



**LISTENING TO TEACHERS**  
THE MOTIVATION AND MORALE OF  
EDUCATION WORKERS  
IN MOZAMBIQUE

**DFID** Department for  
International  
Development

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Sharing skills  
Changing lives

 **VALUING teachers**



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## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This report would not have been possible without the help and support of a large number of people. The research team would like to thank all the officials from the Ministry of Education and Culture, the members of the education donors group, the Movement for Education for All, the National Organisation of Teachers and all the other organisations and individuals who gave invaluable support in setting up the research itinerary, identifying participants and providing information and sources. Thanks to all the programme staff, administrative staff and volunteers of VSO Mozambique for their logistical support and encouragement. Thanks also to the members of VSO International who have been involved in the different stages of this research. The different individuals who have supported the research process are too many to name. However, it would be impossible not to mention two of them. Thanks in particular to Paul Wafer of DFID Mozambique for the clarity of his vision and analysis and to Eric Mamboue, country director of VSO Mozambique, for his tireless and enthusiastic commitment to this project and support of the research team throughout.

Above all, we thank all the teachers and head teachers who so warmly welcomed us into their schools and gave up their time to participate in focus groups and interviews, showing enormous flexibility in the face of our complicated travel schedule. We are also grateful to all the other research participants who found time in their busy timetables to talk to and work with us.

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Cover photo: © VSO / Roy Marsh

The views expressed in this report are representative of individuals who participated in the research and may not necessarily reflect the views of VSO Mozambique, VSO International or DFID Mozambique.

## ACRONYMS

ADPP Mozambique	A member of the International Movement Humana People to People
ANFP	Autoridade Nacional da Função Pública (National Civil Service Authority)
BETUZ	Basic Education Teachers' Union of Zambia
CRESCER	Cursos de Reforço Escolar: Sistemáticos, Contínuos, Experimentais e Reflexivos (system of continuous professional development for teachers)
CSO	Civil society organisation
DFID	Department for International Development, UK
DPEC	Direcção Provincial de Educação e Cultura (Provincial Directorate of Education and Culture)
EP1	Ensino Primário do 1º Grau (Primary Education 1st level)
EP2	Ensino Primário do 2º Grau (Primary Education 2nd level)
ESG1	Ensino Secundário Geral do 1º Ciclo (Secondary Education 1st level)
ESG2	Ensino Secundário Geral do 2º Ciclo (Secondary Education 2nd level)
FASE	Fundo de Apoio ao Sector da Educação (Fund of Support to the Education Sector)
FAWE	Forum for African Women Educationalists
FAWEMO	Forum for African Women Educationalists, Mozambique section
FRELIMO	Frente de Libertação de Moçambique (Front for the Liberation of Mozambique)
GCE	Global Campaign for Education
IMF	International Monetary Fund
MEC	Ministério da Educação e Cultura (Ministry of Education and Culture)
MEPT	Movimento de Educação Para Todos (Mozambican Movement for Education for All)
ONP	Organização Nacional dos Professores (National Organisation of Teachers)
PEE1/ESSP1	Plano Estratégico da Educação 1, 1999–2003 (First Education Strategic Plan)
PEEC2/ESSP2	Plano Estratégico da Educação e Cultura 2, 2006–11 (Second Strategic Plan for Education and Culture)
PQTR	Ratio of pupils to qualified teachers
PRGF	Poverty Reduction and Growth Facility
PTR	Pupil–teacher ratio
RENAMO	Resistência Nacional de Moçambique (Mozambican National Resistance)
SDEJT	Serviço Distrital de Educação, Juventude e Tecnologia (District Office for Education, Youth and Technology)
START	Simple Toolkit for Advocacy Research Techniques
TLMs	Teaching and learning materials
UP	Universidade Pedagógica (Pedagogical University, the main secondary teacher training institution)
UDEBA	Unity for the Development of Basic Education
UTRESP	Unidade Técnica da Reforma do Sector Pública (Technical Unit for Public Sector Reform)
ZIPs	Zonas de Influência Pedagógica (school cluster zones)

## EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

There is growing awareness in Mozambique of the need for a motivated public sector workforce to provide good quality public services. The current public sector reform process recognises the need to increase the motivation of public sector workers and is committed to reforming human resources management and salary policy. However, there is little existing evidence of what motivates or demotivates public sector workers. Many of these workers are employed within the education system, either as teachers or in other roles. This report investigates the morale and motivation of education workers and identifies the factors that affect them. The present education system grew out of the emergency measures adopted after independence to develop a national system of education, drawing on large quantities of commitment but very limited resources and few trained teachers. Although great progress has been made since those days, many challenges remain.

The research, which examines data from focus groups, interviews and questionnaires, finds that education workers are committed to their profession and wish to continue in it. However, they are worn down and demoralised by a wide range of factors that prevent them from doing their job as they would like. Other factors contribute positively to teachers' feelings about their working lives. The different factors that affect teachers' motivation and morale are classified and analysed within a framework that divides them into 10 themes within three large groups: organisational and institutional factors; social and community factors; and personal factors. The research also considers three cross-cutting themes: location (urban/rural), gender and regional and ethnic factors.

This report considers the policy context and analyses the participants' feelings about each of the issues identified, besides presenting a number of recommendations for action and policy reform proposed by the participants themselves. It also presents teachers' ranking of the different issues in terms of their perceived degree of impact on their motivation. It finds that teachers considered salary level to be the issue that has the most impact on their motivation and morale, followed by material working conditions, then training, then the administrative procedures that determine education workers' official status and salary level. These issues are all discussed and analysed in detail within the context of current education policy and the views and experiences of teachers and other research participants. The report includes the points of view of education stakeholders from all levels of the education system: teachers, head teachers, district and provincial education officials, senior officials from the Ministry of Education and Culture and other government bodies, representatives of civil society, non-governmental organisations and international non-governmental organisations, and bilateral and multilateral education partners.

The picture that emerges is one of both enormous potential and great challenges. Teachers and other education workers are committed to the developing education system and to educating the citizens and workers that Mozambique so badly needs. However, the quality of that education is severely threatened by the conditions in which teachers have to live and work and by the debilitating effect these are having on their performance, well-being and sense of professional pride. The goals to achieve good quality education for all, and to meet the needs of the fast-evolving economy and labour market, will only be achieved if the needs of education workers are addressed as a matter of priority.

## SUMMARY OF RECOMMENDATIONS

The recommendations in this report were all generated by the research process and emerged from the contributions of the various research participants. Detailed recommendations are given after the discussion of each issue in section 3. A table presenting all the recommendations made by participants and identifying the different stakeholders concerned is given at the end of section 4.

Many of the recommendations concern issues that are already part of the government of Mozambique's strategic plan for education. The fact that they continue to be made is a reflection of the fact that, although progress is being made in many areas, there is still a considerable way to go. It also reflects a gap, in some cases, between policy as set down on paper and the capacity to communicate and implement that policy. The current strategic plan for the education sector reflects a detailed awareness of the different challenges facing the education system and the efforts needed to overcome them. Implementation depends on systems, people and infrastructure, many of which are still not ready for the task. Improving capacity at these levels within the system is a prerequisite to implementing the other recommendations, which are summarised here:

1. Simplify systems and procedures relating to recruitment, deployment, promotion and payment of education workers, making them more rapid, efficient and transparent.
2. Increase and improve specific training for workers at all levels of the system: teachers, head teachers and deputy heads, district, provincial and national officials and administrators.
3. Improve planning, systems and procedures at all levels, in conjunction with training.
4. Improve communications throughout the education system so that actors at all levels are aware of education policy, understand their role in implementing it and can make their views heard.
5. Continue to invest in improving infrastructure, equipment and materials, with maximal community involvement in the process.
6. Investigate creative and realistic ways of giving education workers access to acceptable salaries, accommodation, healthcare, transport and other facilities.
7. Policy makers and donors continue to work together to ensure costed mid-term and long-term strategic planning is possible.
8. Improve systems to ensure allocated funds are available as needed through improved communication between ministries and government departments.
9. Promote the participation of teachers and other education workers in policy discussion by creating consultation mechanisms and encouraging the development of civil society.
10. Promote increased community and civil society involvement in education overall and in specific areas such as gender awareness.

# 1 INTRODUCTION

**“Well-trained and motivated teachers are essential to good quality education”**

(MEC, 2006: 43).

The importance of a motivated workforce to providing good quality services is now widely understood, and the role of teacher motivation in delivering good quality education has received increasing recognition over recent years. In many countries, employment policy in general and education employment policy in particular have long taken into account the need to motivate teachers and other workers. One way of achieving this is to allow those workers to contribute to policy formulation, through consultation on those issues that affect their professional lives. In many other countries, listening to workers’ views has not traditionally been part of the policy making process. This is the case in Mozambique.

There are a number of reasons why it is important today to hear and to take into account the views of Mozambican teachers, if teachers’ motivation and morale are to be improved<sup>1</sup>. The first of these concerns the recent history of the national education system and the context out of which this grew. Mozambique moved quickly from an elitist education system to developing a system of mass education after gaining independence, resulting in the recruitment of large numbers of untrained and often minimally educated teachers. As one of the world’s poorest countries, which still bears many of the traces of the pre-independence war of liberation and the 17-year post-independence war of destabilisation, Mozambique’s education system has for years been under funded and under resourced. Today, Mozambique’s commitment to the Education for All and the Millennium Development Goals means that there is a drive towards ensuring that by 2015 all children are able to complete seven years of primary education, which is putting severe strains on the education system. Finally, there is currently a growing awareness of the overall need for public sector reform in order to increase worker motivation and improve public services. In this context, it appeared important to investigate the factors surrounding teachers’ motivation and to incorporate the voices and opinions of education workers themselves into education policy decisions. The present study was commissioned as part of that process.

VSO, which has worked in education for almost 50 years in over 20 developing countries, has identified a tendency to ignore the opinions of teachers during the processes of education policy planning and decision making **“Yet it is the teachers’ responsibility to implement and work towards the success of these plans”** (VSO, 2007: 10). VSO has developed a project called Valuing Teachers, which includes carrying out participative qualitative research into teachers’ motivation and morale, in an attempt to improve the quality of education overall. This research has currently been conducted in 13 countries and is continuing to be used in others<sup>2</sup>.

VSO has been working in education in Mozambique for over ten years, first through volunteers based in secondary schools, and more recently within teacher training institutions and within the Ministry of Education at the provincial and national levels. VSO Mozambique also works with the Mozambican Movement for Education for All (MEPT) and has recently been developing links with other education civil society movements, such as the teachers’ union ONP.

DFID Mozambique actively supports the current public sector reform process and provides support to different professional sectors, including education. It is in the context described above that, at the end of 2006, DFID approached VSO to ask them to carry out a study of education workers’ motivation and morale in Mozambique, based on the methodology used in the Valuing Teachers project.

1. These reasons are developed in more detail in the next chapter, which examines the education context in Mozambique.
2. Valuing Teachers research has been undertaken in Cambodia, Ethiopia, The Gambia, Guyana, Malawi, the Maldives, Nepal, Nigeria, Pakistan, Papua New Guinea, Rwanda and Zambia. Further research is planned in Cameroon, China and Ghana.

## 1.1 EDUCATION CONTEXT IN MOZAMBIQUE

### 1.1.1 EDUCATION IN THE CONTEXT OF THE RECENT HISTORY OF MOZAMBIQUE

When the Republic of Mozambique was born on 25 June 1975, the new country inherited a challenging legacy from the colonial past, and not least so in the area of education. Under the Portuguese regime, only seven per cent of Mozambicans had access to schooling, and therefore literacy. At independence, much of the Portuguese population left the country, causing an acute skills shortage. Among those who left were many of the country's teachers.

FRELIMO, the Front for the Liberation of Mozambique, which formed in 1964 to pursue an armed struggle for national independence, regarded education as a right for all people and an essential part of the fight for liberation. FRELIMO set up a network of 'bush schools' and by 1974, **"more than 20 000 children were enrolled in the four-year primary school programme in the various provinces"** (Education Encyclopedia State University, URL). After independence, when FRELIMO formed the first government of the new nation, the development of a mass education system continued, despite an acute shortage of teachers and infrastructure. Mozambicans who had completed some primary schooling were recruited to teach up to the same level. The Mozambican flag, which dates from this time, carries an AK-47 and a hoe crossed over a book, reflecting the perception of the importance of education to the development of independent Mozambique.

Soon after independence, the rebel resistance movement RENAMO, supported by the white-ruled regimes of South Africa and Southern Rhodesia (now Zimbabwe), began a 17-year war of destabilisation, which devastated the economy and much of the countryside and left up to a million Mozambicans dead. Many school buildings were destroyed, and the development of the emerging mass education system was severely disrupted, as teachers and pupils were displaced by fighting. Peace finally arrived in 1992, and the first multi-party elections were held in 1994 and won by FRELIMO. In spite of the difficulties of developing an education system in this context, the efforts to extend access to education continued throughout the war and afterwards; **"the literacy rate rose from 7% in 1975 to 39.5% in 1999, as a corollary of mass access to education"** (Mozambique Human Development Report 2000, URL).

### 1.1.2 CURRENT STRATEGIC PLAN FOR THE MINISTRY OF EDUCATION AND CULTURE (MEC)

The challenges of developing a mass education system in what was then ranked as the world's poorest country (DFID, 2007: 2), emerging from 17 years of conflict, were considerable. The 1995 National Education Policy, then the first Strategic Plan for Education, for the period 1999–2005, ambitiously aimed to achieve:

- the expansion of access to education
- the improvement of the quality of education
- the strengthening of the institutional, financial and political capacity so as to ensure the sustainability of the system (MEC, 2006: 5).

The second and current Education Sector Strategic Plan (PEEC2/ESSP2) of the Ministry of Education and Culture, for the period 2006–11, seeks to continue to build on these objectives and, in addition, to **"increase efforts to develop technical/professional and vocational education, secondary education with a professional orientation and higher education"** (MEC, 2006: 5).

However, PEEC2/ESSP2 emphasises as a priority the target of ensuring every Mozambican child completes seven years of primary education by 2015, reflecting the government's commitment to the Education for All/Fast Track Initiative and the Millennium Development Goals.

### 1.1.3 CURRENT REFORM OF THE PUBLIC SECTOR

PEEC2/ESSP2 also reflects the Mozambican government's wider strategy of public sector reform, addressing the three themes of decentralisation, improved management and administrative structures, and the strengthening of capacity at all levels. In 2001, Mozambique embarked on a 10 year programme to reform the cumbersome, inefficient and often corrupt public sector. The main objectives of this reform involve restructuring and decentralising government structures to enhance efficiency; improving and simplifying service delivery procedures; building the capacity of public servants; integrating planning and budgeting processes; and developing **"a culture of transparency and accountability of public service free from corruption"** (Natividade, 2006: 5). The second and current phase of the government of Mozambique's public sector reform programme emphasises the need for reforms in public sector pay and broader human resource management. There is also an awareness of the need to address the question of motivation among public sector workers as part of the drive to improve services overall. Since, in Mozambique, a large number of public sector workers are employed within the education system, addressing the motivation of teachers is a crucial part of the overall reform process.

## 1.2 SCHOOL SYSTEM

The Ministry of Education and Culture is based in the capital city, Maputo. Each of the country's 11 provinces has a Provincial Directorate of Education and Culture (DPEC) situated in the provincial capital. The provinces are divided into a number of districts, each of which has a District Office for Education, Youth and Technology (SDEJT). The Mozambican education system has traditionally been highly centralised around the Ministry, the provincial and district levels simply implementing policy and directives emanating from the centre. The current plan to decentralise the education system will eventually give more autonomy to the district and provincial levels.

Since 1993, children have entered primary school at the age of six. Primary education in Mozambique is divided into: first-level primary education (EP1), which includes grades 1–5, and second-level primary education (EP2), covering grades 6–7. Primary education is now free and compulsory, although, in reality, an enrolment rate of 80 per cent means a million children of primary school age still do not attend school (DFID, 2007: 1). By 2005, there were 8,696 EP1 schools, and 1,320 EP2 schools throughout the country (MEC, URL).

Secondary education comprises five grades in two cycles: first cycle of secondary education (ESG1: grades 8–10) and the second, pre-university cycle of secondary education (ESG2: grades 11–12). In 2005, Mozambique had a total of 156 ESG1 schools and 35 ESG2 schools (MEC, URL). There are also a small number of technical and industrial secondary schools.

Most schools are public, although there is a small but significant private sector, mostly run by religious organisations.

Due to a shortage of schools and teachers, most schools function in shifts, with two, three and in some cases four shifts operating within each school, meaning that the school day is short for most pupils. Many adolescents and adults, who either did not go to or did not complete school when they were children, attend night-shift classes, often until 10pm. It is not unusual for adults who work in the public sector by day to be studying to complete their primary education in the evenings.

### 1.3 EDUCATION STATISTICS

Significant progress has been made on enrolment rates in recent years, with primary school enrolment now at over 80 per cent (see Table 2). Gross admission and enrolment rates of well over 100 per cent reveal that many of those enrolled are older than the target age for a particular class (see Table 2).

	PUBLIC		PRIVATE		GRAND TOTAL		% GIRLS
	Total	Girls	Total	Girls	Total	Girls	
EP1	3,393,677 (1,876,154)	1,572,276 (788,049)	77,463 (34,035)	36,709 (15,527)	3,471,140 (1,910,189)	1,608 985 (803,576)	46.4 (42.1)
EP2	452,888 (168,777)	184,786 (68,230)	16,705 (11,330)	8,107 (5,302)	469,593 (180,107)	192,893 (73532)	41.1 (40.8)
ESG1	210,128 (53,693)	86,590 (21,616)	37,659 (10,094)	17,589 (5,171)	247,787 (63,787)	104,179 (26,787)	42.0 (42.0)
ESG2	25,737 (7,352)	9,736 (2,854)	7,066 (2,133)	3,486 (1,043)	32,803 (9,485)	13,222 (3,897)	40.3 (41.1)

**Table 1: Enrolment per level of education by sex in 2005 (1998 figures in brackets)**

GROSS ADMISSION RATE			GROSS ENROLMENT RATE			NET ENROLMENT RATE		
Total	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls
160.6 (91.3)	165.0 (100.9)	156.1 (81.8)	131.1 (79.1)	140.1 (91.8)	122.5 (66.6)	83.4 (45.5)	85.6 (50.1)	81.2 (40.8)

**Table 2: 2005 gross admission and gross and net enrolment rates in primary first level (EP1) – public and private (1998 figures in brackets)**

However drop-out rates are high: in 2005, only 49.5 per cent of girls and 66 per cent of boys finished EP1, and only 28 per cent of girls and 40 per cent of boys completed EP2. The Ministry of Education and Culture (MEC) has set targets of 74 per cent completion of EP2 by 2010, and 87 per cent by 2015, with complete parity between girls and boys. The target of 100 per cent completion of primary education is only expected to be achieved by 2017 at the earliest, based on current enrolment projections (MEC, 2007: 1). The figures for completion of secondary school are much lower: just 4.5 per cent of girls and 9 per cent of boys complete ESG1, while less than one per cent of girls and two per cent of boys finish ESG2 (see Table 3).

COMPLETION OF EP1			COMPLETION OF EP2			COMPLETION OF ESG1			COMPLETION OF ESG2		
Total	Girls	Boys	Total	Girls	Boys	Total	Girls	Boys	Total	Girls	Boys
58.0 (23.8)	49.5 (17.9)	66.4 (29.7)	33.7 (10.2)	28.2 (7.8)	40.2 (12.6)	7.4 (1.5)	4.5 (1.1)	9.3 (1.9)	1.4 (0.5)	0.9 (0.3)	1.9 (0.6)

**Table 3: 2005 completion rates per level of education (1998 figures in brackets)**

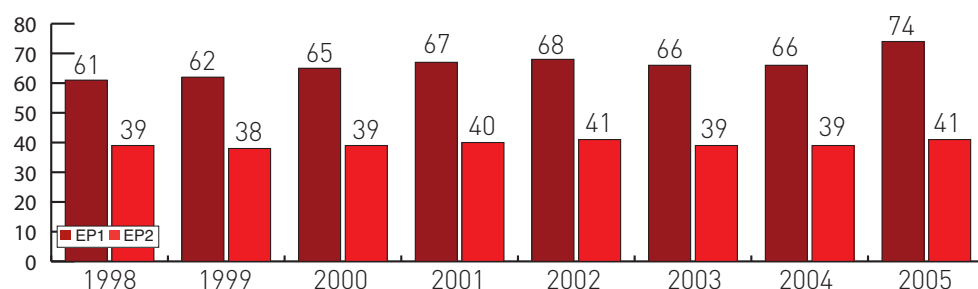
There is a serious shortage of teachers, particularly female teachers. Due to the existence of three different government databases containing contradictory information, it is unclear exactly how many teachers are employed in Mozambique. A census of public sector workers is being carried out at the time of writing, which should clarify this question. However PEEC2/ESSP2 gives the total number of public sector primary teachers in 2005 as 60,000 and public sector secondary teachers as under 8,000. Thirty-eight per cent of these are estimated to be untrained (ActionAid, 2007: 7).

Just over 30 per cent of EP1 teachers are female. Fewer than 25 per cent of EP2 teachers, and fewer than 20 per cent of secondary teachers, are female (see Table 4).

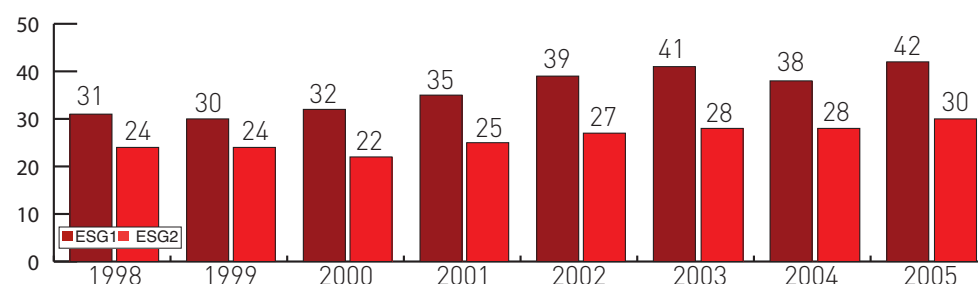
EP1 TEACHERS			EP2 TEACHERS			ESG1 TEACHERS			ESG2 TEACHERS		
Total	Female	%Female	Total	Female	%Female	Total	Female	%Female	Total	Female	%Female
45,887 (30,513)	14,378 (7,352)	31.3 (24.0)	11,011 (4,356)	2,564 (804)	23.3 (18.5)	5,004 (1,742)	842 (235)	16.8 (13.5)	861 (303)	158 (59)	18.4 (19.5)

**Table 4: 2005 numbers of teachers by gender in public education (1998 figures in brackets)**

The shortage of teachers and the progress in pupil enrolments means that pupil–teacher ratios (PTRs) are high, and rising (see Figures 1 and 2).



**Figure 1: Pupil–teacher ratios in primary education, 1998–2005 (MEC, URL).**



**Figure 2: Pupil–teacher ratios in secondary education, 1998–2005 (MEC, URL).**

The PTR for EP1 was 72 in 2006, up from 61 in 1998. The Ministry of Education and Culture targets would bring this down to 64 by 2010 and to 54 by 2015 for EP1, and for EP2 to 43 by 2010 and to 36 by 2015. These targets will only be met if the Ministry is able to recruit and train large numbers of teachers every year until 2015.

## 1.4 EDUCATION FINANCING

In 2006, Mozambique spent 17.4 per cent of its total national budget on education. This figure is expected to be 17.9 per cent in 2007 (6 per cent of GDP) and, if present trends continue, to rise to 19.2 per cent in 2010, reaching 20 per cent in 2015 (6.5 per cent of GDP). The education budget for 2006 was US\$417 million. This is set to rise substantially in 2007 to US\$521 million and to continue to increase annually, if the necessary donor support is forthcoming, reaching US\$647 million in 2010 (MEC, 2007: 3). Seventy per cent of the education budget is financed by the national budget (around 54 per cent of which is supported through direct budget support from donors), with 30 per cent being financed through external sources (ActionAid, 2007: 8). Despite the priority given to education by the government, and proposed measures of more efficient use of resources, the estimated costs of the strategic plan are higher than the total resources available to education on a yearly basis. Because of donors' ongoing commitment to Mozambique and the current context of overall growth and stability, donors have, in recent years, stepped in to fill this gap. However, the absence of an explicit long-term commitment makes long-term planning problematic, so that the Ministry is prudent when it comes to making long-term commitments such as hiring additional teachers.

