



## CHAPTER 1

### INTRODUCTION

*The aim of this chapter is to introduce the study on the policy of curriculum change versus the practices at Marrere Teachers' Training College in Mozambique. Section 1.1 introduces the range of points to be developed by the chapter. A general overview of the education system in Mozambique is introduced and focuses on the structure of the education system after Mozambique became independent until the present time. A background of Mozambique is given in Section 1.2 in terms of the present socio-economic, cultural and educational context. The research problem is presented in Section 1.3 with the focus on the problem of implementation: from policy to practice, followed by the reasons or motivation for carrying out this study on policy implementation. The purpose of the study and aims and objectives are given in Section 1.4, followed by the formulation of the research questions in Section 1.4.1. Section 1.6 addresses the limitations of the study and, finally, Section 1.7 presents an overview of the chapters.*

#### 1.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter starts by giving a general overview of the education system in Mozambique, followed by a geographical background of Mozambique.

The second part is devoted to the following: problem statement, formulation of research questions and purpose of the study, research aims and objectives and limitations of the study.

#### 1.2 BRIEF HISTORICAL OVERVIEW OF MOZAMBIQUE AND ITS EDUCATION SYSTEM

Mozambique, with an area of 799.380 km<sup>2</sup>, is located on the eastern coast of Southern Africa south of the equator. It is bordered by Tanzania in the north, Malawi and Zambia in the north-west, Zimbabwe in the west, South Africa and Swaziland in the south-east, and also by South Africa in the south.

With a population of 20 million, Mozambique is the 7<sup>th</sup> largest country in Sub-Saharan Africa. In 2002, 68 percent of the population lived in rural areas (Guro & Lauchande, 2007).

The country's internal borders are defined by eleven provinces, namely Cabo Delgado, Gaza, Inhambane, Manica, Maputo City, Maputo Province, Nampula, Niassa, Sofala, Tete, and Zambézia. "The most populous provinces are Nampula (20% of the national population) and Zambézia" (19%) (Januário, 2008:14).



**Figure 1.1 Political Map of Mozambique**

Portuguese is the official language and language of instruction. Mozambique is a multicultural and multilingual country, with eighteen main Bantu languages. Bilingual education, including local languages, has been introduced at Basic Education level.

At educational level, "when Mozambique became independent in 1975, the illiteracy rate was 97% (1974) and it was reduced to 53% by 2004" (Mário & Nandja, 2005).

Mozambique has a very long coastline (2 470 kilometres) and a diverse climate, prone to natural disasters. Mozambique was a colony of Portugal for 470 years.

*Metical* is Mozambique's national currency and has substituted the *Escudo* after National Independence.

The presence of the colonial power in Mozambique lasted from the sixth century to the twentieth century (1974). That is why Lopes (1995:47) states the following:

“...it is in the colonial period that the embryo of the conditions inherited by independent Mozambique can be found: its poor school net and educational system, its ‘Europeanizing’ objectives and the deep authoritarianism, an indispensable element for the economical demands of the colonial system.”

In particular, the case of education, “the history of education in Mozambique started in 1799 when the first school was set up in Mozambique Island” (Belchior, 1965:643).

During the time of colonialism, there were two types of teachers training colleges, namely Primary Teaching Colleges (*Escola de Magistério Primário*) and the Primary Teachers’ Qualification Colleges (*Escola de Habilitação de Professores Primários*).

Primary Teachers’ Qualification Schools trained teachers to work in schools intended for the native, in the rudimentary schools. The candidates had to complete a grade 4 education and the course lasted three years. The length of time maintained when this training college evolved into Adaptation Primary Teaching Colleges (*Escola de Magistério Primário de Adaptação*), except for the School Post Primary Teachers’ Qualification Colleges, the duration of which was four years.

Primary Teaching Schools trained teachers to teach in official primary schools for five years. The course took two years and its candidates had to hold the 2<sup>nd</sup> cycle of secondary education (Grade 5 of secondary education or equivalent).

The Catholic Church, through its mission, “was assigned the responsibility of a very important sector of indigenous education, including the teachers training, to promote the Catholic Spirit and the colonialism’s objectives by the colonial government” (Sambo, 1999:38). In this way, “Primary Teachers Qualification School” *Posto do Alvor* was created in the district of Manhiça, 72 km from the capital of Mozambique, Maputo, in 1926 by the Portuguese colonial government. EHPPA was the first school to train teachers in

Mozambique (Sambo, 1999:9). Before that, teachers used to be sent from Portugal. Only in 1962 did the Portuguese government create the first Primary Teaching School in Mozambique for official Estate schools (Guro, 1999:51). In 1973 there were four Primary Teaching Schools in Mozambique and twelve Teachers' training schools (Lopes, 1995:75).

The nationalist and fascist government established in 1928 adopted the collaboration between the State and the Church as part of the colonial strategy. "The missionary agreement signed between the Portuguese state and the Vatican in 1940 and the missionary statute published in 1941 were the main instruments used to institutionalize this collaboration" (Sambo, 1999:10).

During the colonial period, the education sector faced several difficulties just like the ones facing independent Mozambique at present. It implies those problems were inherited from the Portuguese colonialism, and still persist. They are:

- Lack of quantity quality teachers at all levels (in all education sectors);
- Lack of qualified teachers ;
- The existence of teachers with no psycho-pedagogy training;
- A high number of non-literate people ;
- Lack of schools in rural areas;
- Low salaries, among others.

In short, the Portuguese government was in charge of education in Mozambique, but after the missionary agreement between the Portuguese Estate and the Portuguese Church, the latter took over the responsibility for education. At the beginning teachers were trained in Portugal for official schools and later they were trained in Mozambique, after the introduction of Primary Teachers' Qualification School (1962). From 1930, teachers were trained at the *Posto Escolar* Teachers' Qualification School for rudimentary and native schools.

After independence, one Primary Teachers' Training Centre (CFPP) was created in each province in 1976, a total of ten centres, to teach from grade 1 to grade 4. The entry level

was grade 6 and the course lasted six months. From 1979, the course lasted a year. In 1990, a new model 7+3 years was introduced.

### **School System**

Mozambique became independent in 1975. The National System of Education (SNE) was introduced only in 1983. It comprised five sub-systems, namely General Education, Adult Education, Technical/Vocational Education, Teacher Training and Higher Education. The education system was organised into four levels, namely Primary, Secondary, Pre-University and Higher Education.

The following table summarises the education system into four levels.

**Table 1.1**

#### ***General Educations***

Primary Education	It is subdivided into two levels: lower primary (EP1) which consists of five years of schooling (from Grades 1 to 5) and upper primary (EP2) which is two years (Grade 6 and 7). The starting age at primary school is 6 years.
General Secondary Education	It comprises three years (Grades 8 to 10). After completing this level, students have a choice of enrolling in general pre-university schools, primary teacher training colleges (medium level) or technical and vocational schools (medium level).
General Pre-University	It comprises two years (Grades 11 and 12).
Higher Education (Universities, Higher Education Institutions and Schools of Higher Education, Academies)	The entrance level is Grade 12. After completion of Grade 12 or equivalent, everyone has to sit for an entry examination.

*Source:* Passos et al. (2005)

### **Teacher Education**

The quality of teacher training is one of the controversial issues under discussion among the stakeholders in education in Mozambique. The low level of effectiveness of the education system is in some way explained by the lack of a coherent teacher training policy (Passos et al., 2005). For instance, since national independence Mozambique has

witnessed a succession of different models of teachers training courses, without reaching an ideal model. The change from one model to another has not been accompanied by a deep and thorough evaluation to determine the strengths and weaknesses of the previous models.

Teacher Education takes place at the Lower Primary School Teacher Training Colleges (CFPP), Primary School Teacher Training Institutes (IMAP) and Universities (UP and UEM).

The entry qualifications for lower primary school teacher training colleges is Grade 7 and the teachers are trained for three years, after which the teacher is able to teach in lower primary schools, Grades 1 to 5 (EP1). The entry qualification for primary school teacher training institutions is Grade 10. The teachers are trained to teach both lower (EP1) and upper primary schools (EP2), which cover Grades 6 and 7. The duration of the course is two years of INSET.

Teachers for secondary education, pre-university and post-school institutions are trained at universities (public and private institutions).

The annual need for primary school teachers “is estimated at 10,000 new teachers” (MEC, 2006:44). The annual graduation of teachers in either public or private institutions is still far less than the demand, hence the hiring of people with no pedagogical training to teach in primary schools with the aim of providing Education for All, as the number of learners admitted to primary school increases every year.

Under the peace agreement, the Government, in collaboration with local communities, seeks a rapid improvement in educational services. Consequently, primary school enrolment has increased sharply, assisted by an expansion in the number of classrooms, many of which were built by the local communities. Although still low, the quality of education has improved steadily as resources have shifted to the schools. Major problems, however, remain. The Government now addresses wide disparities between rural and urban areas as well as between and within regions and provinces by gradually allocating resources to the needy areas, increasing gender sensitivity and decentralising education management and budget allocations.

Due to those changes at political, socio-economic and historical level, the education sector can show some gains. Among these, the following can be highlighted:

- The greatest progress was achieved by facilitating access to education and this is significantly reflected in the increase in enrolment at all levels of primary and secondary education.
- The most marked increase was access to education for Grades 1 to 5, EP1 and EP2.

Shortly after gaining independence in 1975, Mozambique was plunged into a civil war, which became regionalised as neighbouring *apartheid* South Africa backed the anti-government guerrillas, the Mozambique National Resistance (MNR or Renamo). A cease-fire agreement was signed in 1992 between the government and the MNR which brought the war to an end. Today Mozambique is a multi-party democracy under the 1990 constitution. Mozambique successfully instituted multi-party elections and a peaceful transition to new leadership within the ruling party in December 2004.

The resettlement of war refugees and internally displaced people, political stability and continuing economic reforms have led to a high economic growth rate. Between 1994 and 2004 the annual GDP grew on average by 8.2 percent. The GDP per capita is \$310, which indicates an expected growth of 7 percent to 10 percent a year over the next five years. Focusing on economic growth in the agricultural sector is one of the major challenges for the Government.

Other major challenges are HIV/AIDS and epidemic diseases such as malaria and cholera. In 2006, the HIV/AIDS prevalence rate of infection was 16 percent and life expectancy was 39 years.

In the education sector, illiteracy figures decreased and the number of pupils in primary education rose from 1.7 to 4 million. The literacy rate is now 47 percent and the proportion of pupils completing primary education has increased from 22 percent to 40 percent. The gross enrolment rate in lower primary education is 130 percent, while upper primary education records 60 percent. However, lower secondary education is below 30 percent (Guro & Lauchande, 2007:1).

### **1.3 BACKGROUND, MOTIVATION, RATIONALE OF THE RESEARCH**

#### **1.3.1 Problem of Implementation: from Policy to Practice**

In the context of the global strategy of development the government of Mozambique adopted the national policy of education in 1995, which guides the National System of Education.

