do. In the next table facets of transformative learning is detailed.

<b>Facets of Transformative Learning</b>		
<b>Facets</b>	<b>Facilitator Activities</b>	<b>Learner Activities</b>
<b>An activating event</b>	Exposing learners to events that typically show the discrepancy between what a person has always assumed to be true and what has just been experienced, heard, or read	Seeking out controversial or unusual ways of understanding
<b>Articulating assumptions</b>	Encouraging learners in describing what they believe and how they come to believe it	Articulating assumptions, that is, recognising underlying assumptions that have been uncritically assimilated and are largely unconscious
<b>Critical self-reflection</b>	Questioning her/his perspective and supporting learners’ effort to do the same  Encouraging critical self-reflection, by	Questioning and examining assumptions in terms of where they came from, the consequences of holding them,

	providing opportunity for learners to question their assumptions	and why they are important
	Modelling critical self-reflection	Describing critical incidents or experiences
<b>Being open to alternative viewpoints</b>	Setting up an environment in which critical self-reflection is a group norm Creating safe and enjoyable ways for learners to try out different points of view – ways of acting out or talking about alternatives	Being open to alternative view-points
<b>Engaging in discourse</b>	Encouraging writing	Participating in role playing, debates Engaging in discourse, where evidence is weighed, arguments assessed, alternative perspectives explored, and knowledge constructed by consensus
<b>Revising assumptions and perspectives</b>	Supporting learners on their assumption revision Interacting with each learner who is changed	Writing letters or memos from a different perspective Revising assumptions and perspectives to make them more open and better justified
<b>Acting on revisions, behaving, talking, and thinking</b>	Helping learners to do their action plans or writing down what they will do Talking with learners about what they will do after having new experiences	Acting on revisions, behaving, talking, and thinking in a way that is congruent with transformed assumptions or perspectives
	Running a follow-up meeting for learners to discuss how they have acted on their transformation	

Table 2.10: Facets of transformative learning

## 2.9.2 Transformative Learning and Self-directed Professional Development

According to Beitler (2005) the literature about the theory, practice and potential of SDL has been growing over the past thirty years. Throughout this period up till now, researchers and writers have been defining SDL in different ways. However, what is common in such definitions is the focus on individual initiative and responsibility. Self-directed learning as Zimmerman (1990) argues is a set of activities and processes that an individual carry out

towards the acquisition of information or skills that involve personal initiative, purpose and awareness of the relationship between the process and the learning outcomes. In turn, Carver and Scheier (1981) consider that SDL is a cyclical process in which an individual is responsible for monitoring her/his learning and take further initiative in changing or not the way of learning adopted. In this sense of the previous assumptions, the activities carried out with the PRs aimed at improving their responsibility for innovative classroom practice and assessing what they learned.

Self-directed learning is applicable to the process of teacher continuing professional development (TCPD) and to the understanding of transformative learning (Mezirow, 1997) discussed in the previous section. For instances, when the learning facilitators are engaged in CPD, they use the experience already acquired to assess their own and other assumptions in order to assimilate the new experience. In the sense of the previous assumptions, the activities carried out with the PRs aimed at improving their responsibility for innovative classroom practice and assessing what they learned. In addition, having in mind that the learning facilitators are adults, I took into consideration that transformative learning is the central issue in adult education.

### **2.9.3 Self-regulated Learning and Self-directed Professional Development**

Self-directed professional development is sustained by the understanding of self-regulated learning. The specialised literature about individually directed learning uses a variety of terms to define the process of individual learning. For instance, terms such as self-directed, self-regulated and meta-learning are used.

Self-regulated learning theory and research on self-regulated academic learning emerged in the mid-1980s with the intention to address the question how students become masters of their own learning processes. “Self-regulated learning is neither a mental ability nor an academic performance skill, but instead it refers to the self-directed process through which learners transform their mental abilities into task-related academic skills” (Zimmerman, 1986:5). This assumption is consistent with Brockett and Hiemstra (1991), who state that

SDL is a process in which an individual learner take ownership of her/his learning through a personal initiative on planning, putting into practice and evaluating the experience. In this study, the ownership of the PRs' classroom practice was the essence of the activities performed. The PRs were gradually participating in the identification of issues to be improved and potential areas for innovative practice.

“Students are self-regulated to the degree that they are metacognitively, motivationally, and behaviourally active participants in their own learning process” (Zimmerman, 1986:5). These students self-generate thoughts, feelings, and actions to attain their learning goals. More precise definitions than these, however, tend to vary according to the researcher's theoretical perspective.

The above mentioned principles of effective practice are important for my study, specifically for me as a facilitator of adult learning and a research-mentor. Accordingly, voluntary, self-esteem and self-directed learning from the side of the individual teacher are always taken into consideration.