The public sector wage bill, which includes teachers' salaries, accounts for 50 per cent of recurrent expenditure. Teachers' salaries account for 35 per cent of the wage bill. Although, following negotiations with the International Monetary Fund (IMF), there is no longer a wage cap in operation, the direct wage bill ceiling is currently set at 7.5 per cent of GDP, since **"stringency within the budget means that the government has continued to set a tight wage bill ceiling and even more restrictive monetary and fiscal targets"** (ActionAid, 2007: 10).

## 1.5 CIVIL SOCIETY AND EDUCATION

Until recently, the idea of an active civil society promoting citizens' interests from the grass roots was not very familiar in Mozambique. Traditionally, such concerns have been addressed in a more 'top-down' manner, rather than initiatives emanating from the base. Professional organisations were sponsored by FRELIMO, the ruling party, rather than being trade unions with a mandate to express workers' voices. This was true in education as in other sectors. Recently, however, there has been a move away from the former centralising tendencies and Mozambique is seeing the emergence of an embryonic civil society.

The professional organisation that represents teachers is the ONP (National Organisation of Teachers). Like other professional organisations in Mozambique, the ONP was created by FRELIMO in 1981 and was a product of the ideology of that period. The stated objectives were to unite teachers in one organisation so that, in a unified and organised manner, teachers could:

- accomplish the historic mission of educating and training the new man
- dignify their profession by their behaviour and their example
- be proud to be teachers and protect their career and their rights (ONP, 2006: 4).

The ONP was weakened by the post-independence war, as teachers and the leaders of the organisation went into exile, were displaced, kidnapped or killed. However, in 1990, teachers decided to go on strike to highlight problems in three areas of teachers' lives: salaries, housing and study grants. The first congress of the ONP in 1998 decided to transform the ONP from a 'socio-professional' organisation into a union, changing its name to ONP/SNPM (Organização Nacional dos Professores/Sindicato Nacional dos Professores de Moçambique), with the stated objective of **"protecting the interests of the teaching class"** (ONP, 2006: 17). The slogan 'intervir para mudar' (intervene for change), adopted at the second congress in 2005, reflected an intention to change to a more dynamic or powerful organisation.

MEPT, the Mozambican Movement for Education for All, grew out of the 2000 Dakar conference and is steadily consolidating a network of national and regional groups and organisations working in education. MEPT, which has three full-time workers (including a VSO volunteer), has recently commissioned a research project into the use of funds donated to the Ministry of Education and Culture, and is also working on promoting associations of parents and guardians, raising awareness of the importance of their role in education and in society. The principle has now been accepted that civil society, represented by MEPT, should take part in education policy development and in meetings between donors and MEC. In such meetings, MEPT contributes an expression of the real needs in the education sector in Mozambique. MEPT also works with other civil society organisations to build up a nationwide network of groups that can act as provincial and district level focal points, to create links between education stakeholders. Today, all the 10 provinces of Mozambique are covered, although two provinces (Tete and Inhambane) are still weak. In contrast, there is a strong presence in Zambezia, where five districts have organisations that are members of MEPT.

One example of the emerging Mozambican civil society is FAWEMO, the Mozambican branch of the Forum for African Women Educationalists, which was created in 1999 and is a member of MEPT. FAWEMO works closely with the pan-African mother organisation FAWA to promote girls' rights and education. In Mozambique, their activities include creating girls' clubs, giving girls study grants, promoting HIV & AIDS awareness and encouraging girls to study science subjects at school.

## 2 RESEARCH

### 2.1 OBJECTIVES

The objectives of the research were:

1. to investigate the numbers, qualifications, skill levels and motivation of frontline education workers through a review of the literature and by consultation with a wide range of education stakeholders
2. to give education workers and their representatives a chance to articulate issues that affect their professions and to have these documented
3. to assess the motivation and the durability of education workers' commitment to delivering a quality service
4. to examine the interrelations between the remuneration and professional support needs of teachers and their relationships with the wider society
5. to identify the perceptions and policy prescriptions of government officials with regard to human resources reform (especially with regard to deployment, motivation, pay, incentives etc) in order to compare these with the views of education workers
6. to make policy recommendations about reforms intended to boost motivation, morale and status and thus improve quality of service.

### 2.2 METHODOLOGY

The methodology used was based on the participative qualitative approach developed by VSO (2005) in its Simple Toolkit for Advocacy Research Techniques, hereafter referred to as START, and adapted to the context. The data was gathered using a combination of focus groups, individual interviews and questionnaires. It was felt that the triangulation provided by this multi-method approach would help to ensure the reliability and credibility of the findings.

#### 2.2.1 PARTICIPANTS

The START methodology considers participants in three categories:

1. primary education stakeholders: those who are currently mainly affected by the policy issue
2. secondary education stakeholders: those who both affect and are affected by the policy
3. tertiary education stakeholders: those who are affecting the policy. (VSO, 2005: 18)

Data was collected from the following participants:

1. primary stakeholders: teachers, trainee teachers, grade 10 secondary pupils, teachers who have left the profession, retired teachers
2. secondary stakeholders: head teachers, district level directors of education, district level education advisors, provincial level heads of human resources
3. tertiary stakeholders: high-level officials from MEC, other government officials responsible for public sector reform, representatives of non-governmental organisations (NGOs) and international non-governmental organisations (INGOs), civil society, bilateral and multilateral education donors and international organisations.

#### 2.2.2 DATA COLLECTION METHODS

Focus groups were used to collect data from primary stakeholders. The focus group has the advantage of collecting data from a number of participants at once and, when possible, of creating a relaxed atmosphere in which participants are able to speak openly and in confidence in an informal setting. Focus groups are not widely known or used in Mozambique and it was necessary both to adapt the process to the Mozambican cultural context and to explain it very clearly to the participants. The groups were facilitated by Mozambicans who were sensitive to cultural norms of communication, spoke Mozambican Portuguese and had received careful training in facilitation methods adapted to the Mozambican context.

All focus group participants filled in a detailed questionnaire following the focus group, designed to capture information about their professional status and history and about their motivation (see Appendix 2). For logistical and cultural reasons, data was collected from secondary and tertiary stakeholders using individual interviews.

## 2.2.3 APPROACH TO SAMPLING, SELECTION, DATA GATHERING AND ANALYSIS

Thirty focus groups were conducted with teachers. These were carefully balanced in terms of geographical region (north, centre and south), level of school (primary and secondary, including technical and vocational), location of school (urban and rural) and gender of teachers. The research team travelled throughout the three regions, conducting focus groups in schools in seven of the 11 provinces of Mozambique. The sample was planned so that at least eight focus groups were conducted in each region, in two or three different provinces of each region, with a balance between primary and secondary schools. There was also a balance between rural and urban schools, and care was taken to include some very remote rural schools. All the focus groups were single sex: in each school, a focus group of female teachers was facilitated by a female researcher and a group of male teachers by a male researcher. As far as was possible, the groups contained a balance of qualified and unqualified teachers, and of teachers with varying amounts of teaching experience and of different ages.

Focus groups were also held with trainee teachers, grade 10 secondary pupils (this is the stage at which pupils may opt to become teachers), teachers who have left the profession, and retired teachers.

In each province visited, individual interviews were held with district and provincial education officials and with representatives of civil society. VSO volunteers working in education were also interviewed. Individual interviews were conducted in Maputo with various tertiary stakeholders (high-level officials from MEC, other government officials responsible for public sector reform, representatives of NGOs and INGOs, civil society, bilateral and multilateral education donors and international organisations)<sup>3</sup>.

Once consent had been obtained, the focus groups and individual interviews were recorded on a digital voice recorder. The focus groups yielded around 70 hours of recorded data; the individual interviews a further 70 hours. These were then transcribed.

The transcriptions were analysed using a method known as 'template analysis', which allows for the thematic analysis of qualitative data.<sup>4</sup> A database was developed for this purpose using the Microsoft Office Access program.

The preliminary results were presented to a sample of the participants during a series of stakeholder workshops, one composed of teachers, one of secondary stakeholders, and one of tertiary stakeholders. The purpose of these workshops was to validate the findings and to generate recommendations. After receiving a presentation of the initial results, the participants took part in a focus group discussion. During this, they had the opportunity to give their reactions to the findings and suggest adjustments and then to make concrete recommendations of actions to address the different factors identified as affecting education workers' motivation.

Three cross-cutting themes: location (rural/urban), gender, and region and ethnicity were identified as being potentially of interest, and both the data collection and the analysis processes were designed to take these into account.

## 2.2.4 PROJECT NARRATIVE

The project followed the following timeline:

- planning: late 2006–January 2007
- recruiting and training research team: February 2007
- planning research itinerary and developing research tools: March 2007
- data gathering fieldwork: April–May 2007
- analysis and validation of initial findings in stakeholder workshops: June 2007
- final analysis and preparation of final report: June–July 2007.

3. For a list of focus groups and interviews conducted, and a breakdown of the focus group participants, see Appendix 1.
4. Template analysis involves the development of a coding 'template', which summarises themes identified by the researcher(s) as important in a data set, and organises them in a meaningful and useful manner. For more information, see [www.hud.ac.uk/hs/research/template\\_analysis/](http://www.hud.ac.uk/hs/research/template_analysis/)

## 2.3 RESEARCH FINDINGS – QUANTITATIVE ANALYSIS

Although the main focus of this work is a qualitative analysis of the factors surrounding education workers' motivation and morale, the questionnaires filled in by all focus group participants made it possible to perform some quantitative analyses of the information provided<sup>5</sup>.

### 2.3.1 LEVELS OF MOTIVATION AND LEVELS OF SATISFACTION

The questionnaire filled in by participating teachers after the focus groups contained questions designed to ascertain whether they considered themselves to be a) motivated teachers and b) satisfied to be a teacher, as opposed to a member of some other profession.

The responses were classified as 'yes', 'no' or 'more or less'. A small majority (56 per cent) of participants said they were motivated teachers. In contrast, a large majority (87 per cent) of participants said they were satisfied to be teachers. A satisfied teacher is therefore not necessarily a motivated teacher.

### 2.3.2 DISCUSSION OF RESEARCH FINDINGS – QUANTITATIVE ANALYSIS

The majority of teachers who took part in the research said they were satisfied to be teachers: they did not wish they had followed a different profession. However, this contrasts sharply with the much smaller number who said they felt motivated. Most teachers want to continue teaching but, of these, many do not feel they are motivated teachers. Participants were asked to identify and rank the factors they felt would make them better teachers. They were also asked to identify and rank the factors they felt would make them happier teachers. The ranking of the factors they feel would improve their performance and happiness demonstrates that their relative lack of motivation can be attributed to a whole series of factors, the most important being salary, followed by material working conditions then training. It is important to point out that the category 'administrative/contractual', which was ranked in fourth place overall, covers a variety of themes, many of which are directly linked to the salary teachers receive. If the scores for 'salary' and 'administrative/contractual', are considered together, they then reveal an overwhelming preoccupation with the questions of salary and the administrative procedures that determine the level and administration of salaries.

The only variable that had a significant impact on ranking was the urban/rural distinction. Whereas urban teachers were more preoccupied with the impact of material conditions on their ability to perform well, rural teachers placed more emphasis on salary. In terms of what would make them happier, rural teachers placed more emphasis on housing than urban teachers did. Interestingly, the region in which teachers live and work had no significant effect on the factors they cited, nor did age, level, status or length of service. In terms of gender, although the results appear to show that female teachers are more concerned with material working conditions than with salary, the difference between their responses and those of the male teachers was not found to be statistically significant.

Overall, these results show a committed but relatively demotivated workforce, whose ability to do their job well and whose personal happiness are undermined by a series of factors, some of which stand out as extremely salient. The qualitative data from the focus group discussions provides some insights into these findings and the reality behind how they affect teachers' daily lives. The next section looks in detail at what teachers said about these issues, and some of the changes they would like to see.

5. Appendix 3 contains detailed quantitative analysis tables, demonstrating: the differing levels of motivation and satisfaction reported by different categories of teachers; and the factors that teachers reported would help them to perform better or make them happier teachers.

## 3 FACTORS THAT AFFECT TEACHERS' MOTIVATION

Ten broad themes emerged through the template analysis, each of which is subdivided into a number of different sub-categories. Overall, the 10 themes cover three types of factors that affect motivation: organisation and institutional factors, social and community factors and personal factors. The themes that emerged most frequently and forcefully are analysed in this section. In addition, three cross-cutting themes are investigated: school location (urban/rural), gender, and regional and ethnic factors. Where appropriate, the policy context is given briefly, before discussing the issues as the participants presented them. Where quotations from focus groups or interviews are included, these are anonymous. All names of people or places are replaced by 'X'. These are followed by recommendations made by the research participants. In some cases, varying and even contradictory recommendations are given, reflecting the variety of views expressed by different stakeholders.

### 3.1 ORGANISATIONAL AND INSTITUTIONAL FACTORS

#### 3.1.1 RECRUITMENT AND DEPLOYMENT

##### *LOCATION OF JOB AND DEPLOYMENT*

##### **POLICY CONTEXT**

Teacher recruitment and deployment is centrally planned but organised at provincial level: each province trains, recruits and deploys its own teachers. In general, graduates from provincial teacher training colleges are required to teach in that province. The numbers of teachers trained do not necessarily correspond to the needs of the province, and there is considerable variation between provinces in terms of both pupil-teacher ratio (PTR) and the ratio of pupils to qualified teachers (PQTR). Rural provinces, such as Niassa, have a higher PTR and a higher PQTR, reflecting both a higher number of unfilled posts and a greater proportion of untrained teachers than is the case in other less rural provinces (Mulkeen, 2005: 7).

Although newly qualified teachers are normally recruited automatically, **“in some cases, provinces have had insufficient funds to recruit all of the newly qualified teachers”** (Mulkeen, 2005: 7). Within provinces, newly qualified teachers are assigned to schools that need them. Many teachers, particularly female teachers, do not wish to accept rural posts. If they refuse a posting, they are able to apply later for other posts that become vacant. Incentives are offered to teachers who accept rural postings. However, in practice, these incentives are often negated by ineligibility or by counter-incentives to teach in urban areas (see section 3.1.6 Remuneration packages on page 40).

##### **ISSUES RAISED BY TEACHERS AND OTHER STAKEHOLDERS**

Some teachers felt the deployment process was not always fair. They did not feel that their individual circumstances or their training were sufficiently taken into account when allocating them to a job. Many examples were given of teachers being sent to a post that was not what they had been trained for. They found it difficult to be sent far away from their families, as financial constraints and difficult travelling conditions meant that it was difficult to visit them. One male teacher compared teachers to the Mozambican miners, who traditionally go to work in South Africa and often go for years without seeing their families: **“A teacher becomes a miner in his own country. He is so far from his family that even by telephone there is no communication”**.

One theme that emerged strongly was of teachers who had always lived and studied in towns being sent to rural postings, where they had to live and work in very challenging conditions, often without electricity or running water, far from their families and friends and in communities they did not know. Many found the material hardship and the rural culture and mentality difficult to adapt to. MEC officials tended to recognise and be sympathetic regarding the difficult conditions experienced by teachers deployed in rural postings, and to be aware of the needs to improve conditions and provide better incentives for rural teachers.

There were suggestions from some participants that corruption influenced the deployment process. A VSO volunteer said, **“I've heard there is payment; if you pay a certain amount you can get where you want to go”**.

Interestingly, the young urban student teachers we met were upbeat about the prospect of being sent to teach in 'the districts': **"The Ministry will send us out to the districts. Now they don't want to develop the cities. So we have to develop the districts now.../... So it's we who are going there. Maybe to carry on with the government's programme"**.

Many participants expressed concern at the quality of teachers recruited. The recruitment process is based on a written procedure and there is no interview process. The community is not consulted. It was felt that this sometimes resulted in teachers being recruited who were not suitable.

#### SOLUTIONS SUGGESTED BY TEACHERS AND OTHER STAKEHOLDERS

- Deploy teachers according to their training.
- Deploy teachers near to their place of residence and families.
- Provide transport for teachers who are sent to work far from home.
- Make the deployment process more transparent.
- Involve the community in recruiting teachers.
- Interview candidates and only accept those who are suitable.

#### **MINISTRY PROCEDURES OF RECRUITMENT, 'INTEGRATION', PROMOTION AND CAREER PROGRESSION**

##### POLICY CONTEXT

Elaborate bureaucratic procedures govern the recruitment of teachers, their 'integration' into the public sector as civil servants, their promotion and career progression. The administration of these procedures operates vertically and involves the transfer of files from the district to the provincial level, and from there to the central level. Files therefore undergo a complex journey through the system, requiring signatures and stamps from different departments at different levels. All recruitments have to be approved by the Administrative Court in Maputo, right in the south of the country, which currently involves the transfer of the documents to the capital, leading to long delays and frequently mislaid files. The decentralisation programme aims to streamline the procedure by establishing two further Administrative Courts in the central and northern regions.

The law requires that teachers recruited on temporary contracts should receive permanent contracts after two years, allowing them to benefit from the rights and conditions of public sector employees. Newly appointed teachers, including new graduates from teacher training colleges, serve a probationary period of three years, after which they join the system as permanent public sector employees. The system allows for teachers to progress regularly up the salary scale, receiving an automatic salary increase every three years. These procedures are also highly bureaucratic, and involve much paperwork for under-resourced district and provincial human resources departments, with files being transferred between several different locations.

##### ISSUES RAISED BY TEACHERS AND OTHER STAKEHOLDERS

The question of Ministry procedures was one that many teachers felt strongly about. They felt nominations take too long. Many teachers mentioned that they are still considered and paid as probationers, whereas they should have been automatically 'nominated' at the end of the probationary period. Many complained of not having received any news of their procedure and of not knowing what stage it was at and therefore what their status was. The examples of two male rural primary school teachers from different provinces demonstrate this situation. One said, **"I have been working for 11 years and to this day I don't have any document confirming that I've been nominated"**. The other stated, **"My echelon has not changed since I arrived here. I'm at the same echelon, the same class, I'm still a probationer. Nothing has changed yet: it's been five years and I'm in my sixth year now, but I'm still a probationer"**.

Several teachers spoke of going through the process of photocopying and submitting the necessary documents every year without receiving an answer. They found the time spent on the application, the cost of photocopying the large number of documents that make up the file and the transport costs to the District Directorate to submit the file onerous and demoralising, particularly when repeated year after year with no result. **"To renew the contract, you have to attach all the documents I attached when I was first hired; that's demoralising"** (male rural primary teacher). One VSO volunteer noted that teachers had to take time off from teaching to

deal with the paperwork, as new teachers **“don’t get paid for the first six months because they’re not in the system. Then it all comes at once. The financial systems are very slow: paperwork and bureaucracy. They also have to re-submit their documents. That can take a week out of their teaching. So human resources is this slow, plodding machine”**.

Provincial heads of human resources are equally frustrated by the delays in the system, which they perceive as being caused by lack of capacity within government departments, the complexity of the processes, and the fact that there is only one Administrative Court for the whole country, situated in Maputo. They also made clear that a major reason for the delays in the procedures was financial: there is not enough money in the budget to process the files, as this would mean having to pay the teachers concerned larger salaries. Each year, there are teachers who are theoretically eligible for a change of status and therefore salary, but the budget that is allocated to the province for education is not sufficient to cover them: **“In recent years, there were no promotions because we could not pay for them”** (provincial head of human resources).

Some teachers also believed the delay in promoting them was due to budgetary factors. They pointed out that in addition to delays in receiving the new, better salary, the other benefits associated with changing status, such as becoming eligible for certain allowances or to contribute to a retirement pension, are also delayed. Furthermore, these benefits are not retroactive once the promotion finally goes through. Many teachers found this situation unfair and demoralising: **“A teacher may begin to work in 2000 and not succeed in obtaining a nomination until now, then manage to get the nomination in 2008. Those years don’t count, but they should count”** (female rural primary teacher). They frequently expressed frustration that delays in obtaining a nomination also mean a teacher is not eligible to get a study grant to go to teacher training college.

In addition to financial constraints, many participants attributed the delays and inefficiency in executing the procedures to poor systems and poorly trained personnel. Often those working in human resources have been trained as teachers, not in administration, planning or finance: **“We need to know who can manage human resources.../...a teacher who is placed there and given the job will do it, but he doesn’t know how to do it. We need to give them the right tools”** (senior government official). One head teacher pointed out that in her district, there are only two human resource officials for 900 public servants, and that once they send off the files to the next level, they have no idea what becomes of them. A lack of information and lack of clarity as to what the correct procedures should be are also recurrent themes. One government official pointed out that if teachers do not know what their rights are, they cannot make demands for them to be fulfilled.

#### SOLUTIONS SUGGESTED BY TEACHERS AND OTHER STAKEHOLDERS

- Recruit personnel working in human resources at all levels on merit.
- Train personnel in human resources management and administration.
- Stop placing teachers in administrative posts.
- Simplify procedures, for example, by reducing the number of stages in each process.
- Accelerate procedures, for example, by having several Administrative Courts around the country.
- Make processes more efficient, for example, by using IT.
- Improve coordination between the Ministry of Education and Culture and the Ministry of Finance.
- Improve coordination between the Ministry of Education and Culture and the Administrative Court.
- Have a concerted campaign to process outstanding requests and eliminate the backlog.
- Negotiate budgets with the Ministry of Finance (and possibly donors) to allow outstanding requests to be processed and resulting salary increases paid.
- Apply rights and benefits retroactively once requests are processed.
- Give clear information about teachers’ status and career structure
- Give teachers and administrative staff more information about their rights.
- Inform teachers what stage in the procedure their file has reached.
- Apply the existing procedures.
- Decentralise the process, giving more autonomy to the district.

## **TURNOVER AND ATTRITION**

### **POLICY CONTEXT**

Although precise figures on the turnover and attrition of teachers are not available, the current strategic plan predicts that the current shortage of qualified teachers will worsen and cites three underlying causes:

- Many teachers, particularly secondary teachers, leave the profession to take better paid jobs.
- Many teachers, including recent graduates of teacher training colleges, are appointed to administrative posts within the education system at district and provincial level.
- Large numbers of teachers are dying as a result of HIV & AIDS, and this situation is expected to continue<sup>6</sup>.

Many graduates of teacher training institutions, such as the Pedagogic University, never teach but go into other jobs. These institutions are seen by many as a way of obtaining a degree or professional qualification, not necessarily of training to be a teacher.

### **ISSUES RAISED BY TEACHERS AND OTHER STAKEHOLDERS**

Teachers and ex-teachers confirm that there is a flow of teachers into other, better paid jobs. This is demoralising for those who remain. There is also a perception that it is the better teachers who are able to leave and this has a demoralising effect on the others, as well as lowering standards overall. Many teachers expressed the idea that one can only put up with poor conditions and pay for so long: **“For two or three years you can put up with this situation, but what happens then?”** (male urban secondary teacher).

Several teachers who have left the profession expressed regret at having had to do so, and hoped that a time would come when they could afford to return. Several of them continue to give classes in the evening or in private schools, saying that they enjoy teaching and want to continue to contribute something to the country. Several of them expressed distress at the phenomenon of teachers leaving and concern at the effect this is having on the education system: **“What is happening? The best teachers are leaving to work in other jobs”** (an ex-teacher). Another former teacher expressed the belief that better human resource management was needed in order to **“keep teachers working in education, teaching, with better motivation and more dedication”**.

### **SOLUTIONS SUGGESTED BY TEACHERS AND OTHER STAKEHOLDERS**

- Make teachers' salaries comparable with those in other professions.
- Improve conditions overall.
- Deploy graduates of teacher training courses in classroom jobs, rather than in administrative or other positions.
- Make working as a teacher for a limited period (for example, two years) a condition for those who have benefited from a place in a teacher training course.
- Recruit candidates for teacher training courses who are committed to becoming classroom teachers.

6. Although precise figures are not available, the number of teachers who will die of HIV & AIDS is now expected to be lower than the 17 per cent estimated in 2000 (MEC, 2006: 142). The percentage of Mozambicans infected with HIV is currently estimated at 16.2 per cent nationally (UNICEF, URL).

## **APPOINTMENT OF HEAD TEACHERS**

### **POLICY CONTEXT**

School heads and deputy heads are appointed by Provincial Directors of Education and Culture on the basis of proposals made by the district directors. Because of lengthy bureaucracy, many 'acting heads' perform the role for considerable lengths of time, without either receiving an official appointment or the appropriate salary.