Through the strategic plan of education, the Ministry of Education reaffirms the defined priorities of the National Policy of Education with prominence for the “improvement of the quality of education, the increase of access to educational opportunity for all Mozambicans at all levels of the educational system and the development of the institutional framework” (MINED, 1997; 1998).

However, Mozambique has embarked on education reforms resulting in the policy of the new curriculum for basic education. “In the classroom context the new curriculum for Basic Education expects teachers to change their practices in the teaching and learning process from a teacher-centred approach to a learner-centred one” (MINED/INDE, 2003:74).

The teaching and learning process in the post-independence period was dominated by the teacher, with the student being a passive receptor. Since the new curriculum for basic Education has been introduced in 2004, the teacher is expected to be a facilitator in order to make the teaching and learning process more dynamic and promote students’ creativity and active participation. Teachers are expected to have mastered and use flexible strategies in the teaching and learning process. This new strategy of teaching constitutes a radical change from the previous practices - a shift from teacher-centred to an emphasis on child-centred learning methods.

It is within this context that this study is located, the purpose of which is to explore the relationship between policy and practices by answering the research questions, such as the following:

What do teachers say about the New Basic Education Reform? What teaching strategies are used at this College? Why? How do the lecturers teach? How do teachers' trainers deal with the challenges and what do they say about them? How does the College deal with the problems related to basic education (low quality of education and curriculum, under-qualified, unqualified and untrained teachers, the high teacher-pupil ratio and the lack of facilities and teaching resources) through change agents?

There are two levels of implementation in curriculum reform in education, namely a macro and a micro level. This study fits well into the micro level implementation because it intends to explore the relationship between the policy and practice by observing classes and interviewing teachers in order to get their opinions, perceptions and attitudes related to the phenomenon under investigation. According to Craig (1990), Warwick et al. (1992), McGinn (1996), Fuller & Clarke (1994) quoted by Benveniste & Mcewan, (2000) "implementation at micro level comprises the following variables: perceptions, attitudes, incentives of teachers, students and parents, and the 'fit' between local culture and educational innovations".

Fullan & Hargreaves (1992:1) argue that "effective implementation consists of alterations in curriculum materials, instructional practices and behaviour, and beliefs and understandings on the part of teachers involved in given innovations." However, the gap between policy and practice in education is relevant in this study because the process of implementation of any policy is complex and not linear.

The implementation process depends on certain conditions to be created in real schools (context), how people are involved in the process, and on final beliefs, perceptions and commitment.

Thus,

"the key to successful change is the improvement in relationship between all people involved and not simply the imposition of top-down reform. The new emphasis is educational change, which is based on creating the conditions to develop the 'capacity' of both organisation and individual to learn. The focus moves away from an emphasis on structural change towards changing the culture of classroom and schools; an emphasis on relationships and values"(Fullan, 1991).

In addition, one belief is that “most people do not develop new understanding until they are involved in the process” (Fullan & Stiegelbauer, 1991). It means that both teacher and school administrator must be involved in the process of change in order to understand what changes are proposed and how to implement them in real school.

Due to political, economical and social changes at internal and external level, Mozambique started to design the new curriculum for the basic education in 1996. This curriculum was designed in Mozambique and introduced in 2004; it is now being implemented. It was anticipated by the involvement of different stakeholders, starting from civil society to trainers. This reform introduces, among others, some innovations in the curriculum, namely an integrated approach, a learner-centred approach, interdisciplinarity. After one year of its implementation, it is necessary to know how these issues are implemented by the teacher trainer at Marrere CFPP. One of the focal areas that concern this study is the extent to which trainers deal with such innovations, as change agents in classroom.

Steensen (2000:1) argues that “educational reforms are currently being experienced in many corners of the world, in developing countries as well as in developed countries.” More specifically, curriculum reform developments are taking place in North America, Singapore, South Africa, Japan, the Caribbean and Mexico (Pinar, 2003).

A review of some international literature has identified four major problems related to basic education in Africa, which also impair the basic education in Mozambique. These are low quality of education and curriculum, under-qualified, unqualified and untrained teachers, the high teacher-pupil ratio and a lack of facilities and teaching resources.

The four factors mentioned above form a web of problems that affect and compromise the improvement of the quality of education in Africa and in Mozambique. In the case of this study, I became aware that several challenges exist. Obviously, Mozambique and other African countries still have much to do in order to minimise the negative effects of the above-mentioned factors in basic education.

For the improvement of teacher quality, Fwu & Wang (2002:15) state the following:

“Improving the teacher’s quality through the teacher’s education has become a major focus of education reforms. Among the public discourse on educational reform in Taiwan, teacher’s education was the first and foremost target for reform because the teacher quality plays a crucial role in improving education. Teachers are the heart of educational reform.”

If we assume that the curriculum policy can flow from training colleges to teachers and schools, that is to say top-down, we must confront questions such as: How effectively is the curriculum referred to above being implemented? Why have trainers not been involved in the process from the beginning? What must be done with the trainers in order to invert this situation (feeling, perceptions, understanding and commitment)?

The reform process has not been adequately accompanied by the necessary changes at INSET (schools) and PRESET (Teacher Training Colleges) levels. Adapting the institutions and their curricula to match the needs of the basic education curriculum is the biggest challenge at the moment. Currently, there are three types of institutions with different curricula – the CFPPs and College for Training Future Teachers (EPF belonging to the ADPP). The first ones are the Primary Teacher Training Centres requiring, seven years of formal schooling, followed by three years teaching training (7+3). Secondly is the College for Training Future Teachers, privately owned by a well-established local division of an International Non Government Organization, 10+2,5. The question is how are these institutions going to meet the demands of the new curriculum for basic education? What are the strengths and the weaknesses of the pre-service curriculum? Have the institutions developed the capacity for in-service training to upgrade teachers for the challenges of the new curriculum? Most important of all: Is a change in teacher education enough to change the practice of the future teachers in schools?

### **Rationale of the study**

There are various reasons that have motivated me to carry out this inquiry. Firstly, it is my interest to understand the phenomenon of policy implementation, which is of paramount importance to the needs of the country. According to Knapp (2002:5), ever since the earliest attempts to study the implementation of complex governmental policies, the impulse to trace the connections between reform policies and instructional practice has been strong; in the same vein the growing body of policy implementation research points out that there are many gaps between the policy as formulated and its actual practice in the classroom. That is why a scholarly arena is imperative for further research on this topic.

Secondly, “emphasis is given to the assumption that the relationship between policy and practice is not linear, rational and predictable” (Jansen, 2003).

Thirdly, it is believed that teacher training institutions play a crucial role in education as a whole. This statement is illustrated in an article written by Torres (1996), entitled *Without Reform of Teacher Education there will be no Reform of Education*. This shows that teacher training reform in education must always be first. Teachers are key agents of change in any educational reform. Teacher training institutions must act in consonance with Basic Education.

Fourthly, “there is very little research on curriculum practice in African schools, especially those produced by indigenous writers” (Jansen, 2003). It is to encourage teachers or investigators to write about their countries in general and about their regions (local) in particular.

In Chapter 1 it was stated that the gap between the primary school curriculum and TTC in Mozambique persists. This justifies the reason why it was pertinent to carry out this study.

#### **1.4 PURPOSE OF THE STUDY, AND RESEARCH AIMS AND OBJECTIVES**

The purpose of the study is to explore the relationship between policy and practice in the classroom at Marrere CFPP.

The main aim of this study is to contribute to the reform of teachers' education in Mozambique through an analysis of how the present form of teachers' education relates to the needs of the new school curriculum.

The literature that informs this study is the scholarship on educational change, particularly the relationship between policy and practice. There are many international studies that have attempted to understand these problems over the last thirty years, but no such studies on teacher training in Mozambique. This study seeks to contribute to our understanding of the modalities of educational change in resource-poor contexts. It also hopes to make a contribution to the implementation of the basic education policies by the Mozambican

Ministry of Education, and to the practices of lecturers and administrators at Marrere and other colleges.

The underpinning objectives of the research are the following:

1. To identify the weaknesses and strengths of the TTC in relation to the new curriculum for basic education in Mozambique as well as the factors behind these weaknesses and strengths.
2. To explore to what extent the TTC in Mozambique can play a crucial role in ensuring the implementation of the new curriculum for basic education.

#### **1.4.1 Research Questions**

1. How have theories about curriculum change been implemented in Marrere CFPP?
2. Why they been implementing in these way?
3. What is the relationship between curriculum change and practice on the ground?
4. To what extent does the teachers' training curriculum match the Basic Education curriculum and how does it do so?
5. To what extent does the teachers' training curriculum assessment match the Basic Education curriculum and how does it do so? What are the outcomes?

#### **Motivation of the study**

It is vital that the teacher education system in Mozambique, which is presently not at all well, fits the needs of basic education. In order to achieve a change in teacher education and not to repeat the previous mistakes, it is necessary to understand what the current situation is, how teacher education operates and why it is so. Insight into these variables will contribute to the reform of basic education.

The new curriculum for basic education was introduced in 2004 and had a direct influence on the TEIs because of their mission. All these colleges train teachers for primary school, enabling them to deal with the new curriculum for basic education in primary schools in Mozambique. Inherent in this training is the demand for future teachers to change and their teaching practice.

The implementation of educational changes involves “changes in practice” and these changes are aimed at attaining particular goals. To achieve these goals, Fullan (1991 & Stiegelbauer:37) has identified three dimensions which together support any programme or policy, namely new or revised materials, new teaching approaches and alterations of beliefs.

According to Passos & Cabral (1989:15), in their study about TTC, the curriculum for the TEI for primary schools in Mozambique is less professional because the balance between professional and academic disciplines is biased in favour of academic disciplines. This means that more time is devoted to academic disciplines. For Africa, Stuart & Lewin (2002:216) point out that:

“...for example Lesotho’s new curriculum was oriented towards more academic study, while Ghana’s was moving towards a more practical and school-based course. Many curricula are heavily over-loaded with content, and seem mismatched to the experiences, needs and expectations of the trainers. There are often internal inconsistencies with regard to aims, objectives, pedagogy, teaching-learning materials and assessment.”

While Craig, Kraft & Du Plessis (1998:109) suggest that:

“the program needs to provide a balance of pedagogy and subject matter as opposed to exclusive emphasis on one or the other. It should also include practical methods to teach subject matter, child development, and learning theories in ways which are relevant to the student content, ways to evaluate teaching and learning, multi-grade classroom management, ... participatory learning strategies such as discussion, simulating, and teaching practices.”

There is a mismatch between what Craig, Kraft & Du Plessis (1998) consider as being the most appropriate model, founded on a view of a balance between subject contents, and professional’s ones. However, relating to the models Stuart & Lewin (2002), found to be in use in some countries in Africa, which are unbalanced and place more emphasis either on practical courses or academic courses for teachers’ training.