Rodrigues (2005:128) points out that assumptions regarding teacher professional development are of intrinsic value for individual teachers. They enhance the teachers' perspectives and their feeling of ownership.

Lonsade cited by (Zuber-Skerritt, 1992:162) states that the will to change, to do things differently and better, and to do new things, comes from the individual. Taking into consideration the individual teacher's willingness, what Hargreaves (1994) names “enthusiasm”, he emphasises that it is also worthwhile to take into account the educational needs. Hence Hargreaves (1994) proposes a ‘post-technocratic’ model of PD. In this model there is a specific focus on lifelong professional learning needs, continuity and progress and reconciliation of individual teachers' learning needs with the school education and/or school needs. Still, taking into consideration this view of PD, Lonsade holds that “Management processes that build on the strengths, interests and motivation of individuals and that

recognise their professionalism, are more likely to be effective” (Lonsade cited by Zuber-Skerritt, 1992:162).

I am of the opinion that a comprehensive system of teacher support can allow to deliver qualified teachers that are taking responsibility for their own CPD.

In attempting to find a way for a participative and responsive CPD, a provocative question appears to be the point of departure: “What can we do to make professional development programmes work for professional teachers?” (Clark, 1992:77). Then he continues by answering that “we must give the responsibility for professional development to teachers themselves. This is what I mean by ‘Self-directed professional development’” (Clark, 1992:77).

Still taking into consideration the aspect of individuality, being an important feature of SDPD, Clark (1992:77) goes on to propose the “timeless” questions like: Who am I? What do I need? How can I get help?

Teachers are adult individuals and they can decide by themselves to be or not be engaged in professional learning, either in professional development programmes or in academic courses; “certainly some self-directed learners know in advance precisely what they want to achieve and how they will evaluate their attainment” (Candy, 1991:280). Therefore, in order to sustain and support such adult clarity in terms of what and how to learn and the degree of what has been learnt, TCPD should follow six principles of effective practice:

- Participation in learning is voluntary; adults engage in learning as a result of their own will.
- Effective practice is characterised by respect among participants for each other’s self-esteem. This does not mean that criticism should be absent in educational encounters.
- Facilitation is collaborative. Facilitators and learners are engaged in a cooperative enterprise.

- Praxis is at the heart of effective facilitation of learning – all are involved in a continuous process of activity, reflection upon activity, collaborative analysis of activity, new activity, further reflection and collaborative analysis, and so on.
- Facilitation aims to foster in adults a spirit of critical reflection.
- The aim of facilitation is the nurturing of self-directed, empowered adults.

(Brookfield, 1986:9-11)

Looking at the first principle, what emerges is that in working with adults, it is essential to be aware of the comment of Clark (1992:77)

*no one can force a person to learn, change or grow. When adults feel that they are in control of a process of change that they have voluntarily chosen, they are much more likely to take full benefit from it than when they are coerced into a training situation in which they have little to say about the timing, the process or the goals.*

In many developing countries, in-service education and training (INSET) has been the main TCPD model adopted due, on the one hand, to financial constraints and, on the other hand to a shortage of expertise to respond to the primary school teacher demand.

Although the literature on TCPD includes a variety of models of TCPD, it is mainly based on a didactic approach. In this study I follow the principles of SDPD to improve teachers' responsibility for their own PD. My option derives from the assumption that in Mozambique there is a big diversity of teachers' conditions and needs, in addition to the limitation of human and financial resources.

### **2.9.3.1 Principles of self-directed professional development**

In the design of a SDPD model the following set of principles, which can be described as follows, should be taken into consideration:

- Write your own credo of teaching
- Start with your strengths
- Identify your learning needs
- Make your plan
- Look into your own backyard
- Ask for support
- Go first class
- Blow your own trumpet

(adapted from Clark, 1992:83)

*Write your own credo of teaching*

According to Clark (1992:78), the teacher's knowledge and beliefs about facilitating of the learning process, about learning, about curriculum, and about her-/himself and his/her learners have an influence on professional development. He continues and states that "our beliefs and theories define what is foreground and what is background; what to attend to and what to ignore" (Clark, 1992:78).