### **ISSUES RAISED BY TEACHERS AND OTHER STAKEHOLDERS**

Some teachers expressed the opinion that the present system of appointing head teachers was unfair and lacking in transparency. Some suspected that district directors recommended friends, relatives or political allies.

Head teachers often wished the process was more transparent. Many head teachers said they were not being paid as heads, as their appointment had not yet been processed, but were receiving a basic teacher's salary, while carrying all the responsibility of managing a school. As many head teachers also teach classes, at least in smaller schools, they have both an increased workload and increased responsibilities with no corresponding increase in salary. This can lead to considerable dissatisfaction among head teachers, which can affect the morale of other teachers in the school. In the words of one head teacher, working in a school where many teachers are waiting for their nominations to go through, **"Since the director has not received his nomination either, he is managing other dissatisfied people, so there is no one who feels responsible for taking charge"**.

### **SOLUTIONS SUGGESTED BY TEACHERS AND OTHER STAKEHOLDERS**

- Make the process of appointing head teachers more transparent.
- Have teachers who wish to be head teachers apply for the position in an open recruitment process.
- Instead of head teachers being appointed, allow teachers to elect them.
- Introduce training for teachers wishing to become head teachers, and appoint head teachers who have completed it.
- Process outstanding appointments and backdate head teachers' allowances to the beginning of their headship.

## **3.1.2 LEADERSHIP AND MANAGEMENT**

### **EFFICIENCY OF MANAGEMENT PROCEDURES**

This category includes issues relating to management procedures and behaviour both within schools and at the higher administrative levels.

### **POLICY CONTEXT**

PEEC2/ESSP2 recognises that institutional capacity needs to be strengthened at all levels – central, provincial, district and local. The plan cites problems of planning, monitoring and support, delays in disbursement, weak coordination, gaps in financial administration and accountability as obstacles to progress.

**"A lack of capacity and expertise at lower levels hampers decentralisation of planning, management, and financial administration, and stifles creativity and innovation. School directors, cultural institutions and other district managers of education and culture still lack expertise in management, supervision and administration... The lack of capacity at lower levels puts a great burden on the central structures of MEC, clogs decision-making processes, and contributes to substantial delays in communication within and between levels of the system"** (MEC, 2006: 137–38).

## ISSUES RAISED BY TEACHERS AND OTHER STAKEHOLDERS

Lack of effective management procedures within schools was highlighted by some participants as leading to difficulties in working effectively. Teachers reported that lesson and examination timetables are not always well organised, and that incompatibilities between the working hours of teaching and non-teaching staff meant that resources are not managed effectively and teachers do not always have the equipment they needed or even access to toilets. One teacher said that his school lessons began at 7am but that the person responsible for handing out and collecting chalk and blackboard dusters, the basic working tools of the Mozambican teacher, only began work three hours later! Poor communication systems mean that teachers may not be informed about meetings and other professional activities until the last minute or after they have taken place.

Lack of effective management can foster absenteeism among teachers. Conversely, this can be reduced by improved management procedures. One VSO volunteer reported observing the change that took place when a new head teacher arrived in her school: "Everything is much more positive since the new director arrived. The teachers are actually coming to lessons now. There is a system to check on teachers". Another VSO volunteer described the general neglect of the school where she worked and the dirty classrooms, despite cleaners being employed: "Sometimes I found the kids cleaning the room, so couldn't start for 20 minutes. Why not the cleaners?" She attributed this to a lack of effective control by the head, which led to a general culture of disinterest and low standards: "There was no effective control. The school was filthy: you would see boys urinating and defecating. Once I saw six men defecating outside."

Inadequate management procedures are also cited as causing problems in management at higher levels, so that time is spent 'fire fighting' rather than working within structured and organised procedures. Many MEC officials are aware of this and say the Ministry is in the process of trying to address the problem by improving procedures and training personnel. However, this is made difficult by a lack of educated people willing to work for the public sector, as they are in demand for more prestigious and better paid jobs elsewhere. Several tertiary participants perceived an absence of clear systems and management procedures at district, provincial and national level:

**"I think a lot of people.../...can't imagine working in a completely different way and therefore there's an issue around poverty of imagination, what would it be like to work in an organisation where you worked in a clearly functioning team, where there were clear job descriptions, where you did sit down and do an annual performance appraisal, where you were very focused on a sort of way of looking at your work over the year, and assessing it and working as a team to deliver outputs, rather than the sort of constant fire fighting that you tend to see".**

There was also praise for the achievements of MEC in the face of these internal problems of capacity and an ever-increasing workload. One participant paid tribute to the dedication and efficiency of the high-level management: **"Given what they are trying to achieve in terms of massive increases in demand, massive increases in their budgets, not a significant change in their human resources in terms of who they can draw on to come and do all of this work, I think it is quite incredible what they do achieve really"** (tertiary education stakeholder).

## SOLUTIONS SUGGESTED BY TEACHERS AND OTHER STAKEHOLDERS

### At school level:

- Train head teachers in school administration and management.
- Train head teachers in leadership and how to create a motivating school environment.
- Make resources available to improve the quality of working conditions within schools.
- Ensure head teachers have a timetable that allows for concentration on management issues.
- Ensure head teachers receive the allowances to which they are entitled.
- Only recruit head teachers who are eligible for the task.

#### At district, provincial and national level:

- Improve systems and management procedures at all levels.
- Look at examples of good practice in education management in other countries.
- Strengthen core functions of planning, finance and human resource management.
- Improve capacity of personnel through more selective recruitment and training at all levels.
- Clarify roles and responsibilities within MEC, enabling delegation of decisions to lower levels.
- Continue to decentralise the system, giving more autonomy and responsibility to provincial and district levels.
- Foster a culture of improved communication and openness, both within and between different levels of the system.
- Increase training in and use of IT.

#### RECOGNITION

This category includes issues relating to feeling recognised, being consulted and being given responsibilities.

#### POLICY CONTEXT

The education system, like many other parts of the state apparatus, tends to function within a traditional, hierarchical structure. The ongoing public sector reform is committed to promoting good governance, on the grounds that it is **“an indispensable element in the strategy to reduce absolute poverty”**; exclusion from decision making and lack of participation are recognised as factors that contribute towards absolute poverty (Natividade, 2006: 4). Likewise, PEEC2/ESSP2 explicitly recognises the need for wider consultation with stakeholders, presumably including teachers.

#### ISSUES RAISED BY TEACHERS AND OTHER STAKEHOLDERS

Teachers expressed the importance of receiving recognition for the efforts they make to carry out their work in difficult circumstances. If they felt a lack of recognition from their bosses, this was sometimes compounded by their belief that head teachers were putting down other teachers in an authoritarian manner, in an attempt to disguise their own lack of skills or qualifications. One young teacher told of his experience:

**“In the school where I was working, I had conflict with the school head... who was always discriminating against untrained teachers, saying that they didn’t know how to teach their lessons. I almost lost respect for her because when I asked her a question – I’ve got 10th grade, she’s only got 7th grade plus one year of training, obviously only basic training – she said I didn’t know anything, we had to talk. She only knows about theoretical approaches, she’s got nothing else in her head. So we talked, but that day I lost the will to continue and I stopped working”** (male rural primary teacher).

Other participants spoke of constructive leadership from their head teachers, citing their efforts to create a positive school culture and encourage teachers to take a pride in their work. One teacher, who had taught in a school where there were no desks, and his colleagues used to sit on the window sill of the classroom, gave the example of his head teacher at the time, who told the teachers: **“When you sit on the window sill, you’re showing the people who pass by the side of the school that this school does not have desks. This is not a good thing. We have to deal without our problems ourselves, without other people knowing”** (male urban secondary teacher).

Certain teachers also felt valued and supported by their head teachers. One young teacher remembered the first school where she taught: **“I liked it very much; I enjoyed working with my colleagues. The head teacher was almost like a father to us”** (female rural primary teacher).

In spite of these positive examples of being made to feel valued at the local level, the overwhelming consensus was that teachers were neither asked their opinions nor listened to by policy makers. They did not feel they were being represented by the ONP, and there was no sense of their needs or opinions being taken into account. Many teachers expressed their gratitude at being given the opportunity to take part in the focus group, and said it was the first time they had ever been asked about their working conditions or quality of life: **“We’ve been hearing teachers who think like this for decades, but no one ever came to consult me, they never came to a meeting in the school or elsewhere”**. They also expressed the hope that the process would continue. Some teachers said they felt more motivated simply after having the chance to talk about the problems they faced and that the process of talking had reminded them of their original motivation and strengthened their commitment to teaching.

#### SOLUTIONS SUGGESTED BY TEACHERS AND OTHER STAKEHOLDERS

- Train head teachers in constructive management techniques.
- Give teachers opportunities to talk about the issues that affect them.
- Create mechanisms whereby teachers’ views can be taken into account in policy formulation.

#### *PROBITY*

#### POLICY CONTEXT

Corruption is one of the factors identified in the current public sector reform process as contributing to absolute poverty. The diagnosis carried out as part of the reform process identified a number of challenges to be overcome in establishing good governance and combating corruption, including excessive bureaucracy in key public services, and the **“prevalence of corruption in the public sector”** (Natividade, 2006: 7).

It is widely recognised that problems of corruption are widespread at certain levels of the education system, and PEEC2/ESSP2 explicitly mentions the need to address **“corruption and sexual abuse in schools, through improved supervision and monitoring, adequate training of managers and teachers and (whenever necessary) the enforcement and improvement of existing legislation”** (MEC, 2006: 25-26).

#### ISSUES RAISED BY TEACHERS AND OTHER STAKEHOLDERS

Sometimes when talking about the way teachers were perceived in the community, participants cited examples of teachers who were not respected because they asked pupils to buy them drinks or had to ask for credit in shops. However, this was not an area teachers spoke of much. Other participants, particularly VSO volunteers who had worked in schools and some tertiary participants, had more to say on the matter. Volunteers who had taught in secondary schools and taken part in the marking of examinations described the practice, almost systematic in some schools, of pupils being required to pay the teachers, either with money or sexual favours. One volunteer explained that pupils worked on the following principle: **“Let’s not get on the wrong side of the teacher because they can ask for more than I’m willing to pay to pass the exams”**. She went on:

**“I’ve had students tell me that what they try and do is be as anonymous as possible within the classroom and, particularly night school students, go in really dirty old clothes. Because if the teacher happens to notice you [for wearing nice clothes], then you’re good for paying, to pass the exam. Lots and lots of corruption, I’m sorry but it’s true: everything from hanging round the local cafe, saying to the students, ‘Buy me a hamburger or beer, please’ and the students have to do it, because they don’t want to be on the wrong side of the teacher”**.

Volunteers linked the widespread corruption they described around marking tests and exams and attributing marks in part to the lack of standardisation and clarity around evaluation procedures, and the fact that teachers in their schools could set tests at the level they chose. Widespread corruption in admissions procedures was also reported.

There is an explicit link in many participants' minds between teachers' poor salary, standard of living and their getting involved in 'illicit activities', with a resulting loss of professional credibility:

**“Teachers' standard of living must be improved because it's when teachers don't have a good standard of living life that some of them get involved in illicit manoeuvres. With a better lifestyle, teachers could avoid those manoeuvres and have more credibility in the workplace”** (male rural primary teacher).

Participants who were not teachers also reported sexual abuse of female students by male teachers. Many of the civil society and NGO participants spoke of programmes to combat the sexual abuse of female pupils and the need to create a culture among male teachers that would make this practice unacceptable. One participant spoke of a boarding school where as many as 40 per cent of the girls who lived in the boarding house became pregnant, and of the authorities' lack of interest in solving what they did not regard as a problem, simply a cultural phenomenon.

Participants believed that teachers who are removed for corruption or sexual harassment/abuse are generally transferred to another post, with no other sanction.

#### SOLUTIONS SUGGESTED BY TEACHERS AND OTHER STAKEHOLDERS

- Make evaluation procedures more transparent and harmonise them to reduce the scope for corruption.
- Make admissions procedures more transparent to reduce the possibility of corruption.
- Appoint inspectors to control the examination process.
- Train pupils, teachers and administrators to resist the practice of corruption.
- 'Name and shame' teachers and administrators who engage in the practice of corruption.
- Stop the practice of transferring corrupt teachers to other posts.

#### SCHOOL CULTURE

This category includes issues of professionalism, absenteeism, punctuality and teachers having second jobs.

#### POLICY CONTEXT

PEEC2/ESSP2 recognises the problem of teacher absenteeism, which it considers is **“aggravated now by HIV/AIDS but also by low teacher morale in general”**. Absenteeism is in part due to the shortage of teachers, which makes it easy for them to find work in more than one educational establishment (both public and private), or in several shifts within the same school. The practice of having several jobs occurs throughout the public sector, and is generally tolerated. The effective number of hours of teaching received by pupils is often far lower than is laid down in the curriculum, **“in part due to teacher absenteeism”** (MEC, 2006: 22–23).

#### ISSUES RAISED BY TEACHERS AND OTHER STAKEHOLDERS

Professionalism within schools, absenteeism, punctuality and second jobs have all been discussed in relation to other subjects, demonstrating that these issues are complex and interrelated. Although absenteeism and lack of punctuality may be due to illness, either of the teacher or of a family member, in many cases these phenomena are part of a wider cycle. For example, it is clear that the practice of teachers having second jobs is associated, on the one hand, with the low salaries that teachers receive and their inability to survive on one salary and, on the other hand, with a school culture where this is tolerated and even accepted as normal practice by head teachers, many of whom also have second jobs.

Participants painted a complex picture of factors that induce and feed off one another: low pay leads teachers to seek second jobs, which means they do not have time to prepare their lessons properly and are often late for school or absent. Teachers in this situation lack professional pride and do not receive recognition and appreciation from their pupils and colleagues. All of these factors combine to result in low motivation and morale and a feeling among teachers that they are not able to do their jobs well. The quality of teaching suffers, as the following quotation from a grade 10 student reveals: **“Last year in Portuguese, I didn’t understand anything. It wasn’t the lessons, it was the teacher. It’s a teacher who’s almost always absent from school and from the lessons”**.

Understandably, teachers did not tend to talk about these issues in relation to themselves, but to other teachers. One urban teacher had a rather unflattering vision of his rural colleagues:

**“In the districts, the teachers who work hardest are the young ones. Those who have been there a long time hardly even finish a programme properly... some of them go for a week without going to school. They’re drinking, and it’s only when the money runs out that they turn up at school”** (male urban primary teacher).

### SOLUTIONS SUGGESTED BY TEACHERS AND OTHER STAKEHOLDERS

Given the interconnectedness of many of these issues, many recommendations that appear in other sections are already of relevance here. It is clear that none of these factors can be tackled in isolation. In addition to solutions suggested elsewhere, participants suggested the following solution.

- Enable head teachers to enforce strict timekeeping and discourage absenteeism through a system of incentives and deterrents.

### 3.1.3 MATERIAL WORKING CONDITIONS

#### *SCHOOL INFRASTRUCTURE*

##### POLICY CONTEXT

School construction is a major component of PEEC2/ESSP2. The number of classrooms currently available is inadequate for the growing school population. Much of the existing infrastructure is in poor condition. The ambitious school construction programme plans to construct 3,000 classrooms annually, in order to accommodate the growing number of children enrolling in school. It recognises the need for a decentralised programme, with community participation in low-cost construction programmes and NGOs, religious groups and international organisations sharing the burden in order to achieve this target.

**“Classroom availability has not kept pace with the expansion of enrolments. Between 1999 and 2005 the percentage of pupils studying in precarious classrooms or without a classroom remained stable, at around 56 per cent. In 2005, 7 per cent of EP1 pupils had lessons in the third shift. Efforts to speed up the pace of school construction have intensified considerably, through a combination of interventions that include the [MEC] school construction program, mobilizing the community to contribute local resources and support from cooperation partners. However in practice, classroom construction is still very expensive, and often poorly monitored with resulting quality constraints. In addition construction is not always gender sensitive with regard to services such as water and sanitation facilities”** (MEC, 2006: 23).

##### ISSUES RAISED BY TEACHERS AND OTHER STAKEHOLDERS

The question of school infrastructure was frequently cited by participants as having an impact on teachers’ ability to do their job well. Since the focus groups were conducted in the schools where teachers worked, the members of the research team were able to observe for themselves the conditions being described. These varied greatly, from rural schools with a small number of classrooms constructed from local materials (grass, reeds, branches, mud plaster and stones, depending on the region), with the remaining classes taking place in the open air, to well-built, well-maintained structures with good basic facilities. Many school buildings were in poor condition. Many did not have electricity, water or latrines. Often, classrooms built of local materials had no windows, and so were very dark, with sand or dirt floors on which pupils had to sit as there were no desks or chairs.

The state of schools is a frequent source of disruption of lessons, particularly in the rainy season:

**“We have schools in very poor condition and when it rains or there is a lot of wind, the mud plaster gets blown off. It rains and we have to go for a week without having lessons because the classroom is damaged. I can’t go into the classroom and I can’t oblige other people’s children to go in and get wet. The children stay at home and wait until the rain stops and they can continue with their lessons, and these are days which are lost... no one will finish the teaching programme.”** (female rural primary teacher).

Often teachers choose to teach in the open air under a tree rather than in dark classrooms. In some cases, they fear the classrooms are actually dangerous:

**“The first year I arrived, I saw the school with a grass roof. One side was plastered with mud, the other side was not. The pupils studied under the trees all the time because I was afraid the wall would fall on the children. I had to get them out of there. It was very sad”** (female rural primary teacher).

Even when schools are solidly built, they are not always well designed for teaching. One teacher reported that in her classroom, low windows without glass give onto a corridor that people are constantly using: **“Every person who walks by creates a distraction, either for the pupils or the teacher”** (female rural secondary teacher).

Tertiary stakeholders reported that, although the school construction plan is going forward, it is slow, in part due to limited capacity, and costly. Alternative approaches, involving community construction programmes supported by NGOs and using low-cost materials also need to play a part. One organisation involved in such programmes reported that one of the positive effects of community participation in school construction was that the schools were well maintained subsequently, usually through school councils, due to a sense of community ownership: **“They look after them so well that in the past five years there’s never been even a broken window. The schools are in good condition”**.

#### **SOLUTIONS SUGGESTED BY TEACHERS AND OTHER STAKEHOLDERS**

- Continue to build more schools.
- Continue to renovate existing schools.
- Overcome delays in rolling out the existing school construction programme.
- Use more community-based construction projects.
- Have basic water and sanitation in all schools.
- Consult teachers and other users on school design.

#### **WORKING CONDITIONS AND FACILITIES IN SCHOOLS**

##### **POLICY CONTEXT**

In addition to the question of infrastructure, the facilities available within schools, including basic classroom equipment such as desks, chairs and blackboards and teaching and learning materials, are very variable. Much of the existing equipment and many materials are in poor condition. Since 80 per cent of the recurrent budget at provincial and district level is used to pay teachers’ salaries, the ability to purchase materials is limited. The government has recently made a commitment to supply all primary school children with basic text books. Since 2003, a programme called Direct Support to Schools, instituted by MEC and administered at district level, has given schools greater access to basic materials and more autonomy over their provision. The programme has also contributed to community participation in school management, since the funds are controlled by the school council, or at least the parents’ association (UNESCO, 2006: 21–2).

##### **ISSUES RAISED BY TEACHERS AND OTHER STAKEHOLDERS**

Many of the schools visited either had no desks and chairs for pupils or only had a limited number of these. Teachers pointed out that sitting on a sand floor without a flat surface to rest on is not a satisfactory environment for learning to write, and the children’s writing is very poor as a result.

A major source of frustration was the shortage of teaching and learning materials in some schools. Many teachers thought that as their pupils did not have text books, they could not study. One retired teacher commented: **“And those who don’t have books, how can they study? They’re just there playing, and then at the end of the year they go up to the next level”**. Frequently, teachers reported only having one copy of the text book for a whole class: **“I teach third grade and I only have one book. I have only got one book, so to teach a basic subject in a class of forty-something from one book for Portuguese is not easy. I have to write all the texts from the book on the blackboard”** (female rural primary teacher). The shortage of teaching materials appeared to be compounded in some cases by a lack of awareness of teaching techniques not based on the use of text books. Some teachers recognised the need to be creative, but expressed a need for help in this: **“It’s true they say teachers have to be creative, but if the programme could just give a bibliography to show where you can find certain things...”** (female rural secondary teacher).

VSO volunteers also commented on the scarcity of resources and teaching materials, and the impact this had on the quality of teaching:

**“Resources don’t really exist. All the teachers are teaching from notes they had when they themselves were students – no access to books or information, other than what they were taught. The teachers and the school don’t really try to do anything about this. Everybody seems happy that they can teach with nothing. Students don’t have books to look at, no chance to read, just taking notes from the teacher standing at the front”**  
(VSO volunteer).

There was, however, a perception among certain participants that things were improving, at least in primary schools, with more teaching and learning materials becoming available within schools. This may be as a result of the Direct Support to Schools programme, although this was not explicitly mentioned by teachers and it is not clear whether they were aware of this programme.

#### **SOLUTIONS SUGGESTED BY TEACHERS AND OTHER STAKEHOLDERS**

- Involve the community in making desks and chairs from local materials, possibly with support from NGOs.
- Train teachers in teaching techniques that do not require all pupils to have text books.
- Improve the supply of teaching and learning materials to schools.

#### **WORKLOAD AND WORKING HOURS**

##### **POLICY CONTEXT**

As detailed in section 3.1.1 Recruitment and deployment above (for example, in the sections on location of job and deployment [see page 19] and on turnover and attrition of teachers [see page 22]), there is a serious shortage of teachers. Reasons for this include the discrepancy between the numbers of teachers needed and the numbers currently being trained, the shortfall in the budget available to pay teachers’ salaries, teachers leaving the profession to take better paid jobs, teachers being appointed to administrative posts within the education system at district and provincial level, and large numbers of teachers dying as a result of HIV & AIDS. In spite of the practice of recruiting unqualified teachers, many posts remain vacant, particularly in certain provinces. These vacancies result in PTRs of 80 in Cabo Delgado and 100 in Zambézia, the two provinces most severely affected (Mulkeen, 2005: 7).

Due to the shortage of teachers and classrooms, most schools operate on a shift system. Primary schools operate with two or three daytime shifts and an evening shift for older and adult pupils; secondary schools with two daytime shifts and a night shift. The first shift begins at 6.30 or 7.00am, depending on daylight hours and on whether the schools have electricity. The school day is therefore short for pupils: 3 hours 20 minutes for primary pupils, 5 hours for secondary. However, many teachers teach two, three or even four shifts: teachers working on the night shift work until 10pm. This workload is augmented further by the large number of pupils in many classes.

## ISSUES RAISED BY TEACHERS AND OTHER STAKEHOLDERS

Many teachers feel they are teaching too many hours, in some cases from 7am to 9.30pm, if they teach on all the shifts. One teacher explained: **“Last year, my routine was very heavy. It wasn’t good. I was teaching in the morning, in the afternoon and in the evening”** (male urban secondary teacher). The quality of teaching suffers, as teachers in this situation do not have time to prepare their teaching adequately. Teachers who have to travel long distances to get to work find it difficult to arrive at school on time, so classes begin late or are missed altogether.

Likewise, the issue of large classes increases teachers’ workload. Teachers say that they do not manage to correct students’ work thoroughly and regularly, as they have too many pupils per class. Likewise, at exam times, it is very difficult to correct exam papers thoroughly and equitably and to give marks to such large numbers of pupils in a short space of time: **“People don’t see the conditions you work in: a class of 130 pupils, lessons finish and a week later you have to give in their marks, with the number of pupils you have in that class!”** (male urban secondary teacher). Large classes are also recognised as having a negative impact on the quality of both teaching and learning, particularly in the light of the often difficult classroom conditions:

**“I’m there, the teacher, sometimes with 60 class 1 pupils. I have to get to the end of the year with all those pupils going up to class 2, and the child is sitting on the floor – there’s nowhere else to sit... How you get 60 pupils to pass, in a classroom in dreadful condition, sitting on the floor... It’s very difficult for them to pay attention”**  
(female rural primary teacher).

Participants from all sectors agreed that large classes are detrimental to the quality of education, as teachers cannot teach such large numbers adequately: **“Having 70 kids per teacher is not going to deliver you a quality education system. Getting that number down to 60 or 55 is a reasonable thing to be aiming for and if the only way you can do that is by recruiting a hell of a lot more teachers, then we should be allocating the money to it”** (tertiary stakeholder).