The gap between curriculum for the primary school and the TTC persists in Mozambique, which justifies why it is pertinent to carry out this study.

## **1.5 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY**

The contribution and significance of this study is to explore the relationship between policy and practice. Fullan & Stiegelbauer (1991), Fullan & Hargreaves(1992) and many others authors (Psacharopulos, 1990; Kiros, 1990; Magalula, 1990; Maravanyika, 1990; Odaet, 1990; Thelejani, 1990; Galabawa, 1990; Eshiwani, 1990; Cohen, 1990; Cohen & Ball, 1990; Dyer, 1999; Craig, 1990; Cohen & Hill, 2000; Knapp, 2002; Chau et al., 2006; Cohen, 2006) have written about this. The four major problems related to basic education in Africa and Mozambique underscore the lack of correspondence between the policy of basic education and the practices at TTC. I want to investigate how the Marrere CFPP deals with these issues.

To make this analysis possible, we need to investigate the main aspects that constitute these demands of the new curriculum, namely the learner-centred approach, the approach that integrates the subjects, interdisciplinarity and the introduction of a local curriculum (MINED, 2001; MINED/INDE, 1999).

I want to investigate how the particular characteristics of Marrere CFPP relate to these demands inherent in the new school curriculum. Firstly, I want to determine how the different agents become aware of the change and what they are doing to face the challenge; secondly, I want to determine what the teachers' understanding, beliefs and attitudes are with regard to a learner-centred approach.

## **1.6 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY**

Observable changes in the teaching and learning process in the colleges that train future teachers and in the primary schools where former students of the colleges teach children must be investigated. There is a trend today in educational policy discourse that seems to start from the hypothesis that learning achievement can be fabricated in the same way as Coca-Cola, cars or corn - that is to say, by will of an entrepreneur who invests the right means and uses the right techniques. But that is not the case with propagating learning. The process is much more complicated and in the last instance depends on the learners themselves.

It is also true that the achievements of the learners depend on a certain number of objective conditions, which can only be manipulated to a certain extent and mostly not by learners and teachers. Most of these are beyond the control of the teachers and learners; they have to do with the economic, social and cultural capital and dispositions of the communities and families where learners are brought up. And they have to do with the very different conditions in which urban and rural people, men and women, people from different social classes and ethnic groups live. Factors that have an impact on these aspects are beyond the control of teachers and learners.

I am therefore aware that this research will not be able to identify one single factor and the way to manipulate it in order to change the outcomes of teacher training and the quality of learning in schools. I can merely attempt to describe and explain how different models are functioning and which results they are connected with, everything else being equal. Deciding on which type of teacher training is most adequate would require a controlled experiment to be done, comparing the achievements related to the three systems. No such a study has been done, and it is almost impossible to do it because teachers educated by the three systems are scattered in schools all over the country. So the best one can do is to observe the teacher training in the three systems systematically. It would be something totally new to make some assumptions about the impact of training, and to follow at least some of the students' teachers during their practicum and later in their different teaching contexts, again with systematic comparative methods, with a view to accounting for all other factors that have an impact besides teacher training.

Sometimes I feel that before investigating change and the conditions under which change takes place, it would be more important to try to understand why things do not change, although everybody says that change is necessary and unavoidable.

## **1.7 STRUCTURE OF THE THESIS**

This dissertation is divided as follows:

**Chapter 1** introduces the reader to the study, states the problem and explains the aims of the study, and its limitations.

**Chapter 2** provides a brief summary of the literature on policy implementation.

**Chapter 3** offers a description of the research instrument and research design and describes the methodology.

**Chapter 4** provides the context of the Osuwela Project and background to the CFPP of Marrere.

**Chapter 5** shows how the curriculum and content are organised and discusses constraints on its implementation.

**Chapter 6** describes how teachers understand the new curriculum for basic education and, more particularly, the learner-centred approach and interdisciplinarity.

**Chapter 7** shows and discusses three different teaching styles during the teaching and learning process with the emphasis on teacher methods used in classroom practices.

**Chapter 8** shows an overview of assessments conducted at Marrere CFPP.

**Chapter 9** provides a brief summary of the literature on policy implementation, the conclusion in the light of the research questions and discusses the main findings and recommendations of the study.

## CHAPTER 2

### LITERATURE REVIEW

*The aim of this chapter is to present the relevant literature related to policy and implementation with the focus on a case study at a teacher training college against the background of the implementation of new policies in Section 2.1. Subsequently, Section 2.2 gives the linkage between the research question and the literature as well as sub-research questions to the problem (problem: theory versus practice) is also addressed. Policy implementation is presented and discussed, taking into account various reasons for failure and success of implementation (Section 2.2.1). Section 2.2.2 deals with agencies and structures. The chapter also presents two types and dominant theoretical traditions of implementation policy and possible solutions for those two approaches (Section 2.2.3). Section 2.2.4 addresses agents involved in the policy implementation. The failure of policy implementation is presented in general and the South African context relating to OBE also is presented (Section 2.2.5). The problems of policy implementation and practice in developing countries are discussed (Section 2.2.6). The four common problems that basic education in Africa and Mozambique are presently facing are presented and discussed, taking into account the same context (Section 2.3). Section 2.3.1 deals with the quality of education and curriculum, Section 2.3.2 focuses on teacher qualification, Section 2.3.3 on teacher-pupil ratio, while Section 2.3.4 deals with facilities and teaching resources. The conceptual framework which supports the study is addressed in Section 2.4. Finally, the discrepancy between policy and practice are posed in Section 2.5.*

*Policy implementation is like a telephone game: the player at the start of the line tells a story to the next person in line who then relays the story to the third person in line, and so on. Of course, by the time the story is retold by the final player to everyone it is very different from the original story. The story is morphed as it moves from player to player - characters change, protagonists become antagonists, new plots emerge. This happens not because the players are intentionally trying to change the story; it happens because that is the nature of human sense-making” (Spillane, 2004:8).*

## 2.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter dealt with the statement of the problem, the aims and objectives of the study, research questions, and the structure of the dissertation and limitations of the study. This chapter presents a case study of a teacher training college against the background of the implementation of new policies.

The first part of this chapter focuses on the rationale, statement of the problem of policy practice and general review of the literature related to implementation from policy to practice in developing countries. The second part is devoted to the review of literature about the problems of Basic Education in Africa/Mozambique that affect the improvement of education and implementation of the policy.

Education reforms are not new. They can be traced back before the 21<sup>st</sup> century. McCulloch (1998:1203) points out that:

“Over the past forty years, in many different nations, reform of the school curriculum has been widely sought as a key instrument of educational change. Reforming the content and form of what is taught has often appeared to be even more important in this respect than other familiar approaches, such as reforming the organisation of educational system.”

Therefore, “education is broadly used as an instrument for social change” (Chimombo, 2005:130).

This study intends to find out how the theories about curriculum change have been implemented and the reason why they have been implemented in that way. It also seeks to identify the relationship between curriculum change and practice at Marrere CFPP, the extent to which the teacher training curriculum and assessment match the Basic Education curriculum and how they do so, as well as their outcomes.

### **Research questions; linkage between research questions and literature**

The literature review related to policy implementation is a response to the research questions of this study. These will help trainers to understand perceptions, beliefs and attitudes about innovations in the new curriculum in Mozambique, in particular regarding teaching strategies in the classroom and the practice at the College being studied.

The research questions stated above are intended to help trainers as change agents at the college to understand the perceptions and attitudes to the new curriculum, and how such changes can be implemented in the classroom. Scholars and researchers pay attention to the relationship of policy and practice, that is, to policy implementation as a part of the learning process.

## **2.2 PROBLEM: POLICY VERSUS PRACTICE**

### **2.2.1 Policy Implementation**

Policy implementation is a process whereby people put in practice the norms, regulations, policy and decisions taken by policymakers. Ball (1990:14) points out that “the purpose of implementing new policies in the education system is often associated with a need to effect changes. Therefore there is an assumed direct link between policy implementation and change.” However, “education policy faces a familiar public policy challenge: local implementation is difficult” (Spillane; Reiser & Reimer, 2002:387). The term implementation involves both *carrying through* and *realizing*. Moreover, *carrying through* a decision does not always result in a *realization* of the objective target” (Lane, 1992 in Roste, 2005). That is why Ramsuran (1999:99) states that “research suggests that policy intentions seldom define classroom practice.” In the same vein, Elmore & Sykes (1992) are of the opinion that “innovations are seldom implemented in the classroom in exactly the same way developers had intended.” This is where the problem of policy and practice resides. It means that once policy has been stated and prescribed on paper, it must be translated or implemented at micro-level, that is in the classroom. The policy is implemented in schools in different contexts. The literature shows that the gap between policy and practice is still a major concern (Cuban, 1990; Ball, 1990; Psacharopoulos, 1990; Kiros, 1990; Magalula, 1990; Maravanyika, 1990; Odaet, 1990; Thelejani, 1990; Galabawa, 1990; Eshiwani, 1990; Cohen, 1990; Malen & Knapp, 1997; January, 2002; Ward et al., 2003) to mention a few. In other words, the problem with policy and practice is at the stage of implementation. According to Fullan & Stiegelbauer (1991:65) “implementation consists of putting into practice an ideal programme or set of new activities and structures for the people expected to change.” For implementation, Malen & Knapp (1997) suggest that:

“the connections between policy and practice predict policy success or failure. Moreover, the analysis is a useful tool for policy-design and strategy planning. According to the organisational category of policy-practice connections, reforms aim at sustaining institutions and removing threats that they face rather than resolving practical problems.”

In the United States of America and in other industrialized countries, political, economics and management science have long been concerned with policy implementation research.

Hariparsad (2004:10) states the following:

“The basic knowledge on policy implementation in the context of Educational Change and reform is formidable, and important for examining and understanding the relationship between macro and micro level policies or classroom practice. Research on educational reform implementation has been, and still is, the subject of a substantial volume of research, database and analysis among scholars, both in developing and developed countries. Most of these studies have been more rhetorical than substantive in their impact in classrooms and schools, thus exposing the dissonance between policy intention and policy outcomes at the level of practice.”

In the same line, “in the South African context, since the release of Nelson Mandela in 1990, most education policies have been symbolic, substantive and redistributive” (Jansen, 2001). This view highlights the messiness of the policy process and projects policy as often comprising symbolic gestures. Researchers working with this perspective would see it as a government-led political process which, they would argue, ignores the “realities on ground” (Sayed, 2004:251-252). The following quotation shows clearly the role exchange between policymakers and implementers during the implementation process:

“Implementers such as schools become key decision makers rather than mainly agents of others’ decisions, roles traditionally held by policy makers. Policy makers become supporters rather than directors of others’ decisions, roles traditionally held by implementers. Calls for these role redefinitions stem in part from decades of research and experience with social policy implementation that teaches that policy makers might improve policy implementation and schools’ performance if they increased school’s discretion over basic school operations as a central reform strategy; such discretion might result in decisions that address local needs and tap local resources rather than strategies developed by policy makers outside schools” (Darling-Hammond, 1998; McLaughlin, 1990).