*Start with your strengths*

Clark (1992:83) argues that traditional models of PD have been negatively perceived as a result of its "focus on and compound weakness. It is grounded in a disease mode", what Kennedy (2005) called a deficit model. This stance shows that from a TCPD perspective teachers should engage in CPD starting from their existing knowledge and skills. With reference to the bigger effectiveness of starting from strengths, Wennergren and Rönnerman (2006:553) comment

*In Vygotsky's view, people are continually undergoing development and change. In every situation it is possible to acquire knowledge and skills from other people in different teamwork situations. Vygotsky sees people as continuously en route to appropriating new types of learning tools, based on what they already know.*



### *Identify your learning needs*

Here, the learning needs are included in a teacher's overall professional learning process. The learning process in a SDPD perspective encompasses similar characteristics as AR does. Action research as a learning process is explained by Winter (1996:14)

*[Action research] is about the nature of the learning process, about the link between practice and reflection, about the process of attempting to have new thoughts about familiar experiences, and about the relationship between particular experiences and general ideas.*

### *Make your plan*

In order to contribute to the improvement of their learning, in a certain time frame, teachers have to make a plan, since “meaning and a sense of direction and progress don't come automatically from an activity, even when it is apparently a competent activity” (Clark, 1992:80). He illustrates this requisite by using an Arabic expression “To the traveller with no destination, one road is as good as another”.

Clark (1992:80) continues and observes that teachers should “outline the ways in which they hope to become different ... and some of the possible means to those changes”. Systematic planning in a context of systematic enquiry is one of the major characteristics of action research (Kember, 2000:24) being the research paradigm in this study.

### *Look into your own backyard*

Teachers should view the classroom context as the most privileged space for their professional development; in that way of thinking teachers learn from their learners, the subject matter, and the classroom organisation (Clark, 1992:81). Learning from one's context is one of the advantages of action research, since the practitioner investigates her/his own practice in the context where such practice is developed.

### *Ask for support*

Clark (1992:81-82) discusses the paradox of teacher professional development: teacher development is led by an intrinsic and individual responsibility; however, individual teachers cannot develop “entirely by themselves”. They also learn a great deal from contact with many other people who are knowledgeable about and have experience (Hargreaves, 1992:216) in learning and in facilitating learning. The need for support – when carrying out professional development – was found by Kember (2000:148), when he worked with teachers involved in action research projects. He continues describing the needed support that is given by facilitators, fellow teachers, the school structure and even by the learners from the teacher’s class (Kember, 2000:172). Support from fellow and/or experienced teachers, as critical friends, can be in terms of ideas, material, critiques or appreciation of self-produced learning materials or planning. Using critical friends can provide valuable feedback. In this view critical friends are often located at the same school and are perceived as people who can provide support whenever it is needed; this does not mean that the support is provided on a regular basis.

Adhering to the idea of help and support from people from the same field when carrying out self-directed professional development seems to be paradoxical. Clark (1992:81-2) explains this paradox in the following way:

*On the one hand, each teacher’s path and pattern of development is a solitary journey: I have been advocating here that we accept this, take responsibility for our own development, and make the most of it. On the other hand, there is no rule that requires us to pursue this solitary journey without any outside help. The paradox is that becoming a fully developed, autonomous individual is a process that we cannot make happen alone.*

### *Go first class*

To go first class for a teacher means that she/he respects her-/himself. Consequently, learners, colleagues, administrative body and parents will do the same (Clark, 1992:81-82).

### *Blow your own trumpet*

Throughout the process of SDPD, teachers make public what they have been doing while aiming at their professional development (Clark, 1992:81-82).

Teacher continuing professional development is a demanding concern and “it could be said that the professional development has no fixed route and no real end, if it is seen as lifelong learning and providing the professional continuity to work in the profession” (Rodrigues, 2005:4).

### **2.9.3.2 Facilitating Self-directed Professional Development**

The role of support and facilitation has been extensively documented in the literature concerning SDPD. However, as Brookfield (1986) notes, the concept of facilitation is new in spite of the fact that it has been used over the last century. Educators and teachers take up the facilitator’s role and as “facilitators of learning they see themselves as resources for learning, rather than as didactic instructors who have all the answers” (Brookfield, 1986:63).

In a SDPD context characterised by action research, some issues appear to be of a potential problem in the relationship between the teacher-researcher and the facilitator. Kember (2000:155-169) considers these problems as critical friends and describes a set of ten roles for a critical friend, namely as:

- financier
- project design consultant
- rapport builder
- coffee maker
- a mirror
- teaching consultant
- evaluation adviser
- research mentor
- resource provider
- deadline enforcer.

Here Kember (2000) sees critical friends in a different perspective than previously described. Critical friends are assumed as facilitators and the support is provided in a regular and planned schedule. My understanding is that the support is provided within a CPD agenda included in an AR project. In this PAR I played different roles. Owing the introductory nature of the research I had the role of research mentor. I encouraged the PRs on following AR cycles aimed at improving their practice. As a teaching consultant I influenced the PRs regarding the use of different ways for monitoring their pedagogical skills and individual learner assessment. At the same time I offered second-hand paper as resource for production of learning material. Finally, for the purposes they had defined I encouraged the PRs to determine deadlines for the attainment and verification of the results.