## SOLUTIONS SUGGESTED BY TEACHERS AND OTHER STAKEHOLDERS

- Continue with and increase the current drives of constructing schools and hiring and training additional teachers in order to reduce PTRs and reduce the need for the shift system over time.
- Give teachers priority health care and health education, including access to HIV testing and anti retroviral treatment to help reduce attrition due to premature death.
- Train teachers in techniques for teaching large classes with limited resources.

### 3.1.4 EDUCATION POLICY, THE CURRICULUM AND PEDAGOGIC PRACTICE

#### THE CURRICULUM

##### POLICY CONTEXT

A new primary school curriculum was introduced progressively from 2004. The curriculum stresses the acquisition of reading and writing skills and aims to increase **“the relevance of school learning to the local socio-economic and cultural environment”**, with a **“local component”** constituting 20 per cent of teaching time (Takala, 2004: 5).

Under the previous curriculum, many pupils experienced major educational difficulties due to their inability to speak or understand Portuguese, the national language and traditional language of instruction. For this reason, the new curriculum contains provision for the instruction of children in mother tongues, in the first two grades of EP1, moving to Portuguese thereafter.

Another innovation, an attempt to combat the high rates of children repeating grades, was the introduction of a semi-automatic promotion system, according to which children were not required to pass exams in order to progress to the next grade.

New textbooks and teachers' guides to the new curriculum have been prepared and training sessions organised to prepare teachers for its implementation. However, research has found that: **"Confusion exists among teachers regarding such fundamental principles and prescribed practices as the local curriculum component (including the role of the communities), use of local languages in teaching, and semi-automatic promotion of pupils"** (Takala, 2004: 10). There is a risk of this confusion leading to a perversion of the original intention behind semi-automatic promotion, with a negative impact on the quality of teaching and learning:

**"Until the deficit in training teachers is overcome, the curriculum reform could fall far short of its intended aims. Specifically, with respect to the principle of semi-automatic promotion, the actual practice in promoting pupils to the next grade could become more an administrative efficiency-improving measure than a significant contribution to quality improvement"** (Takala, 2004: 10).

#### ISSUES RAISED BY TEACHERS AND OTHER STAKEHOLDERS

Teachers knew about the new curriculum and said they were trying to implement it, although many said they had not had adequate information or training about how this should be done. Many said they found it difficult to teach subjects they had not themselves studied. They were also experiencing problems in teaching it as they did not have access to the right teaching materials. **"This new curriculum is not what we studied, so without the materials you can't do anything"** (female rural primary teacher).

Many teachers and other participants were extremely preoccupied with what they perceived as being the obligation placed on them by the new curriculum to make all pupils pass into the next class, regardless of whether they are ready. They feel unable to do otherwise, even when the pupils are clearly not ready, and demoralised at seeing pupils at very low levels, who are often unable to read and write, moving upwards through the system regardless. One teacher said: **"This pupil leaves class 1 with difficulties and goes to class 5, then to class 10 with lots of problems. And there at that level there is no automatic progression, so he fails the class two or three times. He'll fail once or twice until sometimes he gives up"**. Teachers perceive the policy as being about increasing pupil numbers at the expense of quality. They are frustrated at having to spend time in class explaining parts of the programme that should have been mastered in previous grades to pupils who have passed without having understood them: **"They pass and yet they don't know anything, and when they arrive at this level the teacher has to start all over again with what they should have already learned"** (female industrial school teacher).

Teachers also feel they are being blamed for their pupils' lack of achievement and that this is unjust: **"They say the teacher's not teaching anything, but it's not that the teacher's not teaching. The teacher teaches, but then realises that the pupils shouldn't move up a class, but because the rules say so we let the child go ahead without knowing anything"** (female urban primary teacher). Head teachers often appear to believe that automatic promotion is required for all pupils, and may be putting pressure on their teachers to apply this.

District and provincial level officials explained that teachers and, in some cases head teachers, did not understand the new curriculum and were not applying it correctly. They maintained that teachers need to be trained in applying the procedures as intended. Some of them attributed the lack of achievement by pupils to inadequate teaching on the part of teachers, rather than to the provisions of the new curriculum. There appears to be insufficient information for teachers about the procedures of semi-automatic promotion (which, teachers usually refer to as 'automatic promotion', suggesting that they have not been exposed to the original curriculum but to a deformed oral presentation of it).

Not only teachers but other education stakeholders appear to be under the impression that the curriculum requires pupils to pass automatically. There appears to be a considerable amount of confusion at many levels as to the precise content and intention of the new programme.

## SOLUTIONS SUGGESTED BY TEACHERS AND OTHER STAKEHOLDERS

- End the systematic practice of automatic promotion.
- Train teachers and head teachers to apply the new curriculum as intended.
- Foster a sense of empowerment among teachers by ensuring they understand the content and objectives of the curriculum they are teaching, instead of criticising them.
- Improve communication, both within the education system and to the general public, about the exact nature and content of the new curriculum.

## THE APPROPRIATENESS AND AVAILABILITY OF SECONDARY SCHOOLS

### POLICY CONTEXT

There is awareness among policy makers that with the strategic plan's intense focus on primary education, investment in and reform of the secondary sector, including technical and vocational education, are also necessary. As more children complete primary school, demand for secondary education will increase accordingly. Furthermore, Mozambique's current skill shortage can only be addressed by education and training in the skills sought within a labour market that currently struggles to recruit suitably trained workers. The secondary school system is based on the Portuguese model and has traditionally been an elitist system with a broad-based, rather traditional academic curriculum. Although enrolment and completion rates for secondary education are rising, only a small percentage of the target population currently completes ESG2. This was less than two per cent in 2005 (MEC, URL). Recent Global Campaign for Education research, however, argued that if countries are to produce enough teachers for primary education, the secondary sector will also have to be expanded in many countries:

**"...for primary education to succeed, provision of early childhood care and education, and secondary and adult literacy education also needs to be improved dramatically in many countries. For example, it is a matter of record that 'no country today has achieved over 90% primary net enrollment without having at least roughly 35% secondary net enrollment' (Clemens, 2004: 19)... [A]n adequate level of secondary education is vital to enable countries to produce enough new teachers to deliver primary education"** (GCE, 2006: 10).

Many pupils who complete EP2 are unable to continue in secondary education for financial and logistical reasons. In 2005, there were only 156 ESG1 schools and 35 ESG2 schools in the entire country, predominantly based in urban centres (MEC, URL). In addition to the problem of physical access, the cost of buying uniforms is prohibitive for many families. Furthermore, secondary education **"often involves boarding costs, and high costs for books and other transactions (including informal 'fees' or other forms of payment to school officials and teachers to guarantee a place)"** (MEC, 2006:33).

The current challenge is to transform the previous limited secondary education system into a mass education system, able to educate young Mozambicans to fulfil the needs of the growing economy and developing employment market. MEC is currently investigating different options and will shortly be defining a strategy for the reform of the secondary education system.

### ISSUES RAISED BY TEACHERS AND OTHER STAKEHOLDERS

There is considerable concern among both teachers and other participants that the secondary sector may be being neglected in the current drive to achieve universal primary education. Teachers spoke of there being insufficient capacity within secondary schools to meet demand. Secondary head teachers felt the needs of their school were not being addressed since resources were being channelled into primary schools. Primary teachers expressed regret that their better pupils would not be able to go on to secondary school when they left: **"When they leave here, they don't continue studying because there's nowhere for them to go. They just go up to the basic level and then stop"** (female rural primary teacher).

Anxiety was expressed that, even where secondary schools do exist, students are graduating from them without being equipped with the skills and knowledge required by employers in the fast-evolving employment market. There was a perception that, although it is important to invest in primary education, this is not enough and that in order to develop, Mozambique needs citizens with secondary education and over.

Policy makers are well aware of the need to develop a coherent strategy to adapt the secondary education system to the rapidly changing context and demands. The demand for secondary education has increased exponentially since independence, when there were only 1,000 pupils in secondary education in the whole country: **“We are now functioning at a completely different level and it would be impossible to expand the existing system whilst maintaining the quality... so what is happening is a gradual deterioration of the quality of secondary education”** (tertiary participant). Participants agreed that secondary schools based on the pre-independence model would be neither affordable nor appropriate to the needs of the emerging system of mass secondary education. According to most participants, there is a need to be realistic in reforming the secondary school system overall to meet current needs, rather than merely trying to adjust the curriculum, and to:

**“...encourage people to think about different models... Clearly, when you have had a tiny elitist education system and you try to go towards a universal system you can’t just reproduce [that] in the whole country. It’s just not going to happen. There is never going to be enough money, nor is it appropriate to think about those sort of big school models for every single district”** (tertiary stakeholder).

#### SOLUTIONS SUGGESTED BY TEACHERS AND OTHER STAKEHOLDERS

- Do not forget the secondary schools in the drive to achieve goals concerning primary education.
- Continue to build secondary schools and train secondary teachers to meet the needs that will be created as large numbers of pupils graduate from primary school, and to ensure there are enough secondary school graduates to recruit into the teaching profession.
- Define a strategy for secondary education that takes into account the needs of the employment market.
- Be realistic and creative: be prepared to re-think the entire secondary education system, not just to adjust the existing curriculum.

#### THE QUALITY AND APPROPRIATENESS OF TEACHING METHODS

##### POLICY CONTEXT

PEEC2/ESSP2 reflects an awareness of the weakness of much classroom practice:

**“The quality of teaching is a further concern. Poor teacher training, insufficient materials, and lack of pedagogical support, has meant that most teachers rely on teacher-centred didactical methods, emphasizing repetition and memorization over learner-centred approaches that encourage creative thinking and skills based learning. Teachers are poorly equipped to deal with some of the challenges that the system poses, such as the reality of mixed group teaching in large and in multi-grade classes, not having didactical materials, and of dealing with challenges such as gender disparities and HIV/AIDS”** (MEC, 2006: 45).

The plan includes considerable emphasis on strategies to improve the quality of teaching. A programme of continuous professional development for teachers, CRESCER, started in 2004 in a certain number of districts, and is in the process of being expanded. CRESCER trained around 30 per cent of primary teachers to implement the new curriculum. Another attempt to improve quality concerns the school cluster zones known as ZIPs. These have existed since 1974 but they have been reinforced since 1998. Meetings take place twice a month and allow teachers to exchange experiences, ideas and support. They offer training and workshops to teachers and parents and support resource centres for books and teaching materials. They are the main or only source of these for teachers, particularly in remote rural areas.

### ISSUES RAISED BY TEACHERS AND OTHER STAKEHOLDERS

Although several teachers mentioned that they did not feel equipped to teach large classes and they would like more training in this, the question of teaching methods was not highlighted by many teachers, possibly because of a preoccupation with what they perceive to be more critical issues. However, VSO volunteers working in Mozambican schools and teacher training colleges, who have experience of other education systems, were much more aware of this as an area that has an impact on the quality of education overall. They were particularly worried at the absence of a consistent and equitable approach to assessment.

### SOLUTIONS SUGGESTED BY TEACHERS AND OTHER STAKEHOLDERS

- Introduce more training for teachers in techniques for teaching large classes.
- Improve teaching training to include less theory and more focus on practical teaching techniques.
- Train teachers in the principles and techniques of testing and evaluation.
- Enable teachers to observe teachers who are trained in modern teaching techniques.

### 3.1.5 TRAINING, SELF-IMPROVEMENT AND LEARNING

#### **LEVEL AND SCOPE OF QUALIFICATIONS AND TRAINING**

##### POLICY CONTEXT

It is estimated that 38 per cent of teachers in Mozambique are currently untrained (ActionAid, 2007: 7). Of those teachers who have received training, many are called upon to teach subjects other than those they have been trained in. Furthermore, the existing training programmes are not always appropriate to the realities of the Mozambican classroom.

PEEC2/ESSP2 states that, in addition to many primary school teachers being untrained, in 2005, **“78 per cent of ES1 (grade 8–10) teachers had no qualifications to teach at this level” and that “the training that is given to secondary school teachers is expensive and in many cases poorly related to the practical realities of secondary education classrooms”** (MEC, 2006: 33). In an attempt to ensure that all teachers have received at least some pedagogic training, MEC is in the process of implementing a new primary teacher training programme (known as 10+1), consisting of a single year of training for pupils leaving school after grade 10, which should almost double teacher training capacity. The challenge will be to ensure that the quality of training and therefore of teaching does not deteriorate unacceptably. A recent report by ActionAid highlights this risk:

**“Previously only 3,500 teachers completed training per year; now close to 6,000 teachers will complete pre-service training. There is a great deal of concern however, from civil society and even within the Ministry of Education that, unless the quality of pre-service training is significantly improved, this training scheme will undermine efforts to improve quality by hiring more teachers. More resources are needed to bolster the new teacher training courses, to ensure that quality is not compromised. But short cuts on training are not the answer”** (ActionAid, 2007: 7).

## ISSUES RAISED BY TEACHERS AND OTHER STAKEHOLDERS

Both trained and untrained teachers felt a need for more training. Trained teachers wanted to update their skills and keep abreast with developments. Untrained teachers said they would be more confident, both in the classroom and in the community, if they were trained. Working alongside untrained teachers was perceived by some as being demotivating for trained teachers.

Untrained teachers expressed insecurity about their levels of subject knowledge and their professional skills. They worried about the quality of their teaching, and felt they were not in a position to fulfil their responsibility to their pupils: **“Train us. We need to be more in contact with all the new things, all the innovation, training, because that’s our job. We should be up to date with everything and there should be more information, more effort to achieve that”** (female urban secondary teacher).

Other stakeholders also believed that trained teachers were the main priority for the education system. One tertiary participant explained why he believed teacher training was more important than school construction: **“The secret in the school is the teacher. I’m not very much concerned about buildings, for instance, because under a tree with a good teacher you will learn much more than in a classroom with a non-trained teacher”**.

Reservations were expressed about the new 10+1 training regime and whether it would produce adequately trained teachers, although many participants admitted that limited training is probably better than none: **“It will not train teachers. You can’t train a teacher in one year. It will prepare people who are a bit more informed about teaching, but not yet teachers. It will definitely improve the situation in comparison to non-trained teachers. Of course, if you can get one year of some training, it is one year better than nothing”** (tertiary participant). One senior government official pointed out that, given the choice between recruiting 1,500 teachers with two years’ training plus 6,000 untrained teachers per year or 7,500 teachers with one year’s training, the decision had been that it was preferable to opt for the second scenario. Several tertiary participants expressed considerable fear that the 10+1 regime would result in a deterioration in the quality of teaching and the wish that it should be a temporary measure, to be replaced with a longer, more solid training programme as soon as possible.

Many teachers who had received training said they had not ended up teaching the subject they had been trained in, but something entirely different. The case of one participant illustrates this: he was trained to teach Portuguese and sent to a school thinking he would be teaching that subject, only to find that since there was a shortage of English teachers he would be expected to teach English. In another case, the teacher in question was asked to teach music, in spite of having no musical knowledge or training: **“He had been trained to teach Portuguese and had been given classes to teach music to. He did not have the qualification for this and he had to ask to stop teaching that subject”** (male teacher). Provincial heads of human resources explained that there is not yet a system to reconcile schools’ needs for teachers of specific subjects with the training courses available. The supply of secondary teachers trained in different subjects who graduate from the Pedagogical University (UP), for example, is not in phase with the demand for teachers to fill existing vacancies.

There was also some optimism and a sense that things were slowly improving. One VSO volunteer, who had been in Mozambique for almost three years, was able to observe this within her school: **“I’ve seen big changes since arriving in August 2004. They’re making a big effort to train teachers. Last year, 20 teachers went to get formal training for two years. So we had new teachers [to replace them]. Hopefully, the other teachers will come back after two years. A slow process but it is happening.”**

## SOLUTIONS SUGGESTED BY TEACHERS AND OTHER STAKEHOLDERS

- Ensure all teachers receive basic teacher training as soon as possible.
- Ensure trained teachers receive regular, good quality in-service training and support to update their skills.
- Consider the 10+1 training regime as a temporary measure and reintroduce more thorough training programmes as soon as possible.
- Ensure coordination between provincial human resources departments and teacher training institutions to reconcile supply and demand, so that teachers are trained in the subjects and the numbers that are needed.

## ACCESS TO TRAINING AND PROFESSIONAL SUPPORT

### POLICY CONTEXT

Various types of pre-service teacher training exist. School leavers who have completed grade 10 can apply to train as primary teachers in a number of different training institutions. Secondary school graduates with grade 12 or graduates of primary teacher training colleges can apply to secondary teacher training programmes at the Pedagogical University (UP)<sup>7</sup>.

Teachers who already have permanent status are able to apply for study grants to train as secondary school teachers at the Pedagogical University (UP). The qualification they receive on completing one of the three-year or five-year courses gives access to a greatly improved salary and job opportunities, both within and outside the education system.

In addition to these training programmes, efforts are being made to provide teachers currently in post with ongoing in-service training. These initiatives include the CRESCER programme, functioning through the ZIPs, and the use of distance education. The system of school clusters known as ZIPs is designed to allow teachers and head teachers from a number of different schools to meet regularly to exchange experiences, problems and solutions, in addition to the more formal in-service training and seminars now also provided through the ZIPs. However, there are considerable challenges involved, including administrative delays and bottlenecks in preparing and distributing training materials.

### ISSUES RAISED BY TEACHERS AND OTHER STAKEHOLDERS

In some of the areas visited, large-scale training programmes were in place, and the majority of untrained teachers were attending training at night school or through distance education programmes. These solutions were seen by many as being preferable to sending teachers away for long periods of full-time daytime training, which would take them away from the classroom where they are so badly needed. The situation varied from province to province and within the different provinces, with more being done in urban areas. This was a source of frustration to many rural teachers, who felt excluded from training opportunities they felt they needed: **“There are differences between rural and urban areas... above all in the access to facilities to continue studying, updating your skills. This means a teacher is more up to date, automatically more dynamic”** (male rural primary teacher). The logistics of getting to the urban centres where evening training classes take place make these completely inaccessible to rural teachers with no access to transport.

Another major source of frustration expressed by many teachers was the fact that access to study grants to attend full-time training courses was linked to the process of ‘nomination’ as a permanent teacher. The long delays in these procedures already discussed meant that large numbers of teachers were excluded from studying. This situation was confirmed by a provincial head of human resources: **“most of the teachers who want to study have not yet received their ‘nomination’. Without the ‘nomination’ it is not possible to apply”**. This frustration was in part due to the awareness that training is not only a key to improving classroom performance, it also opens the way to better opportunities: **“I’d like to go to the city of X to continue my studies because teachers are limited, they’re very limited here. If they arrive with grade 10 they will stay a long time with grade 10, without progressing”** (female rural secondary teacher). Finally, formal qualifications are also the key to moving up the salary scale. There is thus a strong motivation to receive formal training, which teachers perceive as providing the tools to make them better teachers and as giving them access to better jobs and better salaries.

Teachers were in general enthusiastic about the opportunities for in-service training they received through the ZIPs. They regretted that there were not more of these. One VSO volunteer observed the positive effect these training workshops can have on teachers’ morale: **“The teachers are very motivated about the workshops because it gives them different ideas about teaching. For example, one workshop was about how to use flipcharts. The next week, the teachers’ room was full of flipcharts!”**

7. The term ‘pre-service’ is rather misleading here, as many of those joining these teacher training courses have classroom experience (in some cases over many years) but no formal teacher training.

## SOLUTIONS SUGGESTED BY TEACHERS AND OTHER STAKEHOLDERS

- Continue to offer in-service training at evening school and extend this to rural teachers.
- Provide transport for rural teachers to enable them to attend evening training courses.
- Continue to offer training through distance education, and improve existing programmes.
- Process outstanding 'nominations' so that the teachers concerned can have access to the associated rights and benefits, including study grants.
- In the meantime, while the backlog is being processed, allow teachers who have been on temporary contracts for more than two years to apply for and obtain study grants.
- Continue and reinforce the in-service training opportunities delivered by the ZIPs and the CRESCER programme.

## CONDITIONS AND QUALITY OF TRAINING

### POLICY CONTEXT

There is concern in many quarters about the quality of teacher training delivered and its appropriateness to the reality of the Mozambican classroom. PEEC2/ESSP2 cites the variety of different programs for pre-service training, **"with separate administration, different levels of entry, different durations and varying modalities of delivery"** and admits that **"major concerns exist about the obvious implications of such diversity in terms of quality, efficiency, and costs"** (MEC, 2006: 43). Teacher training institutions tend to be staffed by qualified teachers, who have not received specific training in teacher training. However, being among the most highly qualified teachers available, they tend to be solicited for and to accept multiple professional activities, frequently affecting the quality of the training they are able to dispense. Teacher training institutions often lack training materials and information regarding the teacher training curriculum, leading to confusion and inconsistency in the delivery of training.

### ISSUES RAISED BY TEACHERS AND OTHER STAKEHOLDERS

Teachers also expressed concern about the quality and relevance of the training they had received. Some thought it was too theoretical and not sufficiently based on classroom practice. For example, they would have liked to have learned techniques for dealing with large classes or for teaching with very limited materials: **"I don't think the training we receive corresponds to the concrete reality of education today"** (female urban primary teacher). There was also a perception of a lack of uniformity between the different teacher training institutions, so that graduates from one had learned completely different principles and practices from graduates from another. This was confusing to both teachers and their pupils.

In the eyes of some participants, the inadequacies of the training were connected to the recruitment of trainees, which was not felt to be sufficiently selective. Places were given to trainees who had no desire and no motivation to become teachers: **"Those trainees leave there without having received an adequate preparation but why? This is ... because those who come to be trained have not been appropriately selected"** (an ex-teacher).

One trainee teacher felt that her course did not provide enough information about the realities of teaching in Mozambique, and so was not preparing trainees for their professional future: **"I think that our training should give us enough information about the conditions we are going to work in, you see, starting with the salaries and the conditions in schools that we'll come across, because we don't know anything about this reality"**.

The quality of the trainers was also cited as affecting the quality of training. Interestingly, many of the factors seen as affecting the performance of trainers within teacher training institutions were the same as those already identified in relation to teachers' performance in schools. These included subject knowledge, teaching technique and manner, overwork and absenteeism. Trainees were very clear that the competence and personality of the individual trainer were crucial, as these two contrasting testimonies demonstrate:

**"A lecturer or teacher cannot just come and give the classes and leave, they have to motivate you, they have to talk to the students, in a motivating way...But no, the lecturer comes and teaches the subject and leaves. That's not enough for a student. It's not enough!"** (female trainee teacher at UP).

**“We had a teacher last year, teacher X. You had to take your hat off to that teacher. He had real knowledge. He was not one of those teachers who just come and teach without knowing anything... He loved history, that’s something which makes me think, because he likes it, and I’d like to be like him. I know I’m young and it’s not possible, but that teacher is a model”** (female trainee teacher at UP).

VSO volunteers working in teacher training institutions also felt that trainers were not always providing adequate training, often due to having too many demands on their time:

**“A lot of [the teacher trainers] have other jobs. Not always here. This term in particular, there’s a lot of absenteeism. This is partly the pressure – there aren’t enough trainers here, so people are being asked to cover for others. They’re also doing work outside, so something has to give”** (VSO volunteer).

Organisational and planning factors within teacher training institutions were also cited as detracting from the quality of teacher training, with whole days and even weeks being lost due to poor organisation. One teacher remembered that during her training, one day a week would regularly be lost so that **“there was a lot we did not have time to learn. They had to summarise a lot of the course”** (female rural primary teacher). Likewise, a VSO volunteer described teacher training time being lost through poor planning:

**“The academic year was supposed to start in February, but didn’t start till March, because the rooms were needed for exams. But they could have anticipated this. When we finally start, we realise there are not enough rooms for the number of classes and have to resort to hiring rooms in town. This should have been ironed out in December. This is basic planning, not even new initiatives. So time is lost.”**

Another VSO volunteer put the difficulties in planning down to insufficient communication, meetings and team work within departments: **“There’s not enough sitting down and thinking what you want as a department. It’s all very individual. The examining is individual, so sometimes not cohesive”**.

#### **SOLUTIONS SUGGESTED BY TEACHERS AND OTHER STAKEHOLDERS**

- Improve the quality of teacher trainers through extra trainer training.
- Improve trainers’ salaries so they do not have to take additional jobs.
- Limit the number of additional jobs trainers may take.
- Standardise the curriculum and delivery of different teacher training institutions training at the same level.
- Revise the training curriculum and its delivery to be more relevant to classroom reality.
- Make teacher training less theoretical and more practical.
- Improve planning and systems within teacher training institutions.
- Train managers and administrators within teacher training institutions.
- Improve communication and systems within and between departments of teacher training institutions.