The following example clearly shows when teachers have an opportunity to make sense of a policy in their local context. Cohen & Hill, 2001, argue that “the policy established by the California Department of Education improved the teaching and learning of

mathematics only when teachers had sustained significant opportunities to make sense of the reform initiative in their local context.”

The relationship between policy and educational change is based on the role of policy which functions as a guide, stimulating stakeholders to enact those contents already stated from the policy such as school curriculum and others.

In this research a college was used as a case study for investigating the policy-practice relationship by looking at some innovations included in the new curricula implemented in Mozambique. The topic is supported by the literature related to policy and practice.

In order to get a good understanding of the relationship between policy and practice, it is inevitable to talk about agencies and structures, power and agents involved in the process of implementation as well as factors that influence it.

### **2.2.2 Agencies and Structures**

When talking about agencies, I refer to the range of institutions subordinate to the Government, in this particular case, to the Ministry of Education. The administrative organization of each country (Federal state in the USA or Province in Canada) has an influence in terms of numerous agencies involved in each country. As Fullan (1993:220) said, *Governments* means federal and state departments in the USA, provinces in Canada (because there is virtually no federal policy in Education), and national governments in countries that are governed as one system.

In the past, “government agencies have been preoccupied with policy and programme initiation, and until recently they have vastly underestimated the problems of implementation” (Fullan, 1993:86). This issue is overcome when the importance and difficulties of implementation is acknowledged by the government agencies, and, as a result, resources are allocated in accordance with the needs to improve the standards of practice, implementation units, quality assessment, quality of potential changes, professional development and the monitorization of implementation policies (Fullan, 2001).

According to Cohen & Hill (2001), “the effective implementation of instructional policies depends not only on making connections among disparate agencies but also on creating adequate opportunities for professionals to learn what the policy requires from them.”

There is also the problem of the complexity and weight of the structure that manage educational affairs. On the one hand there is the top level, where we find the Ministry with its own departments and staff; on the other hand there is the bottom levels, the real implementation field, with its hierarchical structure; and in between these there are transition stages. The complexity of the channels through which the information has to pass is another problem for implementation due to the high number of institutions and the number and qualifications of the people that are involved.

### 2.2.3 Top-down and Bottom-up Strategies/Approaches

The literature identifies two theoretical traditions on policy implementation (Roste, 2005; deLeon & deLeon, 2002; Fullan, 1994; Pulzl & Treib, 2006), namely **top-down** (the top-down school, represented by scholars like Van Meter & Van Horn (1975), Nakamura & Smallwood (1980) or Mazmanian & Sabatier (1983) quoting Pulzl & Treib (2006:1) and **bottom-up**. Scholars belonging to the bottom-up came, such as Lipsky (1971, 1980), Ingram (1977); Elmore (1980); or Hjern & Hull (1982), Lipsky (1980) quoting Pulzl & Treib (2006:1). It means that **top-down** corresponds to centralized power (*authority*) and **bottom-up** corresponds to the decentralized power (*democratic*). However, “centralization errs on the side of over control; decentralization errs towards chaos” (Fullan, 1993). Fitz (1994) argues that “top-down studies tend to render the policy process as hierarchical and linear.” On the contrary, Fullan (1994:12) states that “change is non-linear and complex.” In the same vein, Jansen (2003) argues that “the relationship between policy and practice is not a linear, rational and predictable process.” “Top-down models put their main emphasis on the ability of decision makers’ to produce unequivocal policy objectives and on controlling the implementation stage” (Pulzl & Treib, 2006:2-3). “Bottom-up critiques view local bureaucrats as the main actors in policy delivery and conceive implementation as a negotiation process within networks of implementers” (Pulzl & Treib, 2006:2-3). In addition, Pulzl & Treib (2006) argue that “policy makers should start with the consideration of policy instruments and available resources for policy change (forward

mapping); and they should identify the incentive structure of implementers and target groups (backward mapping).”

Further, “first-wave reforms were criticised for relying primarily on top-down approaches to reform; research has demonstrated that relying exclusively on either a bottom-up or top-down approach to change is ineffective, and that successful reform demands a combination of these approaches” (Darling-Hammond, 1997; Fullan, 1994b; Goodlad, 1975; Porter, Archbald & Tyree, 1990; Purkey & Smith, 1983, 1985 cited by Desimone, 2000). From the combination of top-down and bottom-up results the *hybrid* or *synthesising* theories, that appear as an alternative approach to both. “Hybrid theories try to overcome the divide between the other two approaches by incorporating elements of top-down, bottom-up and other theoretical models.” The hybrid theories are represented by Majone & Wildavsky, 1978; Scharpf, 1978; Mayntz, 1977; Windhoff-Héritier, 1980; Ripley & Franklin, 1982; Elmore, 1985; Sabatier, 1986; Goggin et al., 1990; and Winter, 1990, in Pulzl & Treib, 2006:3).

The top-down perspective “claims that the implementation process needs a clear start and a clear end to study and evaluate the implementation” (Pressman & Wildavsky, 1973). In addition:

“The implementation process is understood to start after the policy decision is made. The decision-making process is clearly defined by the discussion and framing of political objectives by the members of the central formal democratic institutions of the Parliament and the Government. Hence decisions are made at the top of the public policy pyramid and implemented downwards in the hierarchy, in the bureaucracy and public agencies, public service institutions and regional and local level” (Roste, 2005:19-20).

Similarly, “top-down theories started from the assumption that policy implementation starts with a decision made by central government” (Pulzl & Treib, 2006).

On the contrary, the bottom-up perspective:

“...insists that the demarcation line between policy decision and implementation is unclear, and that studies of implementation have no value unless the whole process is included. Implementation is a continuous process without a beginning or an end, rather policy decisions and implementation happen at all levels in the public system to all time involving both policymakers and political actors at all geographic levels,

bureaucrats in a number of specialized field and service providers in different public institutions. This understating of implementation has a clear normative point of view, emphasizing the need of decentralizing the decision making process; to include the perspectives of the service level and of the users of public services in order to maker ‘good’ decisions” (Roste, 2005:20).

While traditional organizations require management systems that control people’s behaviour, learning organizations invest in improving the quality of thinking, the capacity for reflection and team learning, and the ability to develop shared visions and shared understandings of complex business issues (Senge, 1990:287). It is theses capabilities, which show the difference between traditional organizations and learning organizations, which will allow the learning oraganizations to be more locally controlled and better coordinated than their hierarchical predecessors.

Coordination between local units and the centre is necessary either in centralised or decentralised setting. The information obtained from individual school is relevant for personnel moves, selection and promotion criteria, budget decisions and staff development resources. For this a different two-way relationship of pressures, support and continuous negotiations is required. Failure to understand this will result in inability to cope with the cross-cutting forces of change (Fullan, 1993).

Policy implementation everywhere “depends on how it is interpreted and transformed at each point during the process” (McLaughlin, 1998). For example, at provincial level, district level, school level. In the same vein Jansen (2003) argues that “the relationship between policy and practice is not a linear, rational and predictable process.” “Policy thus seems a chief agent for changing practice” (Cohen, 1990).

Fullan & Hargreaves (1992) argue that “the effective implementation consists of alterations in curriculum materials, instructional practices and behaviour, and beliefs and understandings on the part of teachers involved in given innovations.” Thus,

“...the key successful change is the improvement in relationship between all involved and not simply the imposition of top down reform. The new emphasis is educational change, which is based on creating conditions to develop the ‘capacity’ of both organisational and individual to learn. The focus moves away from an emphasis on structural change towards changing the culture of classroom and schools, an emphasis on relationships and value. In addition, one believes that ‘most people do not develop

new understanding until they are involved in the process” (Fullan & Stiegelbauer, 1991).

It should not be surprising that the bottom-up reform results are disappointing. The primary institutions of policymakers - their professional knowledge based, practice and workplace norms - reinforce policymakers’ top-down control over school operations, not their support of school decision (Honig, 2004). Pulzl & Treib (2006) point out that “implementation and policy formulation are inter-dependent processes. What bottom-up scholars already suggested for a long time has become more and more accepted, also among the proponents of *hybrid* or *synthesising* theories.”

For the South African context, Jansen (2003) highlights “the likelihood of curriculum policy processes remaining top-down but not necessarily authoritarian. This is because the logic of a top-down ‘policy-to-practice’ curriculum mode is so strongly entrenched in policy-makers and teachers.” In light of this, Jansen (2003:44) states the following:

“There is little understanding that practice can direct policy and less that practice could represent policy. Policy is something that happens in Pretoria, something that is handed down to teachers for implementation. There are no established traditions of locally-driven curriculum development; in fact, studies have repeatedly shown teachers willing to declare themselves impotent with regard to the curriculum process in South Africa. Again, such as orientation coexists comfortably with a public discourse about participation, ownership and transparency.”

Taking into account the types of power already discussed above helps to analyse the curriculum model of Mozambique within the system as a whole, relating it to agencies and structures established in Mozambique (the Ministry of Education, Provincial Directorate of Education, Districtal Directorate of Education and the schools). It also helps to identify the kind of power relation involved between different government agencies of education, including Marrere CFPP, which is located at the bottom level of the all structures.

#### **2.2.4 Agents involved in the policy implementation**

##### **Teacher**

As we have seen earlier, policy is not implemented in classroom as intended by policy developers. In the process of implementation, teachers are seen as key agents of change at school, more concretely, in the classroom (Spillane, 2004; Spillane 1997; Darling-

Hammond & McLaughlin, 1995; Elmore & Sykes, 1992; Cohen & Ball, 1990). In other words, “early policy implementation research recognised the importance of ‘ground-level’ actors who were tasked with enacting policies” (Pressman & Wildavsky, 1973), and educational scholars have gradually come to recognise the importance of teachers as the key agent to successful policy implementation (Odden, 1991). There are many actors involved in the process of implementation in the school level, namely parents and the community, the school administrators, students, the principals and the teachers themselves. However, it is the teacher, together with students, who puts it into practice. The success of the teacher depends on the support of the other above-mentioned actors and interaction with other teachers. He also needs to get moral, material and other kinds of incentives.