McNiff et al. (2003) and McNiff and Whitehead (2006) also define critical friends' roles in an AR project. Accordingly, critical friends are colleagues or co-researchers or mentors of AR who know the project and are available for ideas sharing and informal discussions on the project on a regular basis. In this PAR the activities that I carried out with the critical friends are indicated in Table 4.57.

## **2.10 QUALITY ASSURANCE**

The term 'quality assurance' (QA) has been interpreted in a variety of ways. In spite of different interpretations, authors in this field are unanimous in relation to its origin. According to Ellis (1993), the origin of this term is partly related to manufacturing, service industry and health care. This author states that QA "is about ensuring that standards are specified and met consistently for a product or service" and the "adoption for education has been rapid and pervasive" (Ellis, 1993:3). Kietzman (2003-2009:1) also discusses QA in a manufacturing setting and defines the concept as "the process of verifying or determining whether products or services meet or exceed customer expectation. Quality assurance is a process-driven approach with specific steps to help define and attain goals".

Borrowing the Shewhart Cycle framework developed by Deming, Kietzman (2003-2009:1) describes the four steps included in the PDCA model as follows:

- *Plan*: Establish objectives and processes required to deliver the desired results.
- *Do*: Implement the process developed.
- *Check*: Monitor and evaluate the implemented process by testing the results against the predetermined objectives.
- *Act*: Apply actions necessary for improvement if the results require changes.

Here quality assurance is understood as a specific self-evaluation activity with respect to the work that one has carried out. Furthermore, PCDA steps follow similar procedures as AR cycles do. Thus, AR can be applied as a tool for quality assurance. However, as Kember (2000:20) maintains, AR is not the sole approach for carrying out quality assurance: it can be “seen as neither the best nor the only viable approach”. In this PAR study, I take into consideration the PDCA model for both evaluating my work with the teachers and for supporting the teachers to do a self-evaluation in relation to their learners.

Corroborating the previous definition, Wikipedia (2009:1) describes quality assurance as a “planned and systematic production process that provides confidence in a product’s suitability for its intended purpose ..... It is a set of activities intended to ensure that products (goods and/or services) satisfy customer requirements in a systematic, reliable fashion”.

The QA scope in a specific field is referred to by Wikipedia (2009:1) as that quality determined by the intended users, clients or customers, not by society in general. Thus, QA in education settings can be a matter of concern not only to the education sector but also to the whole society since education is a social field. In the same way Ellis (1993:18) notes that “education certainly has a number of consumers beyond the individual student. There is the potential employer of the student and the society that may benefit from his skills”.

Harlen (1994:17) corroborates these interpretations within the industrial context by stating that QA serves to monitor the different steps of the production process, while quality control

is an instrument to remove deficient products. Yet, considering the implications of the terms *quality assurance* and *quality control*, he introduces the term *moderation* to point out at a specific view on assessment and the relative significance of quality assurance and quality control. The concept of moderation introduces the idea of reducing sources of errors such as “variation in the demand of opportunity provided by the tasks undertaken by students, differences in interpretation of performance criteria on making schemes and the intrusion of irrelevant contextual information in making judgements” (Harlen, 1994:16). The understanding of the role of assessment for QA is explicitly described by Harlen (1994) by providing “a framework for considering the pros and cons of various approaches to quality assurance and quality control”.

An analysis of QA as an instrument to verify the quality of the processes of learning and the facilitation of learning is offered by Kember (2000). This author builds classifying quality schemes, which encompass QA as one of the means to be used.

Taking into consideration the driving force of the overall QA process in education settings, three types can be distinguished, namely external QA, internal QA and self-directed QA.

### **2.10.1 External Quality Assurance**

External QA can be described as a top-down or external driven process. In those cases, the driving force, according to Kember (2000), can be the education sector’s management, funding or accrediting bodies. He goes on to describe general QA’s characteristics as follows:

- They are imposed top-down by the education sector’s management, by funding or accrediting bodies.
- Involvement is compulsory.
- The process is through review or inspection by a higher authority – though this process is often known by the wrongly used word ‘peer review’.

- The schemes seek to establish that an acceptable standard has been met.
- The acceptable standards are established in terms of pass rates. The procedures do not include qualitative categories.
- Institutions or courses that fail to reach the acceptable standard may be punished by withholding funding or approval of courses. Teachers deemed to be below the standard, face sanctions such as non-renewal of contract or denial of tenure.
- Teachers do not provide the real information about the categories provided on verifying the acceptable standard. Teachers avoid to be punished.
- There is rarely a mechanism for offering real rewards to those institutions, courses or teachers performing far better than the minimal acceptable standard.

(adapted from Kember, 2000:6-7).