### 3.1.6 REMUNERATION PACKAGES

#### SALARY

##### POLICY CONTEXT

Teachers' salaries, which are determined by their academic qualifications, are based on the centrally approved salary scale for all public servants. All trained teachers should also benefit from subsidies defined by their professional qualifications. Teachers' salary differentials vary considerably, according to their level of education. The salary scales are complex, but some examples are given. The starting monthly salary for a teacher with primary education (grade 7) and no professional training is currently the equivalent of US\$ 66. The starting monthly salary for a teacher with grade 10 education is US\$96. A teacher who has completed grade 12 but has no professional training is initially paid US\$120 per month. If the same teacher has completed a basic teacher training course, this is increased by a 30 per cent subsidy for training, to US\$156. By contrast, a teacher who has an honours degree receives a starting salary of US\$296, topped up with a 60 per cent subsidy to US\$474 if they have professional training<sup>8</sup>.

The complexity of the salary scales makes it difficult to talk about average salaries. However, according to a recent UNESCO country report, **"While an EP1 teacher receives, on average, a salary, which corresponds to 3.5 GDP per capita, an EP2, ESG1 or ESG2 teacher's salary corresponds to 7.4, 15.8 and 23.8 GDP per capita, respectively"** (2006: 21).

In theory, teachers' salaries are automatically increased to reflect length of service (see section 3.1.1 Recruitment and deployment – Ministry procedures of recruitment, 'integration', promotion and career progression on page 20). Due to paralysis of the bureaucratic procedures involved, this frequently does not occur. Likewise, the bureaucracy associated with paying newly recruited teachers results in their first salary payments often being delayed by several months. Teachers on temporary contracts who are not yet public employees may experience this delay year after year, since they **"have to repeat the process every year, due to financial constraints"** (UNESCO, 2006: 20).

The level of salary of the newly qualified EP1 teachers, who will receive just one year of training, is yet to be determined but will depend on the salary component of the public sector reform (UNESCO, 2006: 21). Indeed, the decision to opt for this mode of training was based on financial considerations and the need to recruit additional teachers while reducing the overall salary bill:

**"In the assessments made by the FTI Secretariat and the external funding agencies supporting the ESSP the issue of teachers' salary level was raised as a concern. Together with the projected increase of the total number of primary school teachers, the high level of teachers' salary costs (relative to GDP per capita) would entail continued high dependency on external funding and hence constitutes a risk to the sustainability of the policy through which the proposal seeks to achieve universal primary school completion"** (Takala, 2004: 4).

Public sector salary policy is closely linked to IMF guidelines, although the wage caps that previously existed were removed in 2006 under pressure from donors, and the wage bill ceiling raised from 6.5 per cent to 7.5 per cent. In Mozambique, **"the PRGF [Poverty Reduction and Growth Facility] no longer includes a wage bill cap per se; however, stringency within the budget means that the government has continued to set a tight wage bill ceiling and even more restrictive monetary and fiscal targets"** (ActionAid, 2007: 10).

8. To understand these figures in some sort of context, it is important to bear in mind that both average incomes and the cost of living vary enormously between urban and rural areas. A rural teacher, even if paid at the lowest end of the salary scale, will tend to earn much more than his or her neighbours. However, an urban teacher on the same salary will earn far less than many other city dwellers. (VSO volunteers in Mozambique receive a monthly subsistence allowance of US\$448, in addition to their accommodation and medical costs, which is considered to be the minimum necessary for them to live safely.)

## ISSUES RAISED BY TEACHERS AND OTHER STAKEHOLDERS

The level of teachers' salaries was the issue that preoccupied teachers most and that they identified as having the most bearing overall on poor morale and motivation. As one participant put it:

**"The salary is our Achilles heel. That is where we have to begin"** (male urban secondary teacher).

Many participants made the connection between low salaries and the need to take second jobs, leading to absenteeism: **"They're missing classes all the time in order to earn money"** (VSO volunteer); or poor quality teaching: **"Teachers are not paid enough for what they do... And a lot of teachers have big families, so they can [need to] do 30 hours per week, so they can't prepare and the quality suffers"** (VSO volunteer).

Several teachers explicitly linked the questions of salary and motivation and performance. One teacher aspired to **"...work, get a reasonable salary, be OK, not be rich, just be OK. That's what would improve the quality of our teaching work"** (male rural primary teacher). Another believed that **"teachers would make more effort if they were paid better"** (female urban secondary teacher).

Many teachers, particularly male teachers, said they were unable to live decently and to support their families on their salaries: **"We are working, we want to have a family, but it's difficult with this salary we're given here, to have a family, have a house"**. Teachers' salaries are not enough to cover **"...the real cost of living, as far as food, healthcare and our children's education is concerned"** (male rural primary teacher). They do not feel able to afford adequate food, clothing and transport.

Salary levels were also given as a factor leading to corruption: **"I think the main secret is the remuneration. Teachers end up being corrupted; they end up doing a series of shameful things, precisely because they are badly paid"** (female urban secondary teacher).

Many teachers, particularly urban teachers, also made a direct connection between their low salaries and the fact that they did not feel they were respected in their communities: **"Why is the teacher despised today? He is despised because he cannot buy a meal, cannot have an adequate house to live in, and this does not exactly help a teacher's self-esteem"** (male urban secondary school teacher). Low pay makes teachers feel marginalised. The opinion was frequently voiced that better salaries would give teachers more credibility, better social status.

The feeling that salaries are too low is compounded by the delays in the procedures that would automatically lead to salary increases. Furthermore, many teachers claim that they often receive their salaries late. Others have to make complicated journeys to go and fetch their salaries, involving taking time off teaching every month. It was felt by many teachers that the practice of paying teachers according to their academic qualifications was unfair. They felt that salary increases are more beneficial to those teachers who are already better paid.

Tertiary stakeholders, particularly, but not only, MEC officials and cooperating partners, tended to consider that, given the limited resources available and high PTR, the priority should be hiring more trained teachers rather than increasing the salaries of existing teachers. They pointed to the solution recently adopted by MEC, as defined in conjunction with education donors, to recruit trainee teachers after grade 10 and give them one year's teacher training only (10+1). This will entitle them to significantly lower salaries than those of a trained teacher recruited after grade 10 and given two years' training, as was previously the norm. Since this plan has been adopted and is currently being implemented, they tended to express the opinion that it was not appropriate to discuss the possibility of raising teachers' salaries at present. They did not think it desirable for recurrent costs, such as salaries, to increase substantially, given the shortfall in the education budget and the dependence on external funding.

Several participants believed that in many communities, particularly rural ones, teachers are among the better-off members of the community, or even the only members of the community to have a formal salary at all.

There appeared to be a certain amount of confusion among tertiary stakeholders as to the actual situation regarding IMF wage caps. Some participants stated that the government had no leeway to increase salaries. Others expressed the view that the government chose to continue to behave as if caps were still in place.

## SOLUTIONS SUGGESTED BY TEACHERS AND OTHER STAKEHOLDERS

(The variety of – often contradictory – suggestions given here reflects the very different views of stakeholders at different levels.)

- Increase the basic salaries.  
OR
- Keep salaries at current levels and use the money to train more teachers.
- Use outside funding to increase teachers' salaries.  
OR
- Avoid using outside funding for recurrent expenses.
- Stop the practice of second jobs.  
OR
- Make official the practice of second jobs, including a quality requirement.
- Resolve the delays in administrative procedures leading to improved salary conditions, as this would result in a de facto salary increase for many teachers.
- Apply the existing salary rules properly.
- Make salary rules clear and communicate them to teachers.
- Reform the pay structure in favour of length of service, with less focus on academic qualifications.

## ALLOWANCES AND OTHER BENEFITS AND INCENTIVES

### POLICY CONTEXT

There is a complex system of allowances payable to teachers who have permanent status (teachers on temporary contracts are not eligible for these). For example, allowances may be paid to teachers who accept posts in rural areas. However:

**“...the payment depends on both location and on teacher qualification. For the teachers with low qualifications (the bulk of primary teachers) there is no allowance at all. For teachers with a mid-level qualification... the difference between teaching in a provincial town and a remote school is relatively small (only 14 per cent of salary)”**

(Mulkeen, 2005: 13).

Allowances are also payable to head teachers and deputy heads. Another type of allowance is paid to teachers who teach two shifts, who receive an allowance of 60 per cent of their basic salary. This allowance undermines the incentive effect of the allowance paid to rural teachers, since **“Two shift schools are found more frequently in the areas of a high population density, and so teachers in towns and cities are more likely to have the option of additional earnings from this source”** (Mulkeen, 2005: 13).

Non-financial incentives include meals provided for teachers by some schools during the intensive periods of work marking examinations and collating students' marks.

### ISSUES RAISED BY TEACHERS AND OTHER STAKEHOLDERS

Many teachers said they were not receiving the allowances they are entitled to. There is much confusion among teachers as to the different allowances, and how they work. Often, administrative staff do not appear to be informed about the allowances for which teachers are eligible. Practice appears to vary from district to district. Some teachers thought they were missing out on allowances they were entitled to but did not have enough information to know: **“If they do exist we don't know about it”** (female rural primary school teacher). For example, some teachers in rural schools thought they should be eligible for the allowance paid to teachers in rural schools but said the district human resources personnel claimed they knew nothing about this.

Some participants believe that teachers are sometimes appointed as heads before having received their 'integration' as basic teachers, making them ineligible for the head teacher's allowance. Several teachers and head teachers report they are acting as head teachers or deputies but not receiving the appropriate allowance: **“What I deplore is that colleagues are assuming the responsibilities of the head's job, without receiving the allowance”** (a former head teacher).

One point frequently raised by teachers is that they are not paid for non-teaching tasks and responsibilities, such as being head of year or subject group coordinator. Some teachers felt this led to these extra roles being neglected. Many teachers mentioned the increase in workload at exam times, and the fact that they are not paid for this. Teachers at some schools are provided with food during these periods, as an incentive, but this practice is not systematic. One teacher explained that **“At exam times, it’s hard for us. The teacher is there until 3pm without even receiving a glass of water, but we have to work without. In fact it would be very good to have a snack”** (female urban secondary teacher).

Teachers also explained that they were at a disadvantage compared to other public sector employees since, although their basic salaries may also be low, public servants in other sectors (including administrators within the education system) have opportunities to take part in meetings, seminars and training courses, often funded by development projects, which pay generous travel allowances and per diems, which may add up to several times more than the basic salary. Teachers felt excluded from these benefits and that, in a system where all public servants need to find alternative sources of income to boost their inadequate public sector salaries, not having access to these opportunities meant they had no choice but to take second jobs or find other ways of supplementing their income.

#### SOLUTIONS SUGGESTED BY TEACHERS AND OTHER STAKEHOLDERS

- Implement the existing rules properly.
- Inform teachers of the allowances to which they are entitled.
- Train administrative staff to explain the allowances to teachers and to pay the correct allowances.
- Ensure funding is available to pay allowances as entitled.

#### ACCOMMODATION

##### POLICY CONTEXT

The Ministry does not normally provide housing for teachers, although some school construction programmes include a house for the head teacher, and others provide a limited number of houses for teachers. However, **“some NGOs and even local communities, have constructed teacher housing in an attempt to make rural locations more attractive”** (Mulkeen, 2005: 14). Given the enormous challenge of building enough classrooms, priority has been given to school construction rather than building accommodation for teachers.

##### ISSUES RAISED BY TEACHERS AND OTHER STAKEHOLDERS

**“Housing is important. A teacher needs to have a place to organise himself, to prepare lessons”** (tertiary stakeholder).

Many teachers, particularly in rural areas, cited inadequate housing as a major problem in their lives. Teachers described arriving in rural postings and having to live in inadequate housing, or share with other teachers, or be lodged in the houses of members of the community. They felt this had a very negative impact both on their well-being and on their perceived status in the community. Some teachers described specific problems they had encountered. One female teacher in a rural primary school showed the group scars of snakebites to illustrate her experience: **“The house I was given to live in was full of cobras. I had to go and sleep with the children. It was a problem”**.

For many teachers sent to postings far from home, their experience of isolation was compounded by inadequate housing. Teachers used to living in a town suddenly find themselves in an isolated village, in a hut built of reeds or other local materials, without electricity, mobile phone cover or access to water. One provincial head of human resources explained: **“Some of them arrive and when they get there they see that it’s not going to be possible. Some of them went to X, where there was no way of communicating with their families, no telephone and no light. And when the water crisis came, many of them gave up and went back home”**. One male teacher in a rural school described how, when he arrived, **“...there was not really anywhere for me to live, so the school head gave me a part of his office to live in”**.

Urban teachers also describe having problems finding decent, affordable housing. Several described building a house, room by room, by buying small amounts of building materials each time they receive their salary. Others do not manage to do that: **“It’s very difficult – the salary is not enough for me to build one to at least house my family. It’s very sad and demotivating”** (female urban secondary teacher).

One of the factors contributing to teachers’ housing problems, as identified by a provincial human resources director, is that teachers do not have access to credit, so they may have to build a house over several years, buying small amounts of building materials at a time. He explained his belief that **“...teachers need to have access to credit to resolve their personal problems, meet their basic needs...With credit they could manage to at least build a modest house”**.

#### SOLUTIONS SUGGESTED BY TEACHERS AND OTHER STAKEHOLDERS

- Ensure decent housing for teachers, as part of an overall support package.
- Encourage communities to build accommodation for teachers.
- Create mechanisms to give teachers access to credit, either through preferential rates at commercial banks or through micro credit schemes<sup>9</sup>.

#### MEDICAL AND FUNERAL COVER

##### POLICY CONTEXT

One-and-a-half per cent of teachers’ monthly salaries is automatically deducted to pay for medical cover for themselves and their families. The teacher receives a card that is supposed to give entitlement to highly subsidised treatment and medicine. Another automatic deduction of 0.5 per cent is made to cover basic funeral expenses. In the event of a teacher or a family member dying, this is supposed to cover the cost of a coffin.

##### ISSUES RAISED BY TEACHERS AND OTHER STAKEHOLDERS

Many teachers reported that, although the cost of medical assistance is deducted from their salaries, they do not get any benefit from this, as health centres and pharmacies do not recognise the cards they are given. When teachers produce the card, they are either refused treatment, or kept waiting until all the other patients have been seen and then given inadequate care. **“They deduct it from our salaries but we don’t get any benefit”** (female rural primary teacher). Some participants suspect that there is not actually a functioning agreement with the Ministry of Health to provide health cover to teachers.

Not only does the medical cover scheme appear not to work, it may even be prejudicial to health, as teachers report receiving inappropriate treatment when they show the card: **“You can go and take it to the pharmacy... There they’ll give you paracetamol, even if it’s not an illness that should be treated with paracetamol, because you showed that card”** (female rural primary teacher).

Teachers also reported that the funeral cover was not satisfactory because it took too long to be paid, whereas funerals have to be organised rapidly after a death.

##### SOLUTIONS SUGGESTED BY TEACHERS AND OTHER STAKEHOLDERS

- Promote better inter-Ministry cooperation to ensure social benefits (in particular, clarify the status of medical cover with the Ministry of Health).
- Improve communication with and training of health workers.
- Decentralise the administration of the funeral grant to district level to enable it to be delivered rapidly.
- Create agreements with funeral directors to bill the SDEJT directly in cases involving the funeral grant, to prevent delays.

9. On a recent study tour to Zambia, representatives of MEPT, ONP and VSO learned, during a meeting with the Basic Education Teachers’ Union of Zambia (BETUZ), that the union has entered into a partnership with a private finance company to enable them to offer low interest loans to teachers to enable them to build appropriate accommodation. The possibilities for a similar scheme in Mozambique could be explored, using the learning from and in liaison with BETUZ.

## 3.2 SOCIAL AND COMMUNITY FACTORS

The role of the teacher in the community and in society at large and the associated sense of social identity play a crucial role in determining the teacher's level of morale and motivation. Teachers cited a large number of factors that can be categorised as being related to their relationship with society and the community in which they live and work, and their relationship with their pupils.

### 3.2.1 TEACHERS' VALUE AND STATUS IN THE COMMUNITY

#### *COMMUNITY PERCEPTIONS OF TEACHERS AND TEACHERS' ROLE IN THE COMMUNITY*

##### ISSUES RAISED BY TEACHERS AND OTHER STAKEHOLDERS

Opinions as to community perception of teachers were extremely varied. These depended in part, though not exclusively, on whether the community in question was a rural or an urban one. Many teachers regretted the fact that, whereas in the past the teacher had been a highly respected figure, a 'personality', who had acted as scribe and reader to the illiterate majority of community members, this role had more or less disappeared. Many teachers thought that a variation on this perception continued in rural communities: **"In rural areas, the teacher carries more weight than in a city; I mean, the teacher in a rural area is seen as, how can I say, as a judge. He is everything: most people come to him whenever they have a problem, they come running to the teacher"**. Rural parents too were considered as still being rather in awe of teachers: **"They look on the teacher as someone who has a magic wand and who can do everything they as a parent can't do"** (female ex-teacher).

In contrast to this, the general perception was that urban teachers were no longer respected, partly due to the perceived loss of traditional values and modes of behaviour in recent years, but mostly because teachers are seen as being impoverished: **"In order for the community to have a good impression of teachers, the teachers must have a good standard of living. There are teachers who live in poor conditions, who do not live well, and the community judges them accordingly... Our salary is not sufficient to meet our needs. We have problems"** (female urban secondary teacher). Teachers' frustration at their low salaries was therefore compounded by the sense that, through no fault of their own, their poor standard of living meant they were no longer respected.

This ambivalence is summed up by a male rural secondary school teacher who said: **"I think that it's a profession that confers a certain prestige on a person, except that the pleasure in being a teacher is overtaken by the needs a teacher has"**.

##### SOLUTIONS SUGGESTED BY TEACHERS AND OTHER STAKEHOLDERS

The solutions suggested were mainly linked to the question of low salaries and were the same as those given in section 3.1.6 Remuneration packages – Salary (see page 40).

#### *COMMUNITY AND PARENT INTEREST IN THE SCHOOL AND INVOLVEMENT IN CHILDREN'S OVERALL EDUCATION*

##### POLICY CONTEXT

Parents' associations have recently been established to participate in the running of schools, in conjunction with the existing school councils, which contain parents and community representatives. It is hoped that this will lead to greater involvement of parents in school matters. There have also been initiatives to create stronger links between schools and the surrounding communities.

##### ISSUES RAISED BY TEACHERS AND OTHER STAKEHOLDERS

In some cases, the relationship between the school and the community seemed to be a very positive one. Examples were given of community involvement in school construction programmes, and in building houses for teachers (see section 3.1.3 Material working conditions – School infrastructure, on page 28). A few teachers spoke of feeling supported by parents.

However, many felt the desired 'partnership' between parents and school had not yet been achieved: **"I don't think society sees the school as it ought to, as a partner, as an actor that also needs a lot of support from the parents, and we haven't yet arrived at the stage of having a strong partnership between parents and teachers. I think this is what is missing"** (a female ex-teacher).

Many teachers spoke of parents' and guardians' lack of interest in their children's education (many children are looked after by guardians, either because they are orphans, or because their parents are elsewhere). Children may also be kept away from school, not because education is not valued, but because they are needed to do chores, such as fetching water or selling food in the market or to look after siblings. Or as soon as they arrive home from school, they may be sent out to work, meaning there is no time or opportunity to do homework: **"As soon as the child gets there, they say 'pack that up quickly and go to the market; go quickly, it's time to bring in some money now'"** (female urban primary teacher).

It is often girls who are kept at home, while boys go to school. One participant explained this as a consequence of the traditional practice of girls becoming part of their husband's family when they marry, so that they and their labour are lost to their birth family. This means that when a family cannot afford to send all its children to school, they will tend to send the boys, who will remain in the family:

**"The boys are the ones who will remain with me; I've no kind of any social security scheme. Therefore when I will be not able to produce for myself, someone has to support me. It will not be the girl, because the girl does not belong to my family any more. Then if I have to invest, will I invest in the one that goes or in the one that later will be taking care of me? It is so simple as that. It is not that the parents don't like the girls or because they are bad guys"** (tertiary participant).

According to this participant, the solution to this type of problem is as much linked to material development as to changing mentalities. If the nearest source of water is 10 kilometres away, someone has to go and get that water, and a girl will probably be sent. If water is available in the village, the parents are more likely to send the girl to school.

### SOLUTIONS SUGGESTED BY TEACHERS AND OTHER STAKEHOLDERS

- Encourage and strengthen community-based schemes to build schools and teachers' houses.
- Pursue economic development, such as providing water and livelihood opportunities for parents.
- Create conditions that do not require children to work, so that they are free to go to school.

### 3.2.2 STUDENT ISSUES

Students are at the centre of the teacher's professional life. Teachers spoke of many ways in which their morale is affected, both positively and negatively by their relationship with their students and by their students' well-being.

#### **STUDENTS' BEHAVIOUR, ACHIEVEMENT AND INTEREST IN LEARNING**

Problems of classroom discipline, when these occur, greatly undermine teachers' morale. Pupils' behaving badly at school is often attributed by teachers to the lack of respect for teachers that contemporary parents transmit to their children, especially when teachers are perceived as being impoverished. Teachers are also affected by pupils who are not interested in learning or who do not progress. The perceived obligation to allow all pupils to pass into the next class under the new curriculum (discussed above) was a major factor in sapping teachers' morale: **"How can a pupil arrive in grade 5 without being able to read or write, without knowing anything? Do you know?"** (female rural primary teacher)

Conversely, teachers described finding great satisfaction in their pupils' achievement and success: **"I feel happy to have taught pupils who today are our colleagues"** (male rural secondary teacher).

### **NON-TEACHING ROLES OF TEACHERS**

Teachers often mentioned the various non-teaching roles they are called on to play in relation to their pupils (for example, being a role model or providing pastoral care), as factors that may add to or detract from their motivation. Although teachers described being motivated by being able to act as a counsellor or role model for pupils, sometimes the sheer weight of the social problems facing their pupils demoralised them.

Many teachers felt they had to play the role of a sort of substitute parent, when parents either were dead or absent or neglected their children's wider education. They described having to teach children to wash and dress themselves: **"Sometimes the father goes out first and leaves the kid just anyhow, so the teacher has to take responsibility for everything, has to teach him to wash himself etc"**. Others described the need to talk to pupils about health matters, particularly HIV & AIDS, as the parents would probably not do this.

Many teachers, particularly but not exclusively female teachers, described playing a pastoral role with their pupils. Many female teachers spoke of large numbers of female students leaving school, often because they are pregnant, or because the parents want them to get married, and of trying to intervene to prevent this. They would go to the family home to talk to the girls' parents or try to persuade the girls themselves to stay on at school. **"You can't let your daughter get married so early because in the future, she'll need her education...Don't let her get married now...I have to insist, go right to their house. If the child's pregnant, let her come to school with her belly. I think that there my role is to motivate both the girl and her parents"**.

### **SOLUTIONS SUGGESTED BY TEACHERS AND OTHER STAKEHOLDERS**

- Engage with parents and guardians through parents' associations, school councils and other civil society groups to raise awareness of parental responsibilities.
- Create forums to discuss girls' education, HIV & AIDS issues and school discipline with parents and guardians.
- Ensure teacher training programmes include culturally appropriate approaches to classroom and behaviour management, gender and HIV & AIDS issues and pastoral care issues.

## **3.3 PERSONAL FACTORS**

The final series of factors that affect teachers' motivation can be considered as personal factors. These concern issues relating to the personal satisfaction derived from their profession and to their individual and their families' well-being.

### **3.3.1 INDIVIDUAL PROFESSIONAL SATISFACTION**

#### **ISSUES OF SELF-ESTEEM AND CONFIDENCE, THE ABILITY TO EVOLVE AND GROW AND TO RESPOND TO CHALLENGES**

A few teachers described a sense of personal development, which evolved as they were able to learn through the profession: **"When I'm in front of the class, when I'm teaching, I'm also learning. There are things I didn't know, but since I became a teacher, while I'm teaching, I'm learning more"** (male rural secondary teacher).

Often, teachers wanted to develop and grow professionally, but felt their ability to develop was thwarted by not being able to study, often because of not being able to get a grant: **"My ambition is to go to university, to continue studying"** (male urban secondary teacher).