It is important to ensure that the policy is well interpreted by its implementers. This is one of the crucial conditions for implementation to be successfully in the classroom. As Fullan, 1993, said: “... each and every teacher has the responsibility to help create an organization capable of individual and collective inquiry and continuous renewal, or it will not happen.” In summary, “every person is a change agent” (Fullan, 1993). In the same vein, “teachers figure as a key connection between policy and practice and teachers’ opportunities to learn what the policy implies for instruction are both a crucial influence on their practice, and at least an indirect influence on student achievement” (Cohen & Hill, 1998:329). In the last instance, policy implementation of a curriculum “depends on how it is interpreted and transformed at each point during the process” (McLaughlin, 1998), for example, from provincial level, district level, school level. In the same vein, Jansen (2003) argues that “the relationship between policy and practice is not a linear, rational and predictable process.” “Policy thus seems a chief agent for changing practice” (Cohen, 1990). Hence, “the change process is exceedingly complex as one realizes that it is the combination of individuals and societal agencies that make a difference. Teachers are major players in creating learning societies, which by definition are complex” (Fullan, 1993). Cohen & Hill (2001) concluded that “the effective implementation of instructional policies depends not only on making connections among disparate agencies but also on creating adequate opportunities for professionals to learn what the policy requires from them.”

### 2.2.5 Failure of Policy Implementation

Implementation is a problem of both third world and western nations. It means that the implementation problem occurs in developing as well as in developed countries. “The problem of implementation is as profound in western as it is in non-western nations: it derives from complex organizations” (Van Meter & Horn, 1975). In addition, Cohen & Ball (1990) point out that “Policymakers believe that *policy* can steer school practice and change school outcomes.” This idea is corroborated by Grindle & Thomas (1991) when they argue that “policymakers tend to assume that decisions to bring about change automatically result in changed policy or institutional behaviour.” And then, Saranson (1990) suggests that “educational reformers must not confuse a change in policy with a change in practice. Reformers must understand that in order to accept changes in practice, a process of unlearning what custom, tradition, and even research have told education personnel is right, natural and proper.”

The main idea to be retained here is that policymakers believed that once policy is defined, it will be put in practice by school agencies. The implementation process is very complex and not linear. It means that it is important to see the context where it is put in practice as well as the support, motivation, opportunities given to teacher at local level. “Successful change involves learning how to do something new. The process of implementations is essentially a learning process. Thus, when it is linked to specific innovations, teachers’ development and implementation go hand-in-hand” (Fullan & Hargreaves, 1992).

There is no doubt that “a common challenge facing education policy to date is the persistent difficulty of ensuring local implementation of instructional reforms by teachers” (Chau et al., 2006).

Cohen & Ball (2006) identified three schools of thought that explain policy failure: these are when innovations are badly designed, and teachers are not given opportunities to learn them; limited incentives to change practice in schools that culminate in resistance; and finally, a lack of robust treatments that address problems that seriously concern practitioners.

In short, the failure of policy implementation is attributed to badly designed policy, schools that are unprepared to implement such policies (educator resistance, conditions, etc.) and, finally, to only a few innovations addressing the problem. That is, “the real change is never accomplished because societal, political, and economic forces inhibit change within the educational system (Fullan & Stiegelbauer, 1991). However, Dreeben (1970), points out that “perhaps the distinguishing characteristics of school systems are the vague connections between policy formation at both high and middle levels of the hierarchy and their implementation at the level where instruction takes place – the classroom”.

One key factor for a successful implementation of innovations is the participation of those who are influential in policy and implementation in their design; it should not be imposed by outsiders. Implementers such as managers, school heads and teachers should know what is expected of them and necessary means should be made available for them to act. Also, the policy should not be offensive to the values of the region where it is going to be implemented (Page, 1995).

Jansen (2002:199) states that “the literature policy in developing countries is replete with narratives of ‘failure’ attributed to the lack of resources, the inadequacy of teacher training, the weak design of implementation strategy and the problems of coherent policy.” Along the same lines, Bennie & Newstead (1999:1) argue as follows:

“There are several factors that can restrict curriculum innovation. These factors are related to both the teacher and the context in which the innovation is taking place. They include time, parental expectations, public examinations, unavailability of required instructional materials, lack of clarity about curriculum reform, teachers' lack of skills and knowledge, and the initial mismatch between the teachers' lack of skills and principles underlying the curriculum innovation.”

To summarise, “all policies will probably encounter some degree of resistance and play themselves out in different ways in the various ways” (Wolf et al., 1999). “...any reforms seldom go beyond getting adopted as a policy. Most of them get implemented in word rather than in practice, especially in classrooms” (Cuban, 1990). “Policy outcomes fall far short of matching expectations, mainly because of insufficient or the absence of implementation” (Psacharopoulos, 1990). In the same vein, Reimers & McGinn (1997) argue that “policies fail because conditions to facilitate dialogue and organisational learning are usually absent.”

“The failure of educational change may be related to the fact that many innovations and reforms were never implemented in practice (i.e., real change was never accomplished) as to the fact that societal, political, and economic forces inhibit change within the educational system. There is a greater problem of clarity. In short, lack of clarity – diffuse goals and unspecified means of implementation – represent a major problem at the implementation stage; teachers and others find that the change is simply not very clear as to what it means in practice” (Fullan & Stiegelbauer, 1991).

According to Cohen & Ball (1990), policy

“...has been interpreted – and thus enacted – in a variety of ways. Policy is a bundle of disparate ideas, many vaguely stated, and thus especially vulnerable to many different constructions. Any teacher in any system of schooling interprets and enacts new instructional policies in the light of his or her own experience, beliefs and knowledge.”

Emerging research suggests that success in implementing curriculum innovations hinges on the supply of teachers with appropriate professional development

Burgess & Lowe (2002:87) in their study about Australia advance states the following:

“The greater the disparity between existing teaching practices and the aims of the new curriculum, the more complex the task of translating policy directives in practice will be. Difficulties in implementation are compounded if teacher professional development is not appropriately matched to the nature of the reforms imposed. The increased responsibility imposed on school principals to manage the implementation process may create difficulties in situations where leaders are inadequately prepared to provide direction for staff on curriculum implementation and professional development.”

Educational change may be viewed as a response to broader social, cultural, economic and political change. Taylor et al. (1997) state that “the transformation of the educational system does not take place without resistance, especially from the privileged minority.” “Implementers apprehend and enact new policies in the light of their inherited knowledge, beliefs and practice”

Swarts (2002:10) states the following:

“Policy failure can often be attributed to the view that implementation is separate from policy making and because policy makers in general underestimate the complexity and difficulty of coordinating the tasks and players and players involved in implementing programmes and policies.”

Cohen & Ball (1990) agree and state “that policy has been interpreted – and thus enacted – in a variety of ways. Policies regularly announce a new instructional order for the classroom slate, which is never clear.” In addition,

“Policy makers need to understand that policy is not so much implemented, as it is re-invented at each level of the system. What ultimately happens in school and classrooms is less related to the intentions of policymakers than it is to the knowledge, beliefs, resources, leadership and motivation that operate in local contexts” (Darling-Hammond, 1998:646).

Uneven local implementation is sometimes a function of local unwillingness to change. At other times limited prior knowledge and lack of expertise, material and time to put into practice the proposed changes advanced by policy are barriers to successful implementation of a new policy (Spillane, 2004). A final comment:

“Little is known about how teachers perceive instructional policies, how they interpret them, and how different kinds of policies influence teaching and learning. Many policies and programs have aimed at classrooms, but what we know about those policies stops at the classroom door, for policy research has seldom investigated the effects of policies on the actual works of teaching and learning” (Cohen & Ball, 1990:1).

Let us look at the South African context where the new curriculum (C2005) has recently been implemented. It was introduced to replace the *apartheid* curriculum. Earnest & Treagust (2006:257) tell us briefly how C2005 has been built when they stated that:

“Based on the legacy of apartheid, South Africa’s curriculum reform was accepted by the masses largely on political grounds and policy makers wrote the reform curriculum without consideration for the implementers of the reform, i.e. the teachers. Educational policy implementers, at the request of politicians had to produce demonstrable curriculum innovations in a short space a time. For this reason, C2005 was hastily borrowed from foreign contexts, namely Australia and Scotland. There was inadequate research into their success and effects and C2005 was bundled together with insufficient consultation on research in the name of change and redress. Teachers were challenged with every conceivable type of change espoused in reform curriculum.”

Although, in theory, the implementation was designed to reach all learners by the year 2005, in reality numerous problems were experienced (Earnest & Treagust, 2006:257). It means that policymakers failed to visualise different contexts where the curriculum was going to be implemented, such as qualifications of teacher, poor resources, and inequalities existed in South Africa schools as well as socio-economic problems. In other words, there

was no homogeneity in terms of conditions, teacher qualifications and resources because the nations came from the *apartheid* regime where school segregations were visible across the country.

Taylor & Vinjevold (1999:257) state that “classrooms in rural schools are still characterised by teacher talk, pupil passivity, rote learning; low-level questioning dominates the classroom environment and teachers generally dominate lessons.” In addition, Taylor & Vinjevold (1999:257) have found the following:

“There is broad consensus that teaching and learning in the majority of South African schools leaves much to be desired and that lessons are generally characterized by a lack of structure and the absence of activities that promote higher order skills such as investigation, understanding relationship and curiosity as espoused by the curriculum reform goals. Although teachers are implementing some aspects of C2005, the level of implementation is questionable and progress may be retarded.”

In response to the difficulties experienced by C2005 in schools, among other actions have been undertaken, policy curriculum was revised and researched, and it was formulated and written in a language acceptable to the majority of teachers, resources for teacher were provided, and sustainable INSET were provided by qualified personnel.

In many instances, policy failure can be attributed to poor implementation or lack of foresight in the policy process. Systematic change can also be undermined when leaders attempt to underestimate conceptual and practical complexities in the interest of fast-paced implementation. This is evident in the South African context where the imperative of political change underpins much of the education reforms (Mokoena, 2005).

### **2.2.6 Policy and Practice in Developing Countries**

Policy implementation in developing countries continues to be studied in order to get more insight into it. “In developing countries implementation is assumed to be a series of mundane decisions and interactions that are not worthy of any scholarly attention” (Khan, 1996). Thus, “in developing countries policy-making is seen as more prestigious than implementation and it is to the formulation of policy that attention is paid” (Ganapathy, 1985). In the same vein, “reform initiatives in developing countries seem to pay little

attention to the complexity of implementing policy under system-wide conditions of disadvantage and underdevelopment” (Sayed & Jansen, 2001).

As can be seen from the above, the process of implementation is ignored by policymakers and the design of policy is given more importance. It is like giving more attention to the content and teacher during the teaching and learning process and ignores the role of learners.

In summary, the implementation process in developing countries is characterised by poverty, inequality and financial constraints, lack of resources, the inadequacy of teacher training, the weak design of implementation strategy and the problems of policy coherence which affects the implementation process. And, “little research attention has been directed at providing information about the implementation process that policy makers can draw on. ...educational policy implementation in developing countries has not received sufficient analytical attention; many aspects of the process involved are not yet well” (Dyer, 1999).

A review of some international literature agrees on four major persistent problems related to basic education in Africa, which also affect basic education in Mozambique. These are the low quality of education and curriculum design; unqualified, under-qualified and untrained teachers; the teacher-pupil ratio, and facilities and teaching resources. They affect and compromise the improvement of the quality of education in Africa and in Mozambique.