The procedures followed in a QA process in education aim at ensuring acceptable standards in teaching and learning. Although QA is the most used term, Frazer quoted by Kember (2000:6), is more in favour of using the term ‘quality control’ in spite of the implications that this term has for academics. ‘Quality control’ is also used by Ellis (1993) in attempting to clarify the nature of QA. However, he concludes that the use of ‘Quality control’ for services such as education encompasses “a more complicated notion of quality control” (Ellis, 1993:5).

In the context of this PAR, QA also includes an evaluation of the CPD process in relation to the effectiveness of the activities performed by me as researcher-mentor and by the teachers involved as practitioner-researchers. Concerning the effectiveness of CPD, Guskey (2000) distinguishes three main limitations, namely in terms of effectiveness, knowledge or changes in both teachers and learners and evaluation. The limitations are described as follows:

- Most ‘evaluation’ consists merely of summarising the activities undertaken as part of the professional development programme: what courses were attended, how many credits accrued, etc. This clearly gives no indication of the effectiveness of the activities undertaken, making this form of data collection inadequate as a means of looking at the effects of CPD.

- Where some evaluation does exist, this usually takes the form of participant satisfaction questionnaires. Obviously, this allows one to gauge whether participants consider the event to have been enjoyable and successful, but does not engage with issues such as gains in knowledge or changes in practice expected from professional development, and certainly does not evaluate whether there have been changes in learning outcomes.
- Evaluations are typically brief, one-off events, often undertaken post hoc. As most meaningful change will tend to be long-term, and many professional development activities will take place over a longer period of time, evaluation efforts need to reflect this and likewise take place over time. Evaluation will also need to be built in, to run along-side professional development activities.

(Guskey, 2000: 8-10)

### 2.10.2 Internal Quality Assurance

External and internal QA can incorporate evaluation procedures in order to measure the impact of CPD.

According to Muijs et al. (2004), CPD impacts on different levels. Therefore, an evaluation of the CPD should encompass the different levels related to the intended outcomes. In the line of evaluation of PD, Guskey (2002) understanding is that the impact of a PD programme can be evaluated taking into consideration five critical and interrelated levels, namely:

- *Level 1*: participants' reaction – the most frequent level and easy form of evaluative evidence, however, does not measure or ensure PD.
- *Level 2*: participants' learning from CPD – the central level to teacher effectiveness.
- *Level 3*: Organisational support and change – impacts upon motivation and sustainability of change.
- *Level 4*: Participants' use of knowledge and skills – takes place after a reasonable time, depending on the complexity of the knowledge or skills to be acquired.
- *Level 5*: Learning outcomes – the one least likely to be measured in evaluation at present, but also one of the most important since it assesses the impact on learner learning.



The five levels are interrelated, since each one is supported by the previous levels. However, the effective results attained at one level do not predict the impact at the following Guskey (2002).

Muijs et al. (2004), following both Stake (1967) and Stufflebeum (1983) expand the levels by adding two more levels to those of Guskey (2002) ones. Firstly, they indicate that the prior condition of the evaluation should be listed as the level 1, since this level comprises issues like “motivation behind and reasons for the professional development programme/activity, why the particular programme was chosen, or why it was developed in a particular way, policy backgrounds and other factors affecting the choice and development of the programme” Muijs et al. (2004:301). Secondly, the authors point out that the issue of cost-effectiveness is missing in the models they analysed.

From the literature reviewed on the evaluation of CPD, it appears that exist a wide number of levels that can be considered. For the purpose of this study from the ideas of the previously mentioned authors, I summarised the model of evaluating the impact of CPD into eight levels as shown in Table 2.10. My interpretation is in the light of the idea of the nature or characteristics of PD, with respect to andragogical (adult-centred) instruction (Díaz-Maggioli, 2004; Evaluation Toolkit, 2008), credit and non-credit PD programmes (Sugrue, 2004).

The next table details the levels of evaluating the impact of continuing professional development.

<b>Levels</b>	<b>Purpose</b>	<b>Methods Applied</b>	<b>Types of Questions/issues</b>
<b>Level 1:</b> Rationale for the CPD programme	To verify the attainment of the goals of the CPD	Questionnaires	Prior condition of the evaluation <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- motivation and reasons for the PD programme/activity</li> <li>- justification of the particular programme</li> <li>- reason for developing in a particular way</li> <li>- policy backgrounds</li> <li>- other factors affecting the choice and development of the programme</li> </ul>
<b>Level 2:</b> Participants' reaction	To verify possible prerequisites of PD	Questionnaires	Content questions <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Relevance of the issues addressed</li> <li>- Appropriateness of the material</li> </ul>
		Personal comments	
<b>Level 3:</b> Participants' learning	To renew commitment of teachers as change agents To renew or extend teacher morale	Interviews	Process questions <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Preparation of the facilitator</li> <li>- Suitability of the material</li> <li>- Suitability of methods for adult learning</li> </ul>
		Different methods according to the knowledge to be evaluated	Context questions <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Appropriateness of the venue</li> <li>- Appropriateness of the period of the academic year</li> </ul>
			<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Cognitive learning</li> <li>- Affective learning</li> <li>- Behavioural learning</li> </ul>