#### **ENJOYMENT OF THE JOB AND COMMITMENT**

Certain teachers said they had always wanted to teach and spoke of having a vocation: **"I dreamed of becoming a teacher; I liked it and here I am"** (female rural secondary teacher). **"Ever since I was a child, it was my dream. I used to take the other children, sit down under a tree and say, 'I'm the teacher"**. Some teachers spoke of their vision of education in the development of the country and their desire to play a role in that:

**“Almost every day I’m happy; there are not many days when I’m not, because being a teacher I know that I’m part of the fight against extreme poverty, I’m combating illiteracy, and I’m in the classroom transmitting messages to my pupils and also receiving many back from them. We are taking part in the fight against the great scourges. It’s good to be a teacher”** (male rural secondary teacher).

Others spoke of their enjoyment of teaching: **“I love being a teacher; I think I’ll die a teacher. I want to be a teacher in spite of everything”** (male rural primary teacher). One technical school teacher spoke of the satisfaction of knowing that he had managed to **“...train men for life outside of school”**. A former teacher, who has since left the profession, remembered with nostalgia the feeling of pride she felt as she watched her first pupils leave school.

A number of teachers said they had initially begun teaching through a lack of other opportunities. Other options were either too expensive or too competitive: **“Because it was difficult to get into other sectors, I ended up by becoming a teacher”** (male rural primary teacher). In some cases at least, what began as a forced choice made through lack of other alternatives turned into enjoyment: **“My guardian said that if I wanted to study, I could only take a training course... I didn’t like education but today I like it very much”** (male rural primary teacher).

### 3.3.2 PERSONAL AND FAMILY WELL-BEING

Many issues raised by teachers concerned their general well-being and standard of living and that of their families. Generally these questions were closely associated with that of salary level and the impossibility of ensuring a family’s health, safety and food security on a teacher’s salary. These issues have been discussed in section 3.1.6 Remuneration packages – Salary (see page 40). The other frequently raised aspect of personal well-being was the question of access to transport.

#### **TRANSPORT**

##### **POLICY CONTEXT**

PEEC2/ESSP2 does not include policy provision for dealing with the question of teachers’ transport.

##### **ISSUES RAISED BY TEACHERS AND OTHER STAKEHOLDERS**

Access to transport was a major concern for many teachers, particularly in rural areas. Not having access to transport exacerbated the problems of remote rural postings. Many teachers live a certain distance from their schools and have to get to work any way they can, whether by xapa 100 (collective minibus taxi) or by hitching a lift with a passing vehicle. Even if they live in or near the remote school, the lack of transport prevents teachers from going into town. In remote country areas, poor roads and limited public transport make the distances seem even greater. Even when an area does have a public transport service, this does not always turn up: **“There are moments I go through every day waiting for the xapa 100, and the xapa 100 is late coming, it doesn’t turn up, so I often have to walk several times a day. I have to walk about 7km”** (male rural primary teacher). Living in remote areas without transport means teachers and their families often do not have easy access to medical care.

Lack of transport compounded the difficulty of dealing with administrative procedures. Teachers have to get to the administrative capital to hand in their request and file. Sometimes this can involve travelling for several hours on irregular and erratic public transport. Once they arrive, travel-weary, at their destination, **“...they have to get in a long queue and wait for one if not two days because they have come at a time when the whole province is there”** (male rural primary teacher).

As is explained above in section 3.1.5 Training, self-improvement and learning – Access to training and professional support (see page 37), not having access to transport is also an impediment to rural teachers continuing with their education at night school:

**“I believe that teachers deserve a means of transport. There are teachers who live a long way away. And then there are evening classes and the teachers get out late and can’t have a xapa to go home. And then the following day they have to be here... I think there should be transport for teachers. That is not a luxury but a necessity”** (female urban secondary teacher).

As in so many cases, these quotations demonstrate the interconnectedness of the different issues raised: access to training is linked to access to transport; the phenomenon of teachers suffering while carrying out complex administrative procedures is connected to the delays in and cost of transport. In certain areas, teachers from one school club together each month to pool their monthly salaries, so that one of them at a time can buy a motorbike. This idea requires teachers to trust one another to carry on pooling their salaries until the end and the last teacher has a motorbike. In some cases, everything goes wrong and the teachers at the end of the list never actually receive a motorbike.

#### SOLUTIONS SUGGESTED BY TEACHERS AND OTHER STAKEHOLDERS

- Provide transport for teachers, either by laying on busses and xapas, or by enabling teachers to buy their own vehicles or motorbikes.
- Give teachers access to credit so they can invest in motorbikes or bicycles.
- Encourage teachers to continue to club together to buy motorbikes, which are either shared or are bought for each member of the syndicate in turn.

### 3.4 CROSS-CUTTING FACTORS

The strategic plan for education highlights various inequalities within the country, which it seeks to address:

**“Educational opportunity and the delivery of services are not distributed uniformly among the regions of Mozambique. Reducing regional disparities, as well as disparities between rich and poor, boys and girls, and urban and rural populations, is a major goal. ESSP 2 investments will be targeted to begin to redress these disparities”** (MEC, 2006: 19).

Three of these cross-cutting or transversal themes: urban/rural differences, gender and regional and ethnic factors were chosen as a particular focus for this study.

#### 3.4.1 SCHOOL LOCATION (URBAN AND RURAL)

##### POLICY CONTEXT

Mozambique is a large country, covering 800,000 square kilometres, with a population of around 19 million inhabitants, two-thirds of whom live in rural areas, many in extreme poverty. More than 80 per cent of poor households live in rural areas, depending on subsistence farming, but agricultural productivity is very low. Rural communities are extremely vulnerable to the recurrent natural disasters such as droughts and floods that affect Mozambique, particularly the southern and central regions, often leading to food insecurity. In 2002, about 66 per cent of poor farmers lost their crops to natural calamities. Many rural areas are extremely isolated and travel is difficult. Much of the road network in rural areas of the country is in very poor condition and basic services are inadequate. Two-thirds of rural people live more than an hour’s walk from the closest health unit. Only 60 per cent have access to safe water (Rural poverty portal, URL).

Rural children are disadvantaged in terms of access to education. There are insufficient schools and often the quality of the school infrastructure is extremely poor. Rural children tend to have uneducated parents: more than two-thirds of rural Mozambicans are illiterate. For teachers as well, working in rural schools presents challenges of accessibility and transport.

As discussed in section 3.1.1 Recruitment and deployment (see page 19) and 3.1.6 Remuneration packages (see page 40), many teachers, particularly female teachers, do not wish to accept rural posts. The incentives intended to encourage teachers to accept rural postings do not in fact make these postings more attractive than urban ones. Mulkeen concludes that **“...the current deployment system is not working effectively... The logical distribution of teachers between provinces is undermined by an inability to enforce deployment. Teachers who are given undesirable deployments can refuse the post, and can later apply for and get posts in urban areas”** (2005: 7–8).

#### ISSUES RAISED BY TEACHERS AND OTHER STAKEHOLDERS

As we have already seen, the urban/rural distinction was the only one to provide significantly different results during the quantitative analysis. Rural teachers were more preoccupied by the question of housing than urban teachers. Rural teachers also laid more emphasis on salary as a factor in improving their professional performance, whereas urban teachers stressed material working conditions more. This preoccupation with housing is consistent with the focus group findings that inadequate housing is a major source of unhappiness for rural teachers, along with lack of access to transport.

In rural areas, teachers will not be completely accepted unless they are able to communicate in the local language. One teacher said: **“This school is in the countryside. When we have meetings, the teacher must speak in the local language in order to transmit a message to the parents and guardians, and this is difficult for me”** (male rural primary teacher). For teachers who have been sent to work in rural areas, this means that if they do not speak the local language(s), they will be excluded from a large section of community life, not helping their sense of belonging and well-being. This is not the case in urban areas, where any meetings will be held in Portuguese.

On the other hand, we have seen that teachers tend to have much higher credibility in rural areas than urban. This is probably in part because of their relative salaries, despite what the ranking revealed about rural participants placing more emphasis on salary than urban ones. A rural teacher, even on one of the lowest salary possible, is likely to earn as much or more than his neighbours in the same village (many of whom will earn nothing or almost nothing). In contrast, urban teachers have salaries that just do not come close to comparing with those of other urban professionals, for the reasons discussed in section 3.1.6 Remuneration packages (see page 40). Rural areas tend to be conservative, and tend to look on teachers as pillars of the community and a source of help to anyone who needs a letter writing or a form filling in.

As we have already seen, gender interacts with the urban/rural distinction. There are more problems relating to girls' access to school and low numbers of female teachers in rural areas than in urban ones.

In spite of these differences, no significant difference was found in terms of levels of motivation between teachers living and teaching in urban and rural communities.

#### SOLUTIONS SUGGESTED BY TEACHERS AND OTHER STAKEHOLDERS

The main differences between the preoccupations of teachers deployed in rural areas and those working in urban schools concern accessibility and transport, housing, salary concerns and language difficulties. Participants' suggestions regarding all of these subjects except for the last are given in the relevant sections. Only recommendations regarding language difficulties are given here:

- Only deploy teachers in communities where they speak the local language.
- Recruit and train more teachers from language communities where there is a shortage of teachers who speak the local language.
- If the above are not possible, provide local language training for teachers before deploying them.

### 3.4.2 GENDER

#### POLICY CONTEXT

The question of gender in Mozambican society is complex. A tension between a traditional, conservative, polygamous society, in which women had few rights and power was concentrated in the hands of men, and the radical philosophy of total equality promoted by the independence movement still underlies many attitudes and much behaviour.

Under the Mozambican constitution, men and women have equal rights. The government of Mozambique is explicitly committed to addressing gender equity and the presence of many women in high-level government jobs testifies to this commitment. The National Plan for the Advancement of Women (2001) provides a framework for priorities, strategies and goals of the country as a whole, in which education plays a key role. The main focus of MEC so far has been in addressing the disparities in access to education.

**“This has been particularly successful in the first five grades of primary education where the percentage of girls has grown from 43% in 1999 to 46% in 2005. A further area of attention has been the recruitment of female teachers. Although the overall percentage of female teachers remains low (32% of the teaching force with discrepancies between regions and urban and rural areas), recent steps have boosted the enrolment of female teacher trainees”** (MEC, 2006: 64).

However, there are still huge gender disparities in enrolment at higher levels of education. Also, gender often interacts with regional and ethnic factors and with urban/rural differences. Significant regional and geographical differences exist between provinces and within provinces and between districts, with enrolment rates for girls tending to be lower in the northern provinces. Over one-third of the 148 districts has a gender gap of more than 10 per cent. These gender and regional differences in enrolment rates correlate strongly with poverty. Girls also have lower completion rates than boys.

Girls are also disproportionately affected by HIV & AIDS, due both to higher prevalence rates among girls and because girls are the first to be withdrawn from school if there is a case of HIV or AIDS (MEC, 2006: 65).

In many cases, girls leave school because of sexual abuse at school or because they marry or get pregnant very young. In others, they are withdrawn from school by parents who require them to work or to perform domestic chores.

MEC's strategic plan highlights the need for strategies to encourage the enrolment and retention of girls, to protect them from sexual abuse, particularly in boarding schools, to promote awareness of the importance of girls' education among parents and community members, and to promote the recruitment of female teachers, **“...establishing mechanisms that will provide support for female teachers in rural areas, and encouraging women to apply for promotion to administrative and management positions”** (MEC, 2006: 66).

#### ISSUES RAISED BY TEACHERS AND OTHER STAKEHOLDERS

The question of gender covers a wide range of issues relating to teachers' motivation, from questions associated with female pupils to those to do with the direct well-being of female teachers themselves.

As we have already seen, gender interacts with both regional issues and the urban/rural distinction. Girls are less likely to go to school after a certain age in certain parts of the country and in rural areas as opposed to cities. There is a number of reasons for this, ranging from fear of sexual harassment from male teachers to being required to perform chores at home. In addition, girls, particularly in rural areas, are often required to marry very young, which is another reason they are often withdrawn from school. Teachers expressed concern about girls' pregnancies and premature marriages and often said they tried to talk parents into letting their daughters stay at school. Female teachers frequently spoke of the need to provide positive role models for girl students and to encourage them to remain at school.

**“I would like girl pupils to be more motivated to get on as students because, seen from here in the countryside, when a girl reaches 12 years old, she thinks she’s grown up and wants to get married. So we have to motivate girls more so that they don’t keep hold of this wrong idea, or all think they’re already grown up. As soon as they’ve done grade 5, for them, they think they’ve studied a lot, and so to motivate them we can say, ‘Hey, you have done grade 5 and now you’re going to continue with your studies, even if you have children’. There has to be a different mentality”** (female rural primary teacher).

Female teachers also appear to be more concerned with material working conditions than male teachers, although this difference is not significant. Likewise, female teachers do not tend to want to live in precarious accommodation in the countryside, which is one reason why they often don’t want to accept rural postings. Interestingly, there was no significant difference in the ranking between female and male teachers, demonstrating that the factors that affect motivation are similar for male and female teachers. This is in spite of the fact that the female and male focus groups were carried out separately and so could not have influenced one another.

### SOLUTIONS SUGGESTED BY TEACHERS AND OTHER STAKEHOLDERS

Suggestions relating to housing and deployment are given in the relevant sections (see pages 20 and 44). Only suggestions relating to the other gender-related issues raised are given here.

- Continue to work towards achieving gender parity in pupil enrolment and retention rates.
- Continue to work towards gender parity in the recruitment of trainee teachers.
- Include explicit focus on gender issues in all teacher training programmes.
- Encourage and train female teachers to consider themselves as role models for girls.
- Promote policies to encourage girls to value education and stay on at school, for example mentor schemes, girls’ clubs.
- Reinforce the existing policies concerning sexual harassment and abuse of pupils by teachers.
- Include gender issues, including sexual harassment and abuse of pupils, in in-service teacher training.

### 3.4.3 REGIONAL AND ETHNIC FACTORS

#### POLICY CONTEXT

Mozambique is a very long country with a 2,000km coastline covering various distinct climate zones. Administratively, the 11 provinces are considered as belonging to three distinct regions. The northern region comprises the provinces of Niassa, Cabo Delgado, Tête and Nampula; the central region consists of Zambézia, Sofala and Manica; and the southern region is made up of Inhambane, Gaza, Maputo Province and Maputo City. Important geographical, climatic, religious and cultural differences exist between and within the regions and between and within the different provinces.

Like many countries whose borders were initially determined under colonialism, many different ethnic groups live within Mozambique, and Mozambicans often feel they have more in common culturally with members of the same group from across the border than with other Mozambicans from a different part of the country. Ethnicity determines the language(s) spoken. Only a small number of Mozambicans speak Portuguese as their mother tongue, and these will have grown up in educated families in an urban setting. The vast majority of the population speaks as mother tongue the language(s) of their ethnic group. Portuguese is learned at school, meaning that speaking Portuguese tends to be associated with education: people who have not been to school tend to have little or no knowledge of Portuguese.

Enormous regional differences exist in terms of relative standards of living and poverty. Likewise, within the education system, regional disparities exist, for example in terms of access to education. On average, primary enrolment and completion rates are lower in the northern and central provinces (especially for girls) (MEC, 2006: 22). Similar variation exists in secondary school enrolments. For example, in Nampula, 12.2 per cent of the school age population is enrolled in ESG1, against 95.3 per cent for Maputo City; only 32.8 per cent of secondary students in Nampula are girls, against 53.4 per cent for Maputo City. (MEC, 2006: 33).

Pupil-teacher ratios (PTRs) and the ratio of pupils to qualified teachers (PQTRs) also demonstrate enormous regional variation. In 2004, the most extreme gap was between Zambézia, which had a PTR of 100 and a PQTR of 161, and Maputo City, which had a PTR of 54 and a PQTR of 59 (Mulkeen, 2005: 7). Regional differences concerning the numbers of female teachers are also striking. In 2003, 29 per cent of all EP1 teachers were women. However, whereas in Cabo Delgado the figure was 12 per cent, in Maputo City, 61 per cent were women.

PEEC2/ESSP2 recognises these regional inequalities and that addressing the issue of regional disparities is a key to improving the performance of the whole education system (MEC, 2006: 66). However it gives less prominence to the objective of regional equality than to that of achieving gender parity.

#### ISSUES RAISED BY TEACHERS AND OTHER STAKEHOLDERS

The research was carried out all over the country, and teachers and other education stakeholders from all regions took part. In spite of some visible difference between regions (in the north of Mozambique, female teachers are more likely to wear traditional African costumes than in Maputo, where most teachers wear Western style clothes; and certain areas are more prosperous than others, to give just two examples), the factors that teachers mentioned as affecting their motivation, morale and well-being did not differ from region to region.

Where teachers were working in a community where they did not speak the language, they can encounter problems of integration and acceptance by the community, as discussed in section 3.4.1 School location (urban and rural) (see page 49). In addition to the practical problems of communicating without a common language, these problems of integration extend to a cultural tendency to feel more comfortable with members of one's own ethnic group. There is some overlap between regional/ethnic and rural/urban issues as far as language is concerned. Although in an urban context teachers might speak a different mother tongue from the rest of the community, they would be more likely to be able to communicate with them using Portuguese, thus reducing the communication problem. Although the problem of teachers from one ethnic group being considered as outsiders by a community is not restricted to rural communities, it appears to be less acutely felt in urban communities, probably because of the possibility of communicating through Portuguese.

It is possible that in the north of the country, administrative procedures involving the Administrative Court, which is based in Maputo, take longer than in the south, but this is impossible to verify in the present study.

#### SOLUTIONS SUGGESTED BY TEACHERS AND OTHER STAKEHOLDERS

The recommendations concerning regional and ethnic issues are given in the sections 3.1.1 Recruitment and deployment (see page 19) and 3.4.1 School location (urban and rural) (see page 49).

### 3.5 SUMMARY OF FINDINGS

The findings overall show that the state of motivation and morale of Mozambican teachers is complex. On the one hand, they are committed to the profession and wish to continue in their roles as educators and trainers of the citizens of tomorrow. They believe in education as a key to their country's future development and success, and wish to play their role in that development. On the other hand, many teachers are weary and frustrated at not having the means and the necessary conditions to play that role. They cite a large number of factors, institutional, social and personal, which impede their ability to perform well and which sap their morale. These factors are often interrelated and perpetuate one another in a complex dynamic relationship.

The first one of these is salary, which teachers see as the primary source of their problems: the material hardship, health problems and social stigma associated with low salaries undermine their well-being and self-esteem and their ability to work effectively. Furthermore, the need to have second and even third jobs in order to survive detracts from their ability to do any of these jobs well.

The second most important factor overall is material working conditions. The strain of teaching large classes with insufficient materials in schools that are often in very poor condition is compounded by other factors, such as a lack of training in how to approach these conditions. Quality of teaching is undermined by inadequate infrastructure and resources, and pupils do not progress as they should, which further dents teachers' morale and self-esteem.

The third most important factor overall is the question of training. Once again, this reveals a complex situation, as training is not only a key to greater self-confidence and competence in the classroom, but also leads to higher social status and an improved salary.

The fourth most important factor raised by the research is another complex one: this concerns the administrative procedures governing professional status that should also give access to improved salary, a sense of recognition and enhanced confidence and social status.

So, although a superficial analysis of the ranking of these factors by teachers reveals a hierarchy, in fact, the underlying reality is far more complex, as the qualitative findings demonstrate. Furthermore, although these factors stand out as those that were of critical importance to the majority, the many other factors cited as affecting teachers' morale and motivation are also extremely important to the complex picture. Once again, there are many connections: living in inadequate housing or having inadequate health care are closely associated with financial insecurity. Worry about pupils' health or well-being is also part of a wider picture of a very poor country that has been through considerable social upheaval and has high levels of HIV & AIDS and relatively low levels of adult literacy overall. A sense of not being valued by management may be the result of many interacting factors, such as poor management training and the fact that managers themselves are also preoccupied with many of the problems associated with everyday survival.

This, then, is the complex picture of the motivation and morale of the Mozambican teacher.

Taken as a whole, the picture revealed is one of both great potential and great challenges. The teachers of Mozambique are courageous, committed and generous, and they want to teach. They are also worn down by years of adversity, the struggle to survive and a sense that they are not able to do their job as they would like to. This dual reality is encapsulated by one of the schools visited during the research: the team arrived at a remote rural primary school to find the school consisted of a few classrooms built of reeds with sand floors and no furniture. Classes of poorly dressed children, many with conjunctivitis, were sitting under trees with their teachers. The teachers were teaching using a blackboard propped up against a log, and the children were chanting conscientiously. The first impression was that this cannot be a school. This was quickly replaced by the clear realisation that this was indeed a school: thanks to the commitment of the teachers, it was a place of teaching and learning.

## 3.6 LIMITATIONS OF THE RESEARCH

As with any research, a number of practical and methodological limitations should be borne in mind and some caution should be exercised in making claims based on the findings.

### 3.6.1 PRACTICAL LIMITATIONS

Great care was taken in sampling so as to ensure that the whole country was covered by the research and that the subjects were representative of the overall population of education workers, including teachers from remote and less accessible rural schools in each region. Many hours were spent travelling in challenging conditions to achieve this. However, for logistical reasons, the schools where the research was carried out were situated in locations that the research team could reach by road within the time available.

### 3.6.2 METHODOLOGICAL LIMITATIONS

As in any research based on participants' responses, the findings are based on what the participants were prepared to say. Considerable care was taken to make participants feel comfortable. Guarantees were given regarding anonymity and care was taken to ensure the focus groups took place out of the hearing of head teachers. All focus groups were facilitated by Mozambican researchers, using activities designed both to create a relaxed atmosphere and to obtain authentic contributions. However, it is still possible that participants censored their input, possibly due to cultural norms regarding communication and expression, or out of fear of reprisals if they were perceived as being too critical.

Although care was taken to ensure the teachers who took part in the focus groups were mixed in terms of experience, length of service, age and training, the research team did not know the schools, the head teachers or the teachers with which they were working. They did not therefore have ultimate control over selecting the teachers who made up the groups. By definition, the teachers who made up the groups were those who were present in the school that day, and not those who were absent! It was not possible to collect the views of absent teachers. There was therefore an inevitable element of self-selection, with the resulting risk of bias.

Attempts at overcoming these caveats included holding focus groups with teachers who had left the profession and conducting individual interviews with VSO volunteers with experience of working alongside teachers in schools and in teacher training colleges. It was hoped that these participants might be able to give insider insights into certain aspects of teachers' motivation more openly than current teachers. It was also hoped to get at issues of absenteeism through the experience of these participants.

## 4 CONCLUSIONS AND FINAL RECOMMENDATIONS

### 4.1 CONCLUSIONS

The results of the research show a complex picture of an education system in a state of transition, moving towards a modern system of mass education, but still bearing many of the traces of its colonial and post-independence past. Overall, the picture revealed is one of both great potential and great challenges.

The research revealed an enormous commitment to developing and working in the education system at all levels. Participants at all levels of the system: teachers, district administrators, provincial human resources managers, senior government officials, civil society groups and international partners demonstrated a desire to continue to strive to improve the education system and a sense of cautious optimism that things were gradually improving. During the research process, the research team had the privilege to meet and talk to many of these different actors and was struck by the dedication of many: provincial heads of human resources who were still in their offices and willing to give an interview at 8pm; members of civil society groups who spend their weekends working to raise gender awareness among groups of parents; senior managers within the Ministry of Education and Culture who are lucid about the challenges facing them and are rolling out an ambitious plan with vision and commitment; international donors who are upbeat about the long-term future of Mozambique. These are some of the reasons for optimism.

There are also many challenges to be overcome, as shown by the research. There is still widespread poverty, illness, institutional paralysis and dysfunction and an acute lack of organisational capacity within the education system, as in the wider society, and these need to be addressed if the potential is to be realised. It is classroom teachers who are the key to delivering the education Mozambique so badly needs. The teachers who took part in the research are not, at present, delivering anything close to what their potential would allow. They are not able to deliver the quality of education so urgently needed, due to insufficient resources, underdeveloped skills and the precariousness of their personal situations.

Within the complex picture of the factors surrounding education workers' motivation and morale, the three factors highlighted as having the most impact were salary, material working conditions and training. A strategy to improve each of these sectors will involve complex solutions requiring investment in planning, improved training and improved systems at all levels, as well as considerable resources. As discussed above, there is an understandable desire by policy makers to avoid long-term dependence on external funding, and to minimise the use of external funding for recurrent costs such as salaries. However, an awareness of the need for long-term commitments in education funding has led to a commitment to fund 10-year Education for All plans in countries such as Mozambique and a reiteration of the Dakar commitment that **"no country seriously committed to 'Education for All' will be thwarted in their achievement of this goal by lack of resources"** (G8, 2007: 12). The present research demonstrates clearly that if teachers continue to work and live in their existing conditions, it will be impossible to meet the goals on quality education. The issue of education workers' salaries needs to be seriously addressed along with the other issues highlighted in this research. Failure to do so and to provide education workers with a remuneration package that enables them to live decently, look after their own and their families' well-being and provide good quality education for their pupils will jeopardise the development of the education system and its ability to produce a valid workforce for the country's needs.