It is necessary to make the teachers’ training curriculum adequate for the new basic education curriculum; to upgrade all the teachers by PRESET and INSET; to make methods or strategies adequate for a higher teacher-pupil ratio classroom and to provide the basic instructional material, with emphasis on textbooks to be used in primary school by future primary school teachers. The above-mentioned problems are located between policy and practice and impair the process of implementing the new curricula.

In summary, change such as the shift from teacher-centred to learner-centred instructional methods (as policy) represents the establishment of a new era in the teaching and learning process in Mozambican primary schools, which constitutes a big challenge for the TTC.

The implementation of this change in schools can be positively or negatively influenced by the problems already identified.

This research aims at exploring the reform of teacher education in Mozambique through an analysis of how the current teacher training curriculum relates to the needs of the new curriculum for basic education. In other words, how does practice reflect what is prescribed in the curriculum? Or what is the linkage between policy and practice? In this regard I intend to investigate how the Marrere CFPP deals with such problems.

Let us look at each problem in a national and international context.

## **2.3 BASIC EDUCATION IN AFRICA AND MOZAMBIQUE (THE MAJOR COMMON PROBLEMS IDENTIFIED)**

*“Everyone has the right to education. Education shall be free, at least at the basic and fundamental stages. Elementary education shall be compulsory. Technical and professional education shall be made generally available and higher education shall be equally accessible to all on the basis of merit” (United Nations, 1978:6).*

### **2.3.1 Quality of Education and Curriculum**

In developing countries, such as African nations, there is a problem of policy and practice at the micro level. The following comments illustrate this problem:

*“In many countries there is a gap between the official curriculum and its implementation at the classroom level and they attribute this to the existing teaching-learning conditions. Classroom practices have remained very much teacher-centred, using talk-and-chalk methods and in many cases teachers do not have means or the skills to implement proposed reforms” (UNESCO, no date).*

Teacher Training Colleges have been called upon to be prepared in order to meet the demands of the official curriculum and its implementation. There is also a call for graduate teachers with the required skills in order to implement the proposed reforms as a way to guarantee quality in education.

In Mozambique, there is a major concern related to teacher training. Daun (1992:18) states that:

“the number of teachers with the stipulated type of training has increased, but there is a strong criticism of the training given at the centres. Their curricula have not been adapted to the new education system, which means that there is a low degree of correspondence between what the future teachers learn at the centres and what they are supposed to teach when they have been recruited to the schools.”

Teachers are not sufficiently prepared to do their work. This means that the curricula could be well designed, but this in itself does not guarantee an improved quality of education because teachers are a determining factor in implementing the curriculum and in guaranteeing the teaching and learning process. The TTC must reduce or eliminate the existing gap between their curricula and the curriculum for basic education.

Lockheed & Verspoor (1991:91) argue as follows:

“To avoid producing new teachers with the same inadequate skills and professional commitment as many incumbent teachers, developing countries must design policies that a) raise the level of knowledge of the prospective teachers; b) increase pedagogical skills of the new teachers, and c) improve the motivation of all teachers. To improve the knowledge and skills of new teachers, it is necessary to change the recruitment practices and pre-service training; to improve teachers’ motivation and performance; incentives must be provided. Low competence and poor motivation are also the result of the low status afforded by the teacher in many countries. Status plays an important role in attracting academically prepared candidates and in encouraging them to remain teachers.”

In order to improve the quality of education, a new curriculum has been designed for basic education but this has not been accompanied by PRESET at TTC.

The challenge of the teacher training institutions in Mozambique lies in adjusting their curriculum to the requirements of basic education. It has been said by Lovat & Smith (2003) that “one of the major problems in implementing an effective change in any system or organisation is the tendency for it to revert gradually to the situation prior to the change.”

### 2.3.2 Teacher qualification (Under-qualified, unqualified and untrained teachers)

The African continent is facing problems related to the teacher's qualification. About this, Craig, Kraft & Du Plessis (1998:6) state that:

“In most developing countries, nations are forced to employ some under-qualified and often unqualified teachers in order to achieve universal primary education. This has generally been a major factor in the decline of the overall quality of education and the increase in recurrent budget expenditure” (Craig, Kraft & Du Plessis, 1998:6).

In the African context as well as in developing countries, “most of the educational systems have large numbers of untrained teachers or teachers who have no formal teaching qualification” (Kelaghan & Greaney, 1992 in Stuart & Lewin, 2002).

There are two ways of solving this problem. The first one is to upgrade the teacher by PRESET and the second is by INSET. Both could be facilitated by the TTC but the main problem is that the existing colleges themselves often use the wrong way of teaching. Therefore PRESET and INSET just contribute to the continuation of the problem instead of solving it.

Since 1975 “a profound and often expressed belief in Mozambique is that the overriding problem of Mozambican schools is the bad teachers and classroom observations confirm that learners have an almost totally passive role in the teaching-learning process” (Palme, 1993:39).

A Report about *Education Sector Assessment* concludes the following:

“Most of the teachers in the basic education system are quite young, and most have received relatively little pre-service training before assuming their posts. They will remain in the education system for many years. If the quality of instruction in primary schools is to be improved significantly, then the knowledge and skills of teachers now in the schools will have to be upgraded through in-service training’ (Dzvimbo et al., 1992:85). “The quality of the education system, and of the educational sector as a whole, is worsened by the acute shortage of qualified teachers. At the primary level alone, teachers have about seven different kinds of qualifications. PRESET in Mozambique is also very weak due to the poor qualifications of teachers’ educators. The majority of the teacher trainers in the CFPP ... have no experience of teaching at the primary school level” (Dzvimbo, 1995:47-48).

The challenge for the teacher's training system in Mozambique is to train all teachers for basic education with all basic requirements needed in order to meet the criteria of the new curriculum. One of the best strategies teachers in developing countries can adopt to do this is mastering appropriate skills, academic knowledge and pedagogical methods (Craig, Kraft & Du Plessis, 1998).

### **2.3.3 Teacher-learner ratio**

In Africa, the teacher-learner ratio is often used for measuring quality. Although there is no clear correlation, many countries aim at bringing the ratio down in order to facilitate and create a better and more direct interaction between teacher and learners. However, this ratio can easily be misleading as it does not take into consideration double shifts or under-utilisation of teachers in low-populated areas (UNESCO, no date).

According to Nilsson (2003b:8) "the teacher-student ratio varies between and within countries", especially in sub-Saharan Africa and Southern Asia where it still remains high. Most countries have experienced either no change in this ratio or have increased the teacher-learner ratio during the decade" (UNESCO; see Ishumi, 1994). Nilsson (2003a:11) concludes that "in many African countries class sizes as big as 100 learners to one teacher are not uncommon."

What kind of implications do these issues have in the educational process? At centres or TTCs all barriers which directly or indirectly affect the training process must be minimised or eliminated by reducing the number of learners per class or by equipping teachers with good strategies for working with large-sized classes; examples are pair work and group work.

In Mozambique, "the number of learners per class varies considerably from grade to grade as well as from region to region" (Daun, 1992:20). Mozambique, like other African countries, has very high class sizes, between 70 and 80 pupils. According to Golias (1993) "the quality of education in Mozambique is markedly weak. A contributing factor is the unacceptable teacher-learner ratio."

“Actually, the quality of Education in Mozambique is a major concern in the Basic Education. This is stated in INDE Projects promoting the Transformation of the Curriculum for Basic Education in Mozambique. This project outlines the main activities of the students in the classroom. In a recent seminar on curriculum development activities aimed at hearing, waiting and copying without guaranteeing the essential activities of understanding and application” (INDE, 1997).

The use of expository teaching became dominant and fundamental in the classroom but has its limitations. The old curriculum at primary school level focuses mostly on memorisation and mechanised procedures rather than challenging learners to demonstrate all their skills and abilities (Assis et al., 1992). In this regard, Bazilashe, Dhorsan & Tembe (2004:233-234) state the following:

“The main characteristic of the national pedagogical tradition in Mozambique has been the recognised authority of the teacher in the classroom: teaching dominates, and the pupils are not seen as being at the centre of the learning process. The students have to listen while the teacher is teaching, and they have to do the homework and the teacher assigns.”

Thus the new curriculum promotes a different pedagogy that places the learners at the centre of the entire teaching-learning process. For this to be possible, the teacher cannot continue to be dominant, but he must, instead, facilitate the learning process and actively involve the learner.

A pedagogical shift is the major concern in the Mozambican new curriculum for Basic Education. The shift from teacher-centred to child-centred learning methods represents a radical change because it opposes the teacher-centred approach practised in schools. Teachers must understand the approach and be aware of what it means before they go ahead. They must be able to deal with large classes, to get the basic instructional materials and so on. This is underscored in the following paragraphs:

“Learner-centred education presupposes that teachers have a holistic view of the learner, valuing the learner’s life experience as the starting point for their studies. Teachers should be able to select the content and methods on the basis of a shared analysis of the learner’s needs, use local and natural resources as an alternative or supplement to ready-made study materials, and thus develop their own and learners’ creativity... A learner-centred approach demands a high degree of learner participation, contribution and production ... is based on democratic pedagogy, a methodology that promotes learning through understanding, and directed practice towards empowerment to shape the conditions of one’s like” (The Broad Curriculum for the BETD cited from NIED, 2003).

Along the same lines,

“In the classroom learning should clearly be a communicative and interactive process, drawing on a range of methods as appropriate for different groups of learners and the task in hand. These include group and pair work, learning by doing, self- and peer assessment, with emphasis on the supportive and managerial role of the teacher” (Pilot Curriculum Guide for formal Senior Secondary Education, 1996).

However, there is a controversy related to the use of learner-centred pedagogy in the African context. Tabulawa (2003), in his article entitled International Aid Agencies, learner-centred Pedagogy and Political Democratisation: a critique, points out that the indigenous knowledge is an alternative to learner-centred pedagogy in schools in developing countries, although he recognises that it has not been sufficiently investigated yet.

The author tries to establish the linkage between international aid agencies, learner-centred pedagogy and political democratization. The 1980s and 1990s have marked a new epoch because neo-liberalism as a development paradigm considered political democratisation as a prerequisite for economic development. After the fall of the Berlin wall, international aid agencies (DFID, USAID and the Norwegian Aid Agency (NORAD) became interested in learner-centred pedagogy and required it to be disseminated in the Third World Countries (periphery states) so that a democratic society could be achieved through the replacement of the authoritarian school methods in third world countries. It was believed that it could be possible through education, where schools would act as an instrument of dissemination of democratic relations between teachers and students. International aid agencies strong defence of learner-centred pedagogy was merely for political and economic reasons rather than pedagogical ones.