<b>Level 4:</b> Organisational support and change	To raise motivation To sustain change To promote organisational change	Questionnaires Document analysis Interviews Participant portfolios	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Alignment to organisational policies</li> <li>- Consideration to organisational issues like support, resources, including time, barriers to successful completion, effectiveness and culture</li> <li>- Condition that ensures teacher participation</li> <li>- Suitability to individuals' professional and personal values</li> </ul>
<b>Level 5:</b> Participants' use of new knowledge and skills	To evaluate whether participants are using the new knowledge and skills acquired	Questionnaires Interviews Observation Video or audio tapes	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Explanation of activities or procedures</li> <li>- Innovative facilitating learning</li> <li>- Innovative ways of presenting learning tasks</li> <li>- Frequent follow-up of individual learner achievement</li> <li>- Continuous search for professional information</li> </ul>
<b>Level 6:</b> Teacher reward	To evaluate personal reward	Interviews Questionnaires	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Incentives</li> <li>- Promotion</li> </ul>
<b>Level 7:</b> Cost-effectiveness	To evaluate the cost-effectiveness of the CPD programme/activity	Audit/appraisal	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Cost of the programme</li> <li>- Benefits of the programme</li> </ul>
<b>Level 8:</b> Learning outcomes	To assess the impact on learner learning	Testing Interviews  Questionnaires	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Cognitive outcomes through standardised or non-standardised testing</li> <li>- Non-cognitive outcomes through interviews</li> </ul>

Table 2.11: Levels of evaluating the impact of continuing professional development (adapted from Guskey, 2002)

### 2.10.3 Self-directed Quality Assurance

In the Mozambican context of this study, quality assurance procedures have been focusing on teacher education institutions. In so doing, the National Institute for Development of Education (INDE) carried out studies to assess the teacher education models. The findings of these studies show the inefficacy of the teacher education curricula in the former CFPP and IMAP (Passos, & Cabral, 1989). However, the changes occurring at teacher education level will not have been informed by those findings. What led the transition from one model to another was the need to attain proposed goals in national and international commitment.

With respect to Mozambican primary schools, there is no written document about acceptable standards to be attained or the procedures to be followed when teachers do not do accordingly. However, all primary schools teachers refer to a percentage of pass rates to be achieved at the end of the academic year. On understanding the lack of formal standards and experiences in carrying out self-directed QA, it would be of great value to take into consideration that there are several teacher profiles and ways of facilitating learning as referred in Chapter 1. Owing to the lack of knowledge and experience in conducting QA among primary schools teachers, I use the advantages of teacher and school experiences on doing peer-coaching, mutual-classroom observation, and self-evaluation of their learning opportunities as recommended by Come (2009).

As Ellis (1993) notes, quality assurance is about ensuring that standards are specified and that they are met for a product or service. Therefore the provocative question at this point could be: Apart from pass-rate, what standards of education could be ensured by Mozambican teachers? This study does not set out to carry out QA. With the participation of the teachers involved in my study, I use QA procedures to both verify the impact of the activities and methods used and explore the appropriateness of AR as research paradigm for the improvement of learning, teaching and professional development (Zuber-Skerritt, 1992:1).

#### **2.10.4 Basic Principles of Instructional Design for Professional Development Interventions**

For the purpose of this study, instructional design is defined and understood within the educational context. “Instructional design refers to the systematic and reflective process of translating principles of learning and instruction into plans for instructional materials, activities, information resources, and evaluation” (Smith & Ragan, 1999:2). They continue by referring to the fact that instruction is an intentional act of facilitating learning (Smith & Ragan, 1999:2).

The term ‘design’ implies an intentional “systematic or intensive planning and ideation process prior to the development of something or the execution of some plan in order to solve a problem. Fundamentally, design is a type of problem solving” (Smith & Ragan, 1999:4). This could be considered higher order thinking that follows three main steps, namely analysis, strategy and evaluation. These steps should be combined with those that Salvia and Ysseldyke (1995) consider as important, namely:

- Planning instruction
- Managing instruction
- Delivering instruction
- Assessing instruction

Since professional development requires a great deal of time and is very costly, it cannot be based on incidental professional learning. Any professional development intervention should be planned in order to ensure mastering of professional learning outcomes and developing the full potential of everyone involved.