There is nothing new about the finding that teachers need a basic level of material security in order to do their job properly and to fulfil their role in society. The 1966 ILO/UNESCO Recommendation Concerning the Status of Teachers, makes the following recommendations about teachers' salaries:

**"Teachers' salaries should:**

**(a) reflect the importance to society of the teaching function and hence the importance of teachers as well as the responsibilities of all kinds which fall upon them from the time of their entry into service;**

**(b) compare favourably with salaries paid in other occupations requiring similar or equivalent qualifications;**

**(c) provide teachers with the means to ensure a reasonable standard of living for themselves and their families as well as to invest in further education or in the pursuit of cultural activities, thus enhancing their professional qualification;**

**(d) take account of the fact that certain posts require higher qualifications and experience and carry greater responsibilities"** (1966: 11–12).

The research reveals that the future of the education system is on a knife edge and could go either way. If the issues undermining teachers' ability to lead healthy lives and do their jobs well and with pride are addressed urgently and with a serious desire to find solutions, then the education system should be able to rise to the challenges of educating citizens to take their place in and contribute to a successful modern economy. If they are not addressed, or only by the half-hearted application of sticking plaster, then the current mediocrity and inefficiency will continue, and the country will lack a sufficiently well-educated workforce to enable it to grow and to overcome the challenges posed by widespread poverty and disease. One tertiary participant used the expression 'passive resistance' to describe the attitude of workers who, in the face of unacceptable and impossible working conditions, take matters into their own hands, not by visible or audible protest, but by finding ways to survive within the existing system. The absenteeism and practice of having multiple jobs documented in this report are an example of this phenomenon and, as has been shown, seriously undermine the system's ability to function and deliver quality education.

One of the stated objectives of this research was to give a voice to education workers. The process of meeting and working with numerous teachers and other education stakeholders was marked by the gratitude and relief of many of the participants that someone was taking an interest in their situation and in the reality of their working lives. This revealed an accumulated weariness resulting from years of not feeling valued or listened to. One teacher put this in the following way:

**“For decades, we could only see that teachers were thinking these things but nobody consulted me, there was never a meeting to consult us in the school or elsewhere. Just the fact that this initiative [the research] exists is bringing that closer. One way or another, I would like to believe that our feelings are now being conveyed up from the grass roots, from the countryside where the schools are, to the urban areas. I believe that sooner or later, those who manage the education sector will begin to take account, little by little, of our preoccupations”** (male rural secondary teacher).

One of the keys to improving the motivation and morale of Mozambique’s teachers is to continue to listen to them, to develop mechanisms to continue to consult them on the issues that concern their working lives. There is a role here for the embryonic civil society in representing teachers’ and other education workers’ voices.

During an interview with a senior government official, he paid tribute to the dedication and commitment of Mozambican teachers, who continue to teach children and to live their lives in the face of enormous challenges, in these words: **“Given the context of Mozambique, it is fair to say that the teachers are the great heroes of this country”**.

## 4.2 RECOMMENDATIONS

The different recommendations made by research participants are listed below. In each case, the different categories of stakeholder potentially involved are indicated. There is a certain amount of overlap, as many of the situations observed interact with one another. Also, many of the phenomena observed (for example, the need for improved training of administrative staff) are recurrent at several levels or systemic, so recommendations regarding these are repeated several times.

Please note: At the time of writing, the intended planned decentralisation of many procedures and processes is far from complete. In cases where the level concerned with a particular recommendation is likely to change after decentralisation, the probable future level is given in brackets.

### 4.2.1 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR THE MINISTRY OF EDUCATION AND CULTURE

At present, most of the recommendations would involve MEC at national level. With the development of a more decentralised education system and of more decentralised processes of policy planning and implementation in education and throughout the sectors, some aspects of the recommendations might eventually be implemented at provincial or district level.

### 4.2.2 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR OTHER GOVERNMENT INSTITUTIONS

Certain recommendations involving policy modification have implications for other ministries or government organs. For example, some of the recommendations involving the allocation or reallocation of funds would involve the Ministry of Finance. Recommendations associated with the reform of administrative procedures or salary reform would have to be considered within the context of the ongoing process of public sector reform and would therefore involve those agencies responsible for that process.

#### 4.2.3 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR DONORS AND THE INTERNATIONAL COMMUNITY

Some of the recommendations would require the provision of extra support, either financial or technical. It is to be hoped that some of this would be made available as part of the ongoing commitment from bilateral and multilateral donors to the education sector in Mozambique.

#### 4.2.4 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR PROVINCIAL DIRECTORATES OF EDUCATION AND CULTURE (DPECS)

Some recommendations directly concern the functioning of the DPECs. Others would involve the provincial directorates in their role in the chain of transmission between national and district level. Still others concern functions such as teacher recruitment, which are currently organised at provincial level.

#### 4.2.5 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR DISTRICT OFFICES OF EDUCATION YOUTH AND TECHNOLOGY (SDEJTS)

Some recommendations directly concern the functioning of the SDEJTs. Others would involve the district offices in their role in the chain of transmission between provincial and school level. Still others concern functions such as the organisation of transport for teachers, which would need to be organised at district level.

#### 4.2.6 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR HEAD TEACHERS

Many recommendations would involve head teachers at the implementation level. Some of these would involve policies and actions initiated at a different level, then implemented by head teachers; others would be initiated and implemented by head teachers, in conjunction with teachers and school councils, other civil society groups etc.

#### 4.2.7 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR TEACHERS

It is revealing that, although most of the recommendations are intended to improve conditions for teachers, at present teachers have relatively little power to initiate and implement the necessary policies and actions. This is reflected in the relatively small number of recommendations aimed at teachers. However, there are areas in which teachers can be proactive without waiting for policy changes. These include suggestions such as taking part in ongoing in-service training and seeking to make evaluation criteria more transparent, to give two examples.

#### 4.2.8 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR CIVIL SOCIETY

Many of the recommendations point to areas in which civil society could play an important role in representing teachers and transmitting their voices to policy makers. There is also a role for civil society involvement in channelling community support to and involvement in a wide range of different processes, from school construction to training in gender awareness and the appointment of head teachers, as laid out in the body of the report.

#### 4.2.9 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR TEACHER TRAINING INSTITUTIONS

Many of the recommendations are directly related to teacher training, and therefore involve the institutions that train teachers, and the teacher trainers who work in them.

## RECOMMENDATIONS BY FACTOR

### 3.1 ORGANISATIONAL AND INSTITUTIONAL FACTORS

#### 3.1.1 RECRUITMENT AND DEPLOYMENT

##### Location of job and deployment

- Deploy teachers according to their training.
- Deploy teachers near to their place of residence and families.
- Provide transport for teachers who are sent to work far from home.
- Make the deployment process more transparent.
- Involve the community in recruiting teachers.
- Interview candidates and only accept those who are suitable.

##### Ministry procedures of recruitment, 'integration', promotion and career progression

- Recruit personnel working in human resources at all levels on merit.
- Train personnel in human resources management and administration.
- Stop placing teachers in administrative posts.
- Simplify procedures, for example, by reducing the number of stages in each process.
- Accelerate procedures, for example, by having several Administrative Courts around the country.
- Make processes more efficient, for example, by using IT.
- Improve coordination between MEC and the Ministry of Finance.
- Improve coordination between MEC and the Administrative Court.
- Have a concerted campaign to process outstanding requests and eliminate the backlog.
- Negotiate budgets with the Ministry of Finance (and possibly donors) to allow outstanding requests to be processed and resulting salary increases paid.
- Apply rights and benefits retroactively once requests are processed.
- Give clear information about teachers' status and career structure.
- Give teachers and administrative staff more information about their rights.
- Inform teachers what stage in the procedure their file has reached.
- Apply the existing procedures.
- Decentralise the process, giving more autonomy to the district.
- Make teachers' salaries comparable with those in other professions.
- Improve conditions overall.
- Deploy graduates of teacher training courses in classroom jobs, rather than in administrative or other positions.
- Make working as a teacher for a limited period (for example, two years) a condition for those who have benefited from a place in a teacher training course.
- Recruit candidates for teacher training courses who are committed to becoming classroom teachers.

	MEC <sup>10</sup>	GOV <sup>11</sup>	INT <sup>12</sup>	DPEC <sup>13</sup>	SDEJT <sup>14</sup>	HEAD TEACHERS	TEACHERS	CIVIL SOCIETY	TEACHER TRAINING <sup>15</sup>
Deploy teachers according to their training.				✓	✓				
Deploy teachers near to their place of residence and families.				✓	✓				
Provide transport for teachers who are sent to work far from home.				✓	✓				
Make the deployment process more transparent.				✓	✓				
Involve the community in recruiting teachers.				✓	✓			✓	
Interview candidates and only accept those who are suitable.				✓	✓			✓	
Recruit personnel working in human resources at all levels on merit.	✓			✓	✓				
Train personnel in human resources management and administration.	✓			✓	✓				
Stop placing teachers in administrative posts.	✓			✓	✓				
Simplify procedures, for example, by reducing the number of stages in each process.	✓	✓							
Accelerate procedures, for example, by having several Administrative Courts around the country.	✓	✓							
Make processes more efficient, for example, by using IT.	✓			✓	✓				
Improve coordination between MEC and the Ministry of Finance.	✓	✓		✓					
Improve coordination between MEC and the Administrative Court.	✓	✓							
Have a concerted campaign to process outstanding requests and eliminate the backlog.	✓			✓	✓				
Negotiate budgets with the Ministry of Finance (and possibly donors) to allow outstanding requests to be processed and resulting salary increases paid.	✓	✓	✓						
Apply rights and benefits retroactively once requests are processed.	✓	✓		✓	✓				
Give clear information about teachers' status and career structure.				✓	✓			✓	
Give teachers and administrative staff more information about their rights.				✓	✓			✓	
Inform teachers what stage in the procedure their file has reached.				✓	✓				
Apply the existing procedures.	✓			✓	✓				
Decentralise the process, giving more autonomy to the district.	✓	✓		✓	✓				
Make teachers' salaries comparable with those in other professions.	✓	✓							
Improve conditions overall.	✓	✓	✓						
Deploy graduates of teacher training courses in classroom jobs, rather than in administrative or other positions.	✓			✓	✓				
Make working as a teacher for a limited period (for example, two years) a condition for those who have benefited from a place in a teacher training course.	✓						✓		
Recruit candidates for teacher training courses who are committed to becoming classroom teachers.									✓

10. Ministry of Education and Culture

11. Other levels of government

12. Donors and international community

13. Provincial directorates of education and culture

14. District offices for education youth and technology

15. Teacher training institutions

## RECOMMENDATIONS BY FACTOR

	MEC <sup>10</sup>	GOV <sup>11</sup>	INT <sup>12</sup>	DPEC <sup>13</sup>	SDEJT <sup>14</sup>	HEAD TEACHERS	TEACHERS	CIVIL SOCIETY	TEACHER TRAINING <sup>15</sup>
<b>Appointment of head teachers</b>									
Make the process of appointing head teachers more transparent.	✓			✓	✓				
Have teachers who wish to be head teachers apply for the position in an open recruitment process.					✓	✓			
Instead of head teachers being appointed, allow teachers to elect them.					✓	✓	✓		
Introduce training for teachers wishing to become head teachers, and appoint head teachers who have completed it.				✓	✓	✓	✓		✓
Process outstanding appointments and backdate head teachers' allowances to the beginning of their headship.	✓	✓		✓	✓				
<b>3.1.2 LEADERSHIP AND MANAGEMENT</b>									
<b>Efficiency of management procedures</b>									
<b>At school level:</b>									
Train head teachers in school administration and management.	✓			✓	✓	✓			✓
Train head teachers in leadership and how to create a motivating school environment.	✓			✓	✓	✓			✓
Make resources available to improve the quality of working conditions within schools.	✓	✓	✓						
Ensure head teachers have a timetable that allows for concentration on management issues.					✓	✓			
Ensure head teachers receive the allowances to which they are entitled.	✓			✓	✓				
Only recruit head teachers who are eligible for the task.				✓	✓				
<b>At district, provincial and national level :</b>									
Improve systems and management procedures at all levels.	✓			✓	✓				
Look at examples of good practice in education management in other countries.	✓		✓	✓					
Strengthen core functions of planning, finance and human resource management.	✓	✓		✓	✓				
Improve capacity of personnel through more selective recruitment and training at all levels.	✓			✓	✓				✓
Clarify roles and responsibilities within MEC, enabling delegation of decisions to lower levels	✓								
Continue to decentralise, giving more autonomy and responsibility to provincial and district levels.	✓	✓		✓	✓				
Foster a culture of improved communication and openness, both within and between different levels of the system.	✓	✓		✓	✓				
Increase training in and use of IT.	✓			✓	✓				
<b>Recognition</b>									
Train head teachers in constructive management techniques.					✓	✓			✓
Give teachers opportunities to talk about the issues that affect them.					✓	✓		✓	
Create mechanisms whereby teachers' views can be taken into account in policy formulation.	✓							✓	
<b>Probity</b>									
Make evaluation procedures more transparent and harmonise them to reduce the scope for corruption.						✓	✓		
Make admissions procedures more transparent to reduce the possibility of corruption.	✓				✓	✓	✓		
Appoint inspectors to control the examination process.				✓	✓				
Train pupils, teachers and administrators to resist the practice of corruption.	✓			✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
'Name and shame' teachers and administrators who engage in the practice of corruption.				✓	✓	✓			
Stop the practice of transferring corrupt teachers to other posts.				✓	✓				

## RECOMMENDATIONS BY FACTOR

	MEC <sup>10</sup>	GOV <sup>11</sup>	INT <sup>12</sup>	DPEC <sup>13</sup>	SDEJT <sup>14</sup>	HEAD TEACHERS	TEACHERS	CIVIL SOCIETY	TEACHER TRAINING <sup>15</sup>
<b>School culture</b>									
Enable head teachers to enforce strict timekeeping and discourage absenteeism through a system of incentives and deterrents.	✓			✓	✓	✓			
<b>3.1.3 MATERIAL WORKING CONDITIONS</b>									
<b>School infrastructure</b>									
Continue to build more schools.	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓			✓	
Continue to renovate existing schools.	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓			✓	
Overcome delays in rolling out the existing school construction programme.	✓	✓	✓						
Use more community-based construction projects.	✓	✓	✓					✓	
Have basic water and sanitation in all schools.	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓			✓	
Consult teachers and other users on school design.	✓		✓	✓	✓			✓	
<b>Working conditions and facilities in schools</b>									
Involve the community in making desks and chairs from local materials, possibly with support from NGOs.			✓		✓	✓		✓	
Train teachers in teaching techniques that do not require all pupils to have text books.									✓
Improve the supply of teaching and learning materials to schools.	✓		✓		✓	✓			
<b>Workload and working hours</b>									
Continue with and increase the current drives of constructing schools.	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓			✓	
Continue and increase teacher training and recruitment and hiring and training additional teachers in order to reduce PTRs and reduce the need for the shift system over time.	✓	✓	✓						✓
Give teachers priority health care and health education, including HIV tests and antiretroviral treatment to help reduce attrition due to premature death.	✓	✓	✓						
Train teachers in techniques for teaching large classes with limited resources.									✓
<b>3.1.4 EDUCATION POLICY, THE CURRICULUM AND PEDAGOGIC PRACTICE</b>									
<b>The curriculum</b>									
End the systematic practice of automatic promotion.	✓				✓	✓	✓		
Train teachers and head teachers to apply the new curriculum as intended.	✓				✓	✓	✓		✓
Foster a sense of empowerment among teachers by ensuring they understand the content and objectives of the curriculum they are teaching, instead of criticising them.					✓	✓	✓		
Improve communication, both within the education system and to the general public, about the exact nature and content of the new curriculum.	✓				✓	✓		✓	
<b>The appropriateness and availability of secondary schools</b>									
Do not forget the secondary schools in the drive to achieve goals concerning primary education.	✓		✓					✓	
Continue to build secondary schools and train secondary teachers to meet the needs that will be created as large numbers of pupils graduate from primary school, and to ensure there are enough secondary school graduates to recruit into the teaching profession.	✓	✓	✓					✓	✓
Define a strategy for secondary education that takes into account the needs of the employment market.	✓	✓	✓					✓	
Be realistic and creative: be prepared to re-think the entire secondary education system, not just to adjust the existing curriculum.	✓	✓	✓					✓	✓

## RECOMMENDATIONS BY FACTOR

	MEC <sup>10</sup>	GOV <sup>11</sup>	INT <sup>12</sup>	DPEC <sup>13</sup>	SDEJT <sup>14</sup>	HEAD TEACHERS	TEACHERS	CIVIL SOCIETY	TEACHER TRAINING <sup>15</sup>
<b>The quality and appropriateness of teaching methods</b>									
Introduce more training for teachers in techniques for teaching large classes.					✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Improve teaching training to include less theory and more focus on practical teaching techniques.									✓
Train teachers in the principles and techniques of testing and evaluation.									✓
Enable teachers to observe teachers who are trained in modern teaching techniques.					✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
<b>3.1.5 TRAINING, SELF-IMPROVEMENT AND LEARNING</b>									
<b>Level and scope of qualifications and training</b>									
Ensure all teachers receive basic teacher training as soon as possible.	✓		✓	✓	✓			✓	✓
Ensure trained teachers receive regular, good quality in-service training and support to update their skills.	✓		✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Consider the 10+1 training regime as a temporary measure and reintroduce more thorough training programmes as soon as possible.	✓		✓						✓
Ensure coordination between provincial human resources departments and teacher training institutions to reconcile supply and demand, so that teachers are trained in the subjects and the numbers that are needed.				✓					✓
<b>Access to training and professional support</b>									
Continue to offer in-service training at evening school and extend this to rural teachers.				✓	✓				✓
Provide transport for rural teachers to enable them to attend evening training courses.				✓	✓			✓	
Continue to offer training through distance education, and improve existing programmes.				✓	✓				✓
Process outstanding 'nominations' so that the teachers concerned can have access to the associated rights and benefits, including study grants.	✓			✓	✓				
In the meantime, while the backlog is being processed, allow teachers who have been on temporary contracts for more than two years to apply for and obtain study grants.	✓			✓	✓				
Continue and reinforce the in-service training opportunities delivered by ZIPs and CRESCER programme.	✓			✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
<b>Conditions and quality of training</b>									
Improve the quality of teacher trainers through extra training.	✓		✓						✓
Improve trainers' salaries so they do not have to take additional jobs.	✓	✓	✓						
Limit the number of additional jobs trainers may take.	✓	✓							
Standardise the curriculum and delivery of different teacher training institutions training at the same level.	✓			✓				✓	✓
Revise the training curriculum and its delivery to be more relevant to classroom reality.	✓							✓	✓
Make teacher training less theoretical and more practical.	✓							✓	✓
Improve planning and systems within teacher training institutions.	✓		✓						✓
Train managers and administrators within teacher training institutions.	✓	✓	✓						✓
Improve communication and systems within and between departments of teacher training institutions.	✓	✓	✓						✓
<b>3.1.6 REMUNERATION PACKAGES</b>									
<b>Salary</b>									
Increase the basic salaries.									
OR	✓	✓	✓					✓	
Keep salaries at current levels and use the money to train more teachers.									
Use outside funding to increase teachers' salaries.									
OR	✓	✓	✓					✓	

## RECOMMENDATIONS BY FACTOR

	MEC <sup>10</sup>	GOV <sup>11</sup>	INT <sup>12</sup>	DPEC <sup>13</sup>	SDEJT <sup>14</sup>	HEAD TEACHERS	TEACHERS	CIVIL SOCIETY	TEACHER TRAINING <sup>15</sup>
Avoid using outside funding for recurrent expenses.									
Stop the practice of second jobs									
OR	✓	✓						✓	
Make official the practice of second jobs, including a quality requirement.									
Resolve the delays in administrative procedures leading to improved salaries, as this would result in a de facto salary increase for many teachers.	✓	✓	✓	✓					
Apply the existing salary rules properly.	✓	✓	✓	✓					
Make salary rules clear and communicate them to teachers.	✓			✓	✓			✓	
Reform the pay structure in favour of length of service, with less focus on academic qualifications.	✓	✓	✓					✓	
<b>Allowances and other benefits and incentives</b>									
Implement the existing rules properly.	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓			✓	
Inform teachers of the allowances to which they are entitled.					✓			✓	
Train administrative staff to explain the allowances to teachers and to pay the correct allowances.				✓	✓				
Ensure funding is available to pay allowances as entitled.	✓	✓	✓						
<b>Accommodation</b>									
Ensure decent housing for teachers, as part of an overall support package.	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓			✓	
Encourage communities to build accommodation for teachers.	✓		✓		✓			✓	
Create mechanisms to give teachers access to credit, either through preferential rates at commercial banks or through micro-credit schemes.	✓	✓	✓					✓	
<b>Medical and funeral cover</b>									
Promote better inter-Ministry cooperation to ensure social benefits (in particular, clarify the status of medical cover with the Ministry of Health).	✓	✓						✓	
Improve communication with and training of health workers.	✓	✓						✓	
Decentralise the administration of the funeral grant to district level to enable it to be delivered rapidly.	✓	✓			✓			✓	
Create agreements with funeral directors to bill the SDEJT directly in cases involving the funeral grant, to prevent delays.					✓			✓	
<b>3.2 SOCIAL AND COMMUNITY FACTORS</b>									
<b>3.2.1 TEACHERS' VALUE AND STATUS IN THE COMMUNITY</b>									
<b>Community perceptions of teachers and teachers' role in the community</b>									
See section on salary under 3.1.6 Remuneration and packages.	✓	✓	✓					✓	
<b>Community and parent interest in the school and involvement in children's overall education</b>									
Encourage and strengthen community-based schemes to build schools and teachers' houses.	✓		✓		✓			✓	
Pursue economic development, such as providing water and livelihood opportunities for parents.		✓	✓					✓	
Create conditions that do not require children to work, so that they are free to go to school.		✓	✓					✓	
<b>3.2.2 STUDENT ISSUES</b>									
<b>Students' behaviour, achievement and interest in learning</b>									
<b>Non-teaching roles of teachers</b>									
Engage with parents and guardians through parents' associations, school councils and other civil society groups to raise awareness of parental responsibilities.						✓	✓	✓	
Create forums to discuss girls' education, HIV & AIDS issues and school discipline with parents and guardians.						✓	✓	✓	
Ensure teacher training programmes include culturally appropriate approaches to classroom and behaviour management, gender and HIV & AIDS issues and pastoral care issues.	✓							✓	✓



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# APPENDIX 1 RESEARCH ITINERARY AND LIST OF RESEARCH PARTICIPANTS

## 1 FOCUS GROUPS CONDUCTED WITH TEACHERS

Region	School where focus groups conducted (male and female teachers)
North	Escola Primária de Cazuzu, Nampula
	Escola Secundária de Pemba
	Escola Primária Completa de Chiúre, Cabo Delgado
	Escola Secundária de Napipine, Nampula
Centre	Escola Primária de Matacuane, Beira, Sofala
	Escola Primária Montes Namue de Gurue, Zambezia
	Escola Secundária de Gurue, Zambezia
	Escola Primária de Mepuaguia, Zambezia
South	Escola Secundária de Buzi, Sofala
	Escola Primária Completa de Macia, Gaza
	Escola Industrial e Comercial de Inhambane
	Escola Primária Completa 7 de Abril de Méue, Homoine, Inhambane
Maputo	Escola Primária de Manhanza, Barra, Inhambane
	Escola Secundária de Malehice, Chibuto, Gaza
	Escola Secundária de Matacuene, Maputo

## 2 OTHER FOCUS GROUPS

North	Trainee teachers, Universidade Pedagógica, Nampula
Centre	Grade 10 students, Escola Secundária Samora Moisés Machel, Beira
Maputo	Retired teachers, Maputo City
Maputo	Teachers who have left the profession, Maputo City

## 3 BREAKDOWN OF FOCUS GROUP PARTICIPANTS, BASED ON QUESTIONNAIRE RESPONSES

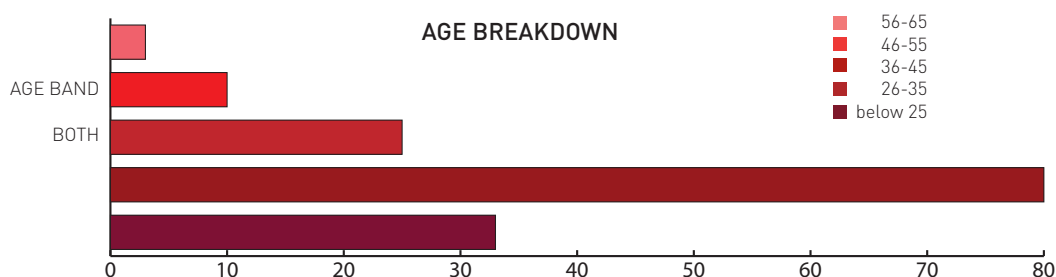
This shows the number of teachers in each group. (Please note: the sums are different, since not all teachers could be assigned to a group – for example, retired teachers and trainee teachers were neither primary nor secondary).