In order to illustrate the statement above, Tabulawa (2003) gives as an example the Primary Education Improvement Project (PEIP) developed in Botswana (1981-1991) with the objective of consolidating Democracy. It was funded by USAID and was aimed at providing technical assistance to the Government of Botswana for the improvement of the primary pre-service and in-service education. Three instructional innovations were implemented during the PEIP in order to change teachers and students practice. These were the Breakthrough to literacy in Setswana, the Project methods, and the Botswana teaching competency instrument.

Tabulawa (2003:19) argues that the USAID interest in a democratic pedagogy can be understood in the context of the USA's foreign policy. The US Government funds projects aimed at promoting democracy globally as part of its wider foreign policy.

The interventions taken by PEIP in classrooms through the three instructional innovations showed the presence of democratic social relations (*social and political values of individual autonomy, open-mindedness and tolerance of other people's views*) but not the quality of education in terms of students' achievement.

The author concludes that:

“essentially, aid agencies saw the pedagogy's efficacy as lying in its ability to promote values associated with liberal democracy. It was envisaged that the pedagogy would assist with the breaking of authoritarian structures in school and that latter, through its erosion of traditional modes of thought, would produce individuals with the right disposition towards a liberal democracy” (Tabulawa, 2003:22).

In summary, changes such as the shift from teacher-centred to child-centred learning methods represent the establishment of a new era in the teaching-learning process in Mozambican primary schools and constitutes the big challenge for the TTC.

It is important to state that the learner-centred approach is contained in a Mozambican policy document (Curricular Plan for Basic Education, 2003) as a pedagogy that must be used in the classroom by primary school teachers. However, it does not tell one clearly what a learner-centred approach means. Consequently, teachers, as key agents of change, are not unanimous in interpreting the approach. In my opinion it is important to produce a document that can explain the meaning of a learner-centred approach accurately, thus providing a common explanation of the concept as the point of departure.

As can be seen above, my understanding of a learner-centred approach is based on the explanation given by the Namibian policy document which focuses on the key points such as the teacher's roles/activities, learner activities, methods (different strategies) and classroom organisation. I am of the opinion that the concept *learner-centred approach* is not a universal concept; it is defined and interpreted differently around the world.

Among other things, the orientation to the new curriculum for basic education in Mozambique is a learner-centred approach. The relevant questions raised are how the TTC deals with these issues in order to ensure effective teaching and learning in primary schools; what role must be played by the TTC; how should large classes in schools be dealt with, managed, and what kinds of strategy may be followed to teach in this type of class. Lovat & Smith (2003:201) argue that “if a change is centrally concerned with people’s values, perceptions, feelings, practices and interests, then successful change strategies must take these into account and provide opportunities to negotiate them.” Likewise, Lockheed & Verspoor (1991:116) advise that “strategies for developing good pedagogical skills should include pedagogical methods, and incorporate practice teaching into pre-service training.”

The challenge of the teachers' training institutions in Mozambique is to adopt pedagogical teaching methods and practices at PRESET in order to develop good pedagogical skills for dealing with large class size, so as to guarantee an effective child-centred approach of the new curriculum for Basic Education. “One of the effective strategies for education in developing countries is to get the teacher to master the use of individualized, small group and large group instruction” (Craig; Kraft & Du Plessis, 1998:149).

#### **2.3.4 Facilities and teaching resources**

In the African context, the image of the school has been characterised as follows:

“A solitary teacher stands before 70-80 students. Perhaps, there is a blackboard and chalk. The students may have desks, maybe just benches or the floor to sit on. Some may go to a school that has a few books or exercise tables. Some may have no classrooms but must sit outside, under a tree” (Harsch, 2000).

Therefore

“improving working conditions enables teachers to function better and students to perform better. When students perform better, the teacher’s motivation is reinforced; Teachers cannot do their job efficiently without basic instructional materials. Poor working conditions de-motivate teachers, weaken their professional commitment and affect students’ performance. Even competent teachers, who are well prepared, cannot teach effectively under adverse conditions” (Lockheed & Verspoor, 1991; see Heneveld & Craig, 1996).

The TTCs have to minimise or eliminate all barriers which directly or indirectly affect the teaching and learning process by using adequate basic instructional materials such as textbooks, and teachers should know the content well and should be able to teach it. Learners must learn in better conditions in the classroom (chair, table, green or black board and chalk).

According to Martins (1992:67), “books are a very important way of achieving the objectives outlined in an educational programme, especially in recently independent countries where the building of a new society is a major priority. Most primary teachers in Mozambique work in difficult conditions.” In the same vein “teaching and learning conditions are important” (UNESCO, 1998).

Let us look at teacher training institutions as they are faced with similar problems as primary school teachers at primary school. According to Dzvimbo (1995:50), “teaching and learning facilities in all CFPPs are grossly inadequate. Most of the CFPPs do not function properly because they do not have enough classrooms and housing facilities for students and staff. Library facilities are almost non-existent.”

Dzvimbo (1995:50) outlines the need for resources as follows:

“As far as teaching and learning resources are concerned, it is impossible that existing institutions can play a critical role in both PRESET and INSET with the current paucity of basic reprographic and teaching equipment. The severe shortage of basic teaching, learning and training materials in all CFPPs parallels the situation in the schools, where pupils sit on the floor without adequate teaching and learning materials.”

For example, integrated education approaches are one of the demands of the new curriculum. Various books must be consulted in order to guarantee a good teaching and learning process as a whole. If we assume that primary teachers come from TTC, they must be provided with better conditions in terms of facilities and teaching resources.

The challenge to the teachers in the teacher training institutions in Mozambique is to work in better conditions and use the basic instructional material like textbooks, books, etc. in order to meet the new curriculum requirements for basic education. Emphasis is placed on necessary inputs for the future teacher to produce didactic materials. Regarding effective

change, Lovat & Smith (2003:205) say that “amongst other things, there are many things that might prevent effective change in schools, including lack of interest, lack of resources, no leadership, lack of support, lack of time and conservatism.”

At pedagogical level, “educators in most regions are faced with large classes and the teacher-learner ratio seems to be higher than in any other place in the world except South Asia” (Novicki, 1998). Teachers are often unqualified, not trained to implement better strategies or methods in order to deal with large classes.

The literature review, in the last instance, emphasises the role of teachers. Teachers are still the most important change agents in the classroom (Fullan, 1993). That is why the study focuses on teacher trainers at a college since they should understand the changes made in the curriculum and their implications in the classroom.

### **Where does my work fit in with what others say about this topic?**

The current curriculum for basic education has been changed in Mozambique. This study attempts to determine how the Marrere College implements this change. The emphasis is on a learner-centred approach and an interdisciplinary approach. Since teachers are regarded as key agents of change in the classroom, the study also tries to gain insight into their understanding, perceptions and attitudes towards the phenomena under investigation.

## **2.4 CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK**

“Many still do, writing about the ‘effect’ of class size or expenditure on learning. This view implies that resources carry ‘capacity’, such that schools produce better learning by virtue of having more books or teachers with more degrees” (Cohen; Raudenbush & Ball, 2002:80).

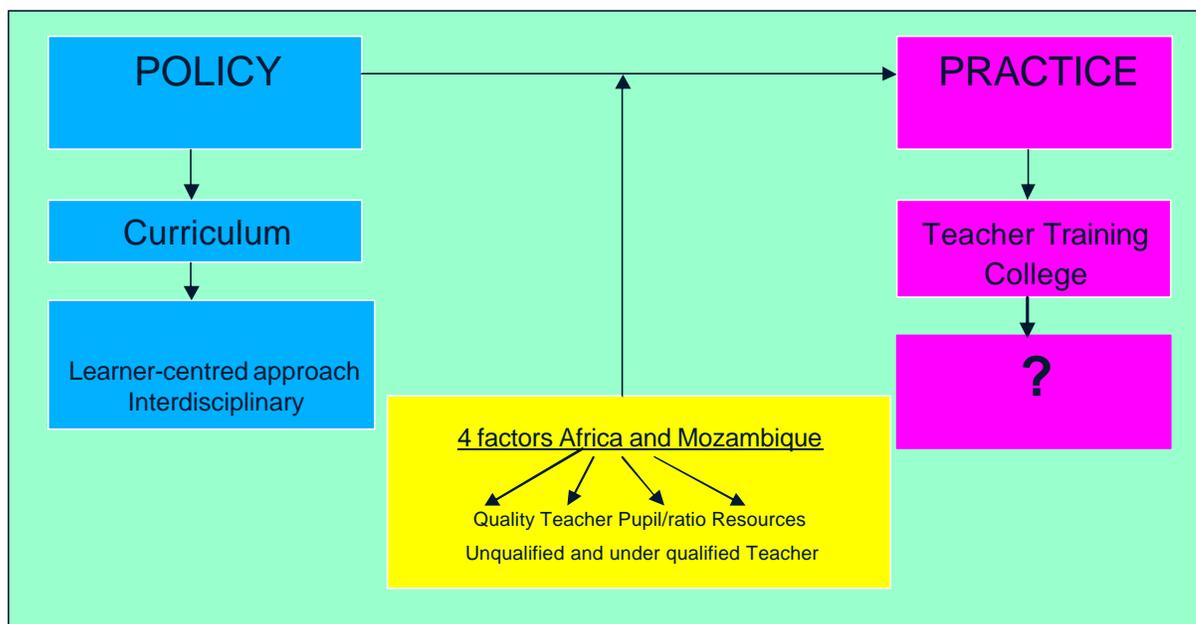
In this study I intend to explore the relationship between policy and practice at Marrere CFPP in the Mozambican context, taking into account all major problems that affect Basic Education in Mozambique in particular, and Africa in general. These problems have a negative impact on the implementation of the curriculum. As stated above, Fullan & Stiegelbauer (1991); Fullan & Hargreaves (1992) and others have written about this issue

(the problem between policy and practice). By analysing this, answers to the key research questions stated below are sought, such as:

This study intends to find out the way the theories about curriculum change have been implemented and the reason why they have been implemented in that way. It also seeks to find out the relationship between curriculum change and practice at Marrere CFPP, the extent to which the teacher training curriculum and assessment match the Basic Education curriculum and how they do so, as well as their outcomes.

According to Miles & Huberman (1994:18) “a conceptual framework explains, either graphically or in narrative form, the main things to be studied - the key factors, constructs or variables - and the presumed relationship among them.” (See scheme below).

### IMPLEMENTATION



**Figure 2.1 Thinking how the TTC prepares teachers for the basic education**

In this regard, it is intended to present the variables to be used in this study and to show through the above diagram the relationship between the new curriculum for Basic Education and the TTC.

For the explanation of the relation among the variables already identified we have resorted to the help of Cohen, Raudenbush & Ball (2000, 2002 & 2003) in their works entitled *Resources, Instruction, and Research*, in which they talk not only about the relations among variables but also about the current tendencies in the literature.