For optimal professional learning to result and active and interactive partnership, characterised by open academic discourse, should exist between the facilitator and the participating teachers. All participants and facilitator should contribute fully. Analogue to Du Toit (2010) this could be considered professional learning dynamics.

Factors that promote effective professional learning interventions are:

### *Planning*

High quality professional development interventions necessitate planning and innovation. To the background of developing whole-brain teachers (Herrmann, 1996) facilitators of professional development programmes should be sensitive to accommodating by planning different types of opportunities for professional learning. In the past, planning such a learning opportunity would mean designing a structured session such as a formal training session. Planning in the new paradigm means that a broad framework is planned for in which the teacher can learn according to constructivist learning principles. This would mean that the participating teachers help in structuring the professional development intervention and professional learning opportunities as is suggested by the empirical study that forms the baseline study for this participatory action research (PAR) study. This intentional participation by completing a questionnaire by a cohort of teachers represent the five practitioner-researchers (PRs) referred to in Chapter 3. This more open approach to a professional development intervention creates an environment conducive to flexible learning and creative thinking.

Efficient facilitators therefore prepare innovatively in terms of the professional learning process (How) and what should be acquired in terms of professional learning outcomes (What). Teachers participating in a professional development programme should not only learn about applicable learning theories, but also through the application of related principles. This relates to Kolb's (cited in Du Toit, 2007) idea of experiential learning. For the facilitator it also means an experimental practice as it is related to the whole-brain learning model of Herrmann (1996) that includes an experimental aspect. Experimenting with new ideas is evidence of a facilitator's willingness to improve what he/she is doing. In the context of this PAR study it is here where the facilitator takes a role-model position.

### *Professional learning outcomes*

An effective professional development intervention and effective scholarly discourse are supported by well formulated outcomes for professional learning. For this study such professional learning outcomes have been identified and are reflected in Table 3.3.

### *Creating new knowledge – based on experience*

Facilitators who themselves remain lifelong learners, who are continuously expanding their professional knowledge and developing their skills, and searching for innovative ways of conducting professional practice, will experience professional fulfilment. Irrespective of how efficiently facilitators plan, prepare and present, however, more of the measures can ensure that learners learn effectively. This would include mastering of skills and developing applicable attitude, values and virtues.

With a view to creating and maintaining a dynamic and participative learning environment within a professional development intervention, facilitators should keep in mind that different factors promote effective professional learning. Facilitators should create a meaningful professional learning environment within which teachers can learn by experience to convert their theoretical knowledge into praxis. The following characteristics that influence teachers' professional learning are important:

### *Motivation*

Motivation refers to teachers' willingness to learn as professional. That is willingness to immerse themselves in professional challenges and to venture into new professional learning experiences.

### *Self-discipline*

Self-discipline entails teachers' purposeful planning of their professional development with adequate understanding of their own capabilities and areas where they need to develop. This implies being able to decide where, when and how professional learning is to be undertaken and completed in accordance with what is expected by a specific professional development intervention. Motivation and self-discipline go hand in hand –

motivation being prerequisite for self-discipline. The capacity for independent learning, that is required of teachers within an outcomes-based approach to professional development, demands self-discipline.

### *Responsibility for professional learning*

The first priority for all teachers is to accept responsibility for the success of their own professional development. The foundation of this professional responsibility is self-discipline. Teachers as adult learners opposed to learners at school education level are in a situation in which they have more freedom of action and choice. This freedom requires greater responsibility for own potential development if effective professional learning is to materialize.

### *Effort*

Individual and collaborative effort, for instance where co-operative learning is used, implies purpose, interest, and concentration. Professional Learning, in the end, consists of individual effort that cannot be acquired on behalf of the teacher by any other person.

### *Interest*

An interest in professional development as educator underpins and promotes motivation, since interest and commitment go hand in hand. Interest fosters curiosity and directs teachers' participation, while it serves as an incentive for self-directed (self-disciplined) professional learning.

## **2.11 LIFELONG LEARNING**

Lifelong learning (LLL) means continuing learning throughout the life span. Persons (2005:13) points out that LLL “is not the same as continuing education in the formal education system. On the contrary, LLL crosses over or ‘dissolves’ boundaries, regardless of observing subjects and courses or policy sectors”. He continues stating that “Lifelong learning is a holistic view of education and recognises learning from a number



of different environments” (Persons, 2005:13) which can provide formal, non-formal and informal learning.

In 1978 UNESCO adopted LLL as a concept to support learning at all stages in life. This concept is defined as “any learning activity undertaken throughout life, with the aim of improving knowledge, skills and competences within a personal, civic, social and/or employment related perspective” (European Commission, 2001). Corroborating the personal and employment perspective, Ghosh and Sevukan (2006) support the idea that LLL is a term used to combine formal, informal and non-formal education in which people engage throughout the life in order to acquire or expand knowledge, skills and dispositions to promote well-being.