### GENDER

There were 86 male and 68 female respondents.

### AGE

Age in years	Number of participants
Under 25	33
26–35	80
36–45	25
46–55	10
56–65	2
Over 66	0



## REGION

North – 44  
Centre – 47  
South – 70

## PRIMARY/SECONDARY

Primary – 72  
Secondary – 69

## URBAN/RURAL

Urban – 83  
Rural – 71

## 4 INTERVIEWS CONDUCTED WITH SECONDARY STAKEHOLDERS

### PROVINCIAL HUMAN RESOURCES DIRECTORS

Gaza  
Inhambane  
Beira  
Nampula  
Cabo Delgado

### DISTRICT OFFICES FOR EDUCATION, YOUTH AND SPORTS

Director SDEJT, district of Matacuene, Maputo  
Director SDEJT, district of Macia, Gaza  
Head of pedagogic support, SDEJT, Murrupula, Nampula

### SCHOOL HEADS AND DEPUTY HEAD TEACHERS

Escola Primária de Cazuzu, Nampula  
Escola Secundária de Pemba  
Escola Primária Completa de Chiúre, Cabo Delgado  
Escola Secundária de Napipine, Nampula  
Escola Primária de Matacuene, Beira, Sofala  
Escola Primária Montes Namue de Gurue, Zambézia  
Escola Secundária de Buzi, Sofala  
Escola Primária Completa de Macia, Gaza  
Escola Industrial e Comercial de Inhambane  
Escola Primária Completa 7 de Abril de Méue, Homoine, Inhambane  
Escola Primária de Manhanza, Barra, Inhambane  
Escola Secundária de Malehice, Chibuto, Gaza

### VSO VOLUNTEERS WORKING IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS AND TEACHER TRAINING INSTITUTIONS

Five volunteers working in:  
Quelimane, Zambézia  
Nampula, Nampula  
Vilanculos, Inhambane  
Inhambane, Inhambane  
Pemba, Cabo Delgado

## 5 INTERVIEWS CONDUCTED WITH TERTIARY EDUCATION STAKEHOLDERS

### DONORS/INGOS

World Bank  
IMF  
UNICEF  
Embassy of Ireland  
Embassy of the Netherlands  
KfW German Development Bank  
GTZ international cooperation enterprise for sustainable development  
Department for International Development (DFID, UK)  
Oxfam UK  
Commonwealth Education Fund  
ActionAid  
World Vision

### CIVIL SOCIETY GROUPS

MEPT: *Movimento de Educação Para Todos* (Mozambican Movement for Education for All)  
ONP: *Organização Nacional dos Professores* (National Organisation of Teachers)  
UDEBA: Unity for the Development of Basic Education  
ADPP Mozambique: A member of the international movement Humana People to People  
FAWEMO: Forum for African Women Educationalists, Mozambique section  
Malhalhe: Mozambican NGO for women's development and empowerment

### MINISTRY OF EDUCATION AND CULTURE

National Director of Human Resources  
National Director of Finance and Administration  
National Director of Planning and Cooperation  
National Head of Human Resources for General Education

### OTHER STATE BODIES

ANFP: *Autoridade Nacional da Função Pública* (National Civil Service Authority)  
UTRESP: *Unidade Técnica da Reforma do Sector Pública* (Technical Unit for Public Sector Reform)

## APPENDIX 2 QUESTIONNAIRE COMPLETED BY FOCUS GROUP PARTICIPANTS

[Please note: The original questionnaire was in Portuguese. This is an English translation. This questionnaire was completed by the teachers currently teaching in schools. A slightly adapted version was completed by the other groups, for example, teachers who have left the profession. This is not included here for reasons of space.]

VSO / DFID

RESEARCH INTO TEACHERS' MOTIVATION

QUESTIONNAIRE / PROFILE SHEET

### YOUR SITUATION

For the multiple choice questions, please underline or circle your preferred answer.

Where do you teach? (region and school) \_\_\_\_\_

Sex: M / F

Age: Under 25 / 26–35 / 36–45 / 46–55 / 56–65 / Over 66

How long have you been a teacher? \_\_\_\_\_

How far from your school do you live?

At school

Less than 1km from school

1–5km from school

More than 5km from school

Have you been trained to be a teacher? YES / NO

Have you received any professional training? YES / NO

If so, in what subject? \_\_\_\_\_

What is your current level of qualification?<sup>1</sup>

Elementary (primary education)

Basic (grade 10 secondary)

Medium (grade 12 secondary)

Bachelors

Honours

What is your current status? Permanent contract / temporary contract

What level do you teach? \_\_\_\_\_

What subject(s) do you teach? \_\_\_\_\_

1. This question refers to levels used to define administrative status and salary.

## YOUR ATTITUDE TOWARDS TEACHING

Why did you become a teacher?

---

---

Are you satisfied to be a teacher? \_\_\_\_\_

Would you have preferred a different profession? If so, why? \_\_\_\_\_

---

---

Do you think you are a motivated teacher? If so, why? \_\_\_\_\_

---

If not, how does your lack of motivation affect your performance? \_\_\_\_\_

---

Can you think of three things that would help you to be a better teacher?

[Rank them from 1 to 3, 1 being the most important.]      1.

2.

3.

Can you think of three things that would help you to be a happier teacher?

[Rank than from 1 to 3, 1 being the most important.]      1.

2.

3.

Professionally speaking, what would you like to be doing next year?

---

Professionally speaking, what would you like to be doing in five years' time? \_\_\_\_\_

---

---

## APPENDIX 3 QUANTITATIVE ANALYSIS TABLES

### GROUP DIFFERENCES – MOTIVATION AND SATISFACTION

The findings for the responses relating to 'motivation' and 'satisfaction' were analysed to see whether there were any statistically significant differences between groups along any of the axes of interest to the study: region (north/centre/south), level of school (primary/secondary), location of school (rural/urban), gender of teachers, status of teachers (permanent/temporary), age of teachers (six age bands) and length of service (four bands). The Chi-Square test was used<sup>2</sup>. Statistically significant differences are noted below.

#### MOTIVATION – LEVEL OF SCHOOL

Primary school teachers are significantly more motivated than secondary school teachers ( $X^2 = 7.664915$  at 1 df  $p < 0.01$ ) (see Figure 3).

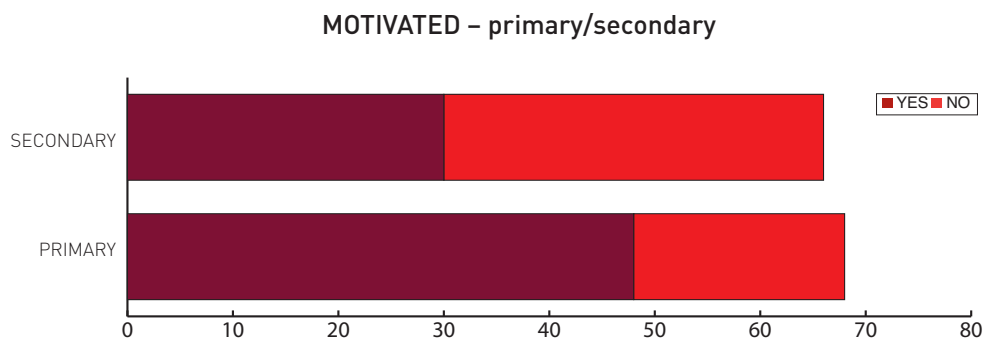


Figure 3: Motivation of primary and secondary school teachers

#### MOTIVATION – GENDER

Female teachers are significantly more motivated than male teachers ( $X^2 = 9,702607$  at 1df.  $p < 0.01$ ) (see Figure 4).

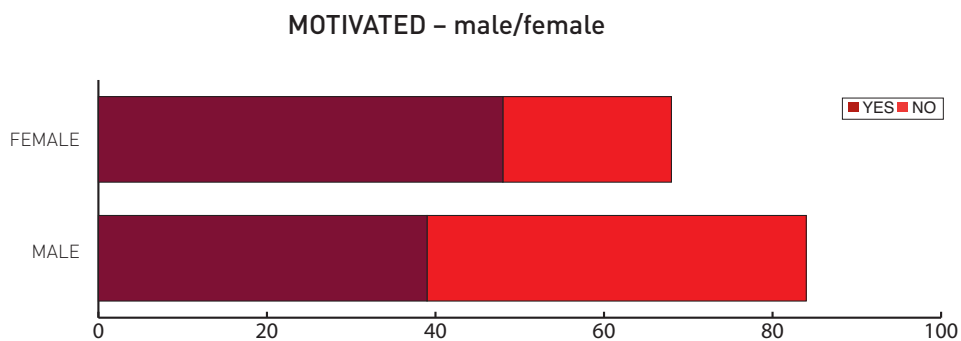


Figure 4: Motivation of male and female teachers

#### MOTIVATION – STATUS OF TEACHERS

Teachers on temporary contracts are significantly more motivated than those who have permanent contracts, although the difference is not great ( $X^2$  is 3.90 at 1 df. Cumulative probability = 0.95,  $p < 0.5$ ) (see Figure 5).

2. The Chi-Square test or 'goodness of fit' test is used to compare observed and theoretical values, in order to establish the probability that observed values have not occurred by chance but are significant. Put simply, in this case the test is used to ascertain whether the differences observed between the answers given by different groups of participants are significant or not. Chi-Square ( $X^2$ ) scores at a given degree of freedom (df) are given in brackets for specialist readers. The p value given at the end of the bracket refers to the probability of a result occurring by chance.  $p = 0.01$  means there is a one-in-a-hundred chance of a result occurring by chance.  $P = 0.05$  indicates a one-in-twenty chance of a result occurring by chance.

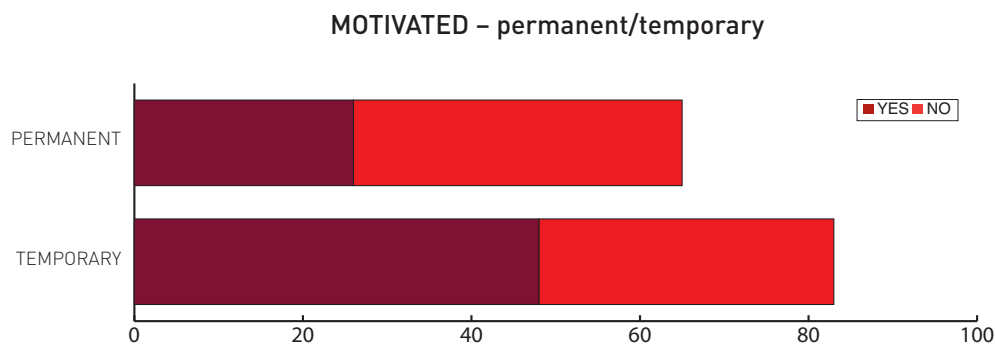


Figure 5: Motivation of teachers on temporary and permanent contracts

#### MOTIVATION – LENGTH OF SERVICE

Teachers with less than 10 years in service are significantly more motivated than teachers with 10 or more years in service, although the difference is not great ( $X^2$  is 9.06 at 3 df. Cumulative probability = 0.97,  $p < 0.05$ ) [see figure 6]

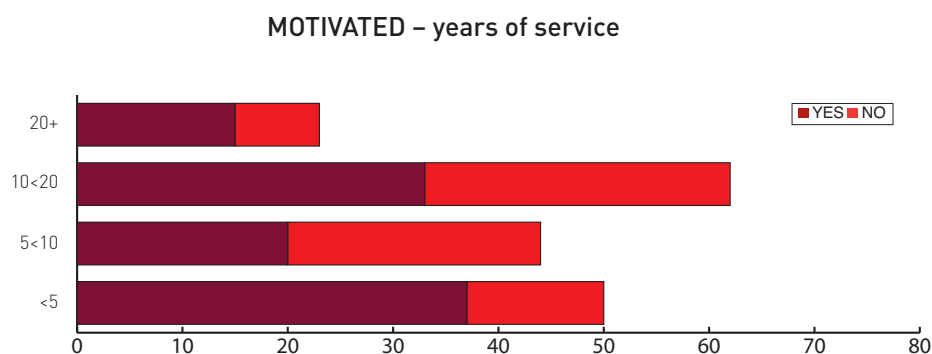


Figure 6: Motivation by length of service of teachers in years

#### SATISFACTION

Given the large majority of teachers who said they were satisfied, inter-group comparisons were not necessary or even meaningful.

#### RANKING

As part of the written questionnaire, teachers were asked to name the three things that would help them to perform better as teachers and a further three things that would make them happier teachers, and to rank each of the three items in each list. The items they wrote were grouped into 14 categories, based on the categories that had emerged from the template analysis of the focus group data. The categories and their interpretations are detailed in Table 5 below.

Category	Content
Housing	• Quality of housing
	• Availability of housing
Transport	• Availability of transport
Family	• Family well-being
	• Family safety
	• Family health
	• Family nutrition
Personal satisfaction	• Able to respond to challenges/opportunities to evolve, grow
	• Sense of own skills improving/self-esteem, confidence
	• Loyalty/commitment
	• Future hopes/plans
	• Enjoyment of job

Pupils	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Pupils' issues</li> <li>• Teacher's impact on pupils</li> <li>• Pupils' interest in learning</li> <li>• Pupils' improvement/achievement</li> <li>• Profile of pupils</li> </ul>
Community	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Non-teaching roles with pupils</li> <li>• Status and value in community</li> <li>• Community perceptions of teachers</li> <li>• Teacher's role in the community</li> <li>• Community/parent interest and participation in school</li> </ul>
Medical cover	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Medical cover</li> <li>• Funeral cover</li> </ul>
Salary	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Salary</li> <li>• Allowances and entitlement</li> </ul>
Training	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Administration of payment (punctuality etc)</li> <li>• Level of qualifications and training</li> <li>• Access to in-service training</li> <li>• Access to career break for teacher training</li> <li>• Conditions/quality of training</li> <li>• Opportunities to work with other teachers</li> <li>• Constructive inspections/feedback/professional support and advice</li> <li>• Formal evaluation programme</li> <li>• Other opportunities for professional advancement</li> </ul>
Education/pedagogy	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Quality/relevance of curriculum</li> <li>• Curriculum reforms</li> <li>• Appropriateness/availability of secondary schools</li> <li>• Education policy and planning</li> <li>• Quality/appropriateness of pedagogic activities/teaching</li> </ul>
Material working conditions	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• School infrastructure (state of buildings, facilities, toilets, water, electricity, available space, number of classrooms etc)</li> <li>• Working conditions/facilities in school (availability of tables, chairs, library, photocopier, teaching and learning materials (TLMs), other resources etc)</li> <li>• Quality of TLMs</li> <li>• IT/internet</li> <li>• Workload /working hours (including overtime)</li> <li>• Teacher shortages/staffing levels/class sizes</li> <li>• School hours/shift system</li> </ul>
Management/leadership	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Efficiency of management procedures/execution</li> <li>• Being recognised/valued/listened to for ideas/given responsibilities/ability to make own decisions</li> <li>• Probity/corruption</li> <li>• Relationship with bosses</li> </ul>
Colleagues	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Relationships with colleagues</li> <li>• Solidarity/cooperation/conflict at work</li> <li>• Concern for colleagues' health</li> <li>• School culture/work ethic/ professionalism (punctuality/absenteeism/second jobs etc)</li> <li>• Equity between teachers</li> </ul>

Administrative/contractual

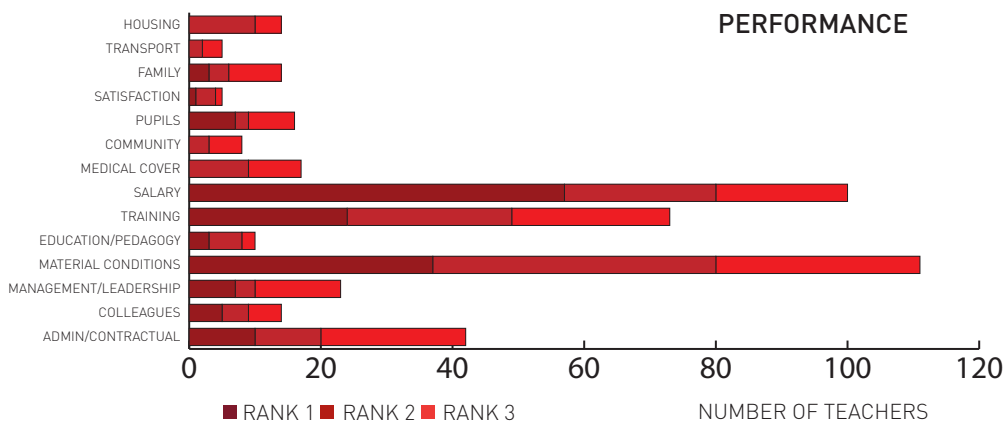
- Location of job and deployment
- Ministry procedures, 'recruitment', 'integration', promotion, 'progression' etc
- Turnover/attrition/teachers leaving profession
- Job security
- Terms of employment
- Appointment of head teachers
- Inter-school equity

**Table 5: Categories of items which would help teachers perform better and become happier teachers**

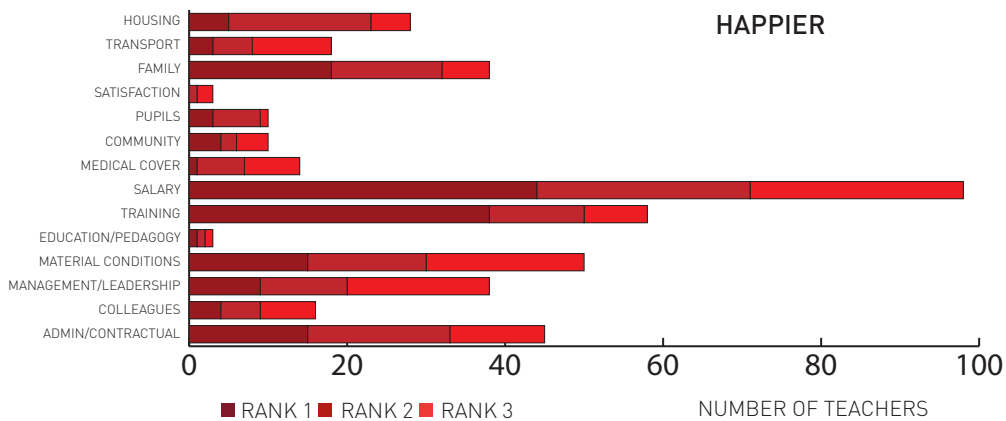
**RESULTS OF RANKING**

Overall, salary was ranked in first position, working conditions in second position and training in third position. Salary, working conditions and training are the factors teachers feel affect both their performance and their happiness.

The following graphs show the results of the ranking for performance and happiness.



**Figure 7: Ranking of factors: "What would help you to be a better teacher?"**



**Figure 8: Ranking of factors: "What would help you to be a happier teacher?"**

**COMMENTS ON RANKING**

The overall correlation between the scores for both scales (happiness and performance) was assessed using the Microsoft Office Excel function CORREL.

- for the aggregated scores (= number of votes) for all three ranks, the correlation coefficient was 0.84.<sup>3</sup>
- for the first-choice scores only, the correlation coefficient was 0.89.

Both these scores are high. The two ranking scales are closely correlated. This means that participants tended to say that what would make them happy was also what would help them to perform better.

**GROUP DIFFERENCES – RANKING**

Statistically significant differences were found as follows:

**PERFORMANCE – RURAL/URBAN**

There is a significant difference between the ranking of rural and urban teachers ( $\chi^2$  16.39 at 6 df.  $p < 0.05$ ). The difference is mainly because urban teachers lay more emphasis on material conditions and rural teachers lay more emphasis on salary.

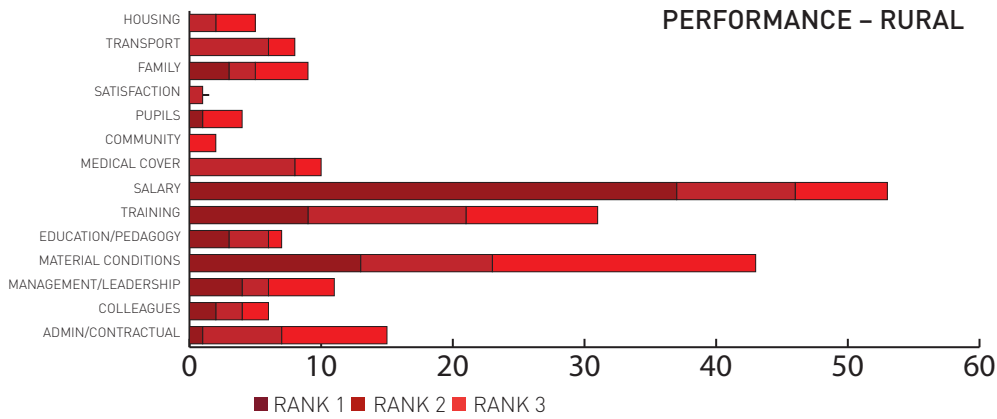


Figure 9: Ranking of factors: “What would help you to be a better teacher?” – rural teachers

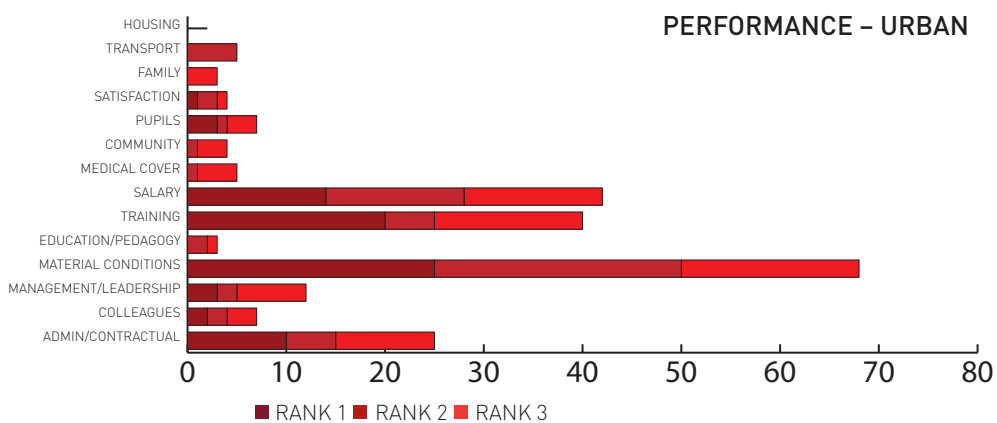


Figure 10: Ranking of factors: “What would help you to be a better teacher?” – urban teachers

3. A correlation coefficient refers to the interdependence of two or more variables, such that a change in one implies a change in the other(s). Put simply, in this case the degree of correlation between two groups of results reflects the extent to which they are related to one another (although it does not indicate a causal relationship between them). The coefficient of a perfect correlation is 1. The values of 0.89 and 0.84 given here demonstrate a high degree of correlation.

### HAPPINESS – RURAL/URBAN

There is also a significant difference between the rankings of urban and rural teachers concerning factors affecting happiness ( $X^2$  16.09 at 7 df. Cumulative probability = 0.98,  $p < 0.05$ ). The difference is mainly due to rural teachers laying more emphasis on housing than urban teachers.

### OTHER GROUPS

Significant differences were not found between the other groups of participants when broken down along the axes of interest to the study: region (north/centre/south), level of school (primary/secondary), gender of teachers, status of teachers (permanent/temporary), age of teachers (six age bands) and length of service (four bands).







simone doctors  
sofia jambane  
roy marsh  
joaquim ngomane  
[www.vso.org.uk](http://www.vso.org.uk)