The study is about the relationship between policy and practice in African developing countries in general, and in Mozambique (Marrere CFPP) in particular; under poor conditions (unqualified, untrained and under-qualified teachers; high teacher-pupil ratio; lack of resources). This has not been done yet. In other words, the literature reviewed about policy and practice relates more to developed countries where conditions are the opposite. For instance, qualified teachers, low teacher-pupil ratio, updated books, among others.

Our conceptual framework and its variables are in the scope of the conventional term resource. Cohen, Raudenbush & Ball (2002:85) point out that "...conventional resources include teacher's formal qualifications, books, facilities, expenditures, class size, time, libraries and laboratories, and more." From the abovementioned list we identified only four, namely teachers, books, facilities and class size. As can be seen, the purpose of this conceptual framework is to guide this study showing the interdependency among the variables that are used in the research in order to answer the research questions. I would like to mention that this work has a limited number of variables compared to what the teaching and learning process involves. These four variables are the ones identified in the literature as the most striking ones in the teaching and learning process in African and Mozambican processes. Next is the relation between the variables. Cohen; Raudenbush & Ball (2003:127-8), argue that:

"Students in classes of 35 probably have less access to teachers' time and expertise than those in classes of 15. Students with outmoded texts probably have access to less substantial content than those with up-to-date books. Students in less developed nations, with uneducated teachers and few books have fewer resources than those in industrialized nations with better-educated teachers and more books."

As can be seen, the authors make a relation between the variables, namely class size, students and teacher and resources. More students per class mean that there is less chance for each learner to have the attention of the teacher. In other words, the fewer students in the classroom the more time the teacher will have to interact with each student individually. Concerning books, the more updated the books are, the better their content

will be. Finally, in developing countries, where there are many untrained teachers and few resources, students are at a disadvantage compared to those in developed countries, where teachers are highly qualified and have access to many and updated books. Having many and updated books in a class with few students and qualified teachers is likely to result in better students' performance. However, it cannot be taken for granted as if it were linear, although "education policymakers have long believed that conventional resources, i.e., books, bricks, class, and teacher qualifications, directly affect student learning and achievement. Learning is affected by how resources are used in instruction, not by their mere presence or absence" (Cohen, Raudenbush & Ball (2000:4). It means that the availability of new books in the school does not mean that students' performance will automatically improve because they have an affect when they are used properly at the right time. "Textbooks alone do not improve student learning. Books must be well used by teachers, and their use must be supported by the larger instructional system" (Cohen, Raudenbush & Ball, 2002:23). They add:

"... several decades of research suggest that relationship between resources and outcomes are not that direct. Researchers report that schools and teachers with the same resources do different things, with different results for student's learning. Resources are not self-enacting, and differences in their effects depend on differences in their use. That makes school improvement a much more complex enterprise, one that depends as much on what is done with resources as what resources are available" (Cohen, Raudenbush & Ball, 2002:80-81).

It is clear that there is no direct relationship between resources and student achievement because it depends on how the teacher leads with resources, since teachers with the same materials lead the class differently and, as a consequence, they get different outcomes on student achievement. In the last instance, learning depends on the available resources and how they are used by the teacher. Apart from this, there is another factor that could be added, which is instructional environment. For this, Cohen, Raudenbush & Ball (2002:97) state the following:

"Resource use also depends on instructional environments. Other things being equal, teachers who work in schools that focus on students' work and offer opportunities for teacher to learn how to interpret it will be better able to make sense of student's idea. Principals who structure school budgets to support instruction help to bring resources to bear on teaching and learning, and make the resources more usable."

After knowing that there is no direct correlation between the use of textbooks and student performance, it seems contradictory, when the same authors assume that “there is research evidence that the presence of textbooks affects school achievement positively. However, the dynamics and efficacy of book use in schools is not well understood” (Cohen, Raudenbush & Ball, 2002:18). Along the same lines, “teachers necessarily select from and adapt materials to suit their own students. So, good teachers do not follow textbooks, but instead make their own curriculum” (Ball & Cohen, 1996:6). In short, the value of resources is much dependent on the ways in which they are used. “Textbooks and other printed materials are expensive resources that are used far from optimally in industrialized as well as developing countries” (Multon, 1997:23). Textbooks are important for learning, yet we cannot assume that because they are available in the classroom, they are actually used. It is believed that:

“Students would not learn more if they and their teachers did not use existing personal resources more intensively. Teachers given a smaller class might not spend more time with each student; instead they might assign more seat work, have students correct their own worksheets, and do other tasks themselves” (Cohen, Raudenbush & Ball, 2002:101).

In relation to the class size, Cohen, Raudenbush & Ball, (2002:101) admit that “class size could affect learning only as teachers and students use it. Suppose that teachers in a particular state used to have fifty students in each class and taught in didactics fashion.” On the contrary, Hoxby (1998) found that “reduction of class size from a base 30 to 15 students have no effect on student achievement.” This statement shows that there is no common view about the effect of class size on student achievement. But, the positive view about class size is seen in terms of good learning and behaviour. However, “small class size does not automatically improve learning and teaching behaviour, and, in fact can lead to a more interrupted teacher-learner interaction, as children expect to have their demands met immediately” Gupta (2004:376). Greater individualization of the students in the classroom is seen as the biggest advantage of a small class size. In relation to large class, Hayes (1997:115) suggests that “if you have to teach in large classes, the first important thing you have to do is finding some students who can help you. This is a good thing because students can practice more and they can help you.” This opinion or conclusion shows that teachers as the main agent of the teaching and learning process, whatever qualification they might have, cannot by their own improve the student’s performance. In

this case, they need the best learners in the class to help them in the teaching and learning process. Robbie et al. (1998:3) say that “no one knows what the optimal class size is.”

As can be seen from the above, there is no unanimity of opinion concerning the direct relation between availability of books and the learner’s performance, as well as between class size and learner’s performance in the classroom. For the variables to have the desired effect there is one factor that cannot be ignored : that is the teacher. Jusuf (2005:1) points out that “research shows that teachers are the single most important factor in student learning in schools. Students who have access to highly qualified teachers achieve at a higher rate, regardless of other factors such as class size, resources (books and textbooks), and so on.”

The new curriculum for Basic Education influences the teaching learning process at the teacher’s training education directly or indirectly. This influence is possible through the innovations made in the curriculum, particularly in the strategies and methods adopted in order to make the teaching and learning process more effective as well as the content to be taught at primary school level, and the context in which this process takes place. The whole process of teaching and training must reflect the context in which the trainees will teach, in terms of content, methods and support material (curriculum plan for Basic Education, primary school programmes and books, etc). In this regard, the TTC must reorganise and create all the necessary conditions in order to meet the demands of the new curriculum for Basic Education. Prior to that, the involvement and commitment of all trainers is crucial for the implementation of the new curriculum. Experience is another factor that plays a significant role in this process. Interaction among trainers at different levels is also important to allow for the sharing of ideas on related issues. Interaction between the director and the trainers is equally important. Likewise, the school library must contain the relevant materials, like a variety of instructional materials related to the new curriculum. These could help to motivate trainees and assist them in gaining an understanding of their mission and in getting acquainted with the new curriculum for Basic Education.

The diagram above shows the policy on the left side and practice on the right side. The policy represents the new curriculum for Basic Education introduced in 2004 in Mozambique, with the emphasis on a learner-centred approach as one of the key

innovations, while the practice is represented by Marrere CFPP, where the researcher looked at how the policy is implemented in practice in the classroom. Between policy and practice there is implementation, the effectiveness of which can be jeopardised by barriers. In this study variables such as teachers, class size, facilities and learning conditions, which can have a negative effect on the quality of education, were considered. The Government of Mozambique, through the Education Sector Strategic Plan (1999-2003), has identified the improvement of the quality of education as one of the highest priorities, among others. In the Mozambican context, the variables mentioned above are still prevalent and are dependent upon each other. The absence of any of them affects the whole picture. This means that if, for example, teachers do not have adequate training, in both content and pedagogy, the learning and teaching process can collapse, even with better class size and good didactic materials. Class size can also affect the teaching and learning process even with qualified teachers and better facilities and learning conditions. In the last instance the teacher is a key determinant for a more effective teaching and learning process. More than ever, students depend on qualified teachers for their academic success and future prospects (CFE, 2001). Research shows that teacher quality is the most important school-based factor in determining student success (Darling-Hammond et al., 1999). In addition, only teachers who have both knowledge of their content areas and are extremely skilful in a wide range of teaching methods can respond appropriately to diverse student needs (Darling-Hammond et al., 1999).

After all the discussion, we have seen that those variables are interdependent upon each other, although eventually the teacher continues to be the key agent of change of everything in the real classroom and of improvement of students' achievement.

There is a difference between expected and actual findings that can include surprises. It means that successful implementation of basic education curriculum (learner-centred approach, interdisciplinary) by the teacher trainers from Marrere CFPP was expected. However, the findings reveal that teacher trainers still lack the most basics resources as well as basic training in order to achieve the curriculum objectives. Teacher trainers still teach in old ways, i.e., the teacher dominates the lesson in the classroom. This process is characterised by questions and answers. And learners do not perform well.

## 2.5 SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

The first part of this chapter looks at relevant literature about education policy implementation in general, especially in developing countries. Most educational reforms seem to improve the educational system in general, but at micro-level, in the classroom, they are not effective. The literature review sheds light on the nature of the disjuncture between policy and practice.

The second part of this chapter has identified four problems (low quality of education and curriculum, under-qualified, unqualified and untrained teachers, the teacher-learner ratio and lack of facilities and teaching resources) which affect basic education as well as the process of policy implementation in Africa in general, and in Mozambique in particular. The impact of the identified factors on education depends on the educational context of each country.

The problem of policy implementation is not new; early scholars have attempted to understand the problem of policy implementation through research. Research suggests that policy intentions seldom determine classroom practice. Once policy has been formalised, it should be put into practice in the classroom. The literature review shows that the gap between policy and practice is still a major concern. The main problem of policy and practice is policy implementation. The purpose of implementing new policies in education is often associated with a need to effect new changes. Therefore there is an assumed direct link between policy implementation and change. Change is non-linear and complex.

There are two dominating theoretical traditions of implementation in policy, namely a top-down and bottom-up perspective. Top-down underlines the linear relationship between policy and practice (policy process as hierarchical and linear), while a bottom-up perspective assumes that the demarcation between policy decision and implementation is unclear. The relationship between policy and practice is not a linear, rational and predictable process. On the contrary, research has demonstrated that relying exclusively on either a bottom-up or a top-down approach to change is ineffective; successful reform demands a combination of these approaches.



Success or failure is determined by the interaction between policy and practice. In general, failure of policy implementation is due to badly designed policy and schools unprepared to implement such policies. However, in developing countries failure of policy implementation is attributed mainly to economic reasons (Malen & Knapp, 1997).

The next chapter is devoted to the methodology and conceptual framework of the study.