Lifelong learning can be seen as a part of formal education or as a part of informal activities or programmes. Teachers engage in CPD programmes as a part of their LLL, aiming at the improvement of knowledge, skills and competences. What is essential to consider in such programmes, according to Zuber-Skerritt (1992:219), is that the adopted model for CPD should encourage continuous development and LLL means a replacement of models of transmitting knowledge and skills.

Lifelong learning is an individual intentional endeavour, which has to be self-directed in order to respond to the learning needs. In this study, the teachers involved and myself as a mentor and researcher are lifelong learners since we were engaged, are still engaged and most probably will be in future in a problem-solving situation by both guiding and doing our investigation.

The theoretical basis considered in this theoretical framework suggests that AR is a sound paradigm for TCPD. Stringer (2004:172) makes the point that AR provides significant tools for designing relevant and effective TCPD programmes.

This study aims at exploring an intervention in primary schools teachers for taking responsibility for their CPD by investigating classroom practices and improving my own

practice as a TCPD promoter and facilitator and research mentor. From different models described in the extensive literature I have read, a holistic approach to self-directed development seems to be the model that should improve the teachers' responsibility. For this purpose, I have used AR as an interpretive paradigm which takes into consideration the physical, emotional, aesthetic, spiritual, intellectual, moral and social life of the participants (Stringer, 2004:37). The interpretive paradigm is basically concerned with a qualitative approach to research. The qualitative and the quantitative paradigms are the two paradigms currently used by researchers. These paradigms have significant differences and are used to investigate phenomena in social sciences through different procedures and purposes. The qualitative paradigm is derived from an interpretive approach to research whereas the quantitative paradigm is rooted in positivism.

Williams (2000:209) states that the interpretive paradigm and "qualitative research are sometimes used interchangeably" since both refer to qualitative dimensions of the study which do not use predictive and cause-effect hypothesis and use an interpretive approach. According to Mills (2007:29), interpretive AR starts from a researcher's personal supposition who considers that, although she/he has "professional knowledge, that may be useful in exploring the issue or problem" under study, his knowledge is incomplete and needs additional knowledge and understanding from the people affected or interested in the issue.

To sum up on the nature of research paradigms: Denzin and Lincoln (2005:22) assert that "all research is interpretive; it is guided by the researcher's set of belief and feeling about the world and how it should be understood and studied". For instance, in the quantitative paradigm the beliefs are accepted and assumed while in qualitative research the beliefs leave space for discussion and still remain controversial.

The theoretical framework attempts to provide a theoretical foundation to support the empirical evidence of the study and to present answers to the main research question, which would be valuable to me, my participants, primary school teachers in general, the MEC and other providers of teacher professional development and researchers in this

field. In Chapter 3 I include the theoretical basis and procedures that complete and substantiate the answers provided throughout the literature review.

This study focuses on individual classroom practices, on pursuing Fullan's (2001:253) and Hopkins et al.'s (1994:113) assumption, namely that PD cannot be understood as workshops and courses; PD has to be seen as a systematic process of development of habits of learning. The study also investigates the applicability of what Hargreaves and Fullan (1991:64) argue by saying that the responsibility for PD should be conferred to teachers themselves.

## **2.12 CONCLUSION**

In this chapter I have traced the holistic theoretical framework which guided this study. In discussing the theoretical framework I referred to professional development with particular emphasis on the Mozambican experience, and evolving from the Mozambican case, I described models and typologies of CPD. Evolving from the models described, a need for new approaches of TCPD, described in Chapter 1, has emerged. Among the models described I utilised Clark's (1992) understanding of the self-directed professional development (SDPD) model on supporting the PRs and my own professional growth. This model appears to be the more feasible model for the Mozambican situation, mainly if the diversity of models of teacher education and the insufficient professional qualification among primary school teachers as exposed in Chapter 1 is taken into consideration. Furthermore, I have shown the transformative learning role in a SDPD model (Grabove, 1997; Mezirow, 1997, 2003; Cranton, 2002) and the significance of self-directed quality assurance for the improvement of CPD towards lifelong learning.

The discussion on the topics selected attempted to place the study within the existing intellectual puzzle in the field of TCPD and to understand both the factors influencing TCPD in Mozambique and the need for investigation towards a more individualised and effective intervention in TCPD. I approached this PAR within a context where

motivation for TCPD follows a deficit-model and the factors associated with initiation of CPD were not sufficiently considered. Some of these underestimated factors include teachers' motivation and advocacy, and a pedagogical knowledge base. Chapter 3 presents the research design of this study.