

THE EVOLUTION OF TEACHER TRAINING IN MOZAMBIQUE AND THE CONTEXTS OF ITS EMERGENCE

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Introduction

Mozambique became an independent country from the Portuguese colonial regime in 1975, after ten years of armed struggle led by FRELIMO. Its legacy was a country with poorly developed natural resources, serious problems regarding the population's sanitation and health, an extremely high illiteracy rate, very low qualification of human capital. There was a country to build, and this construction was willed within the framework of a socialist transformation of society. Despite the significance of the efforts and advances achieved, that construction was brutally hindered by a heavy civil war (1976-92), successive natural catastrophes, serious setbacks in the devised economic strategy. Apart from these difficulties, the exponential population growth encumbered the implementation of services capable of responding in such areas as health, education and population qualification, not only in the necessary numbers but also in quality. And this despite the fact that education, and therefore teacher recruitment and training, was considered one of the most powerful tools for the country's promotion and development.

This chapter aims to report on the teacher training strategies in the 1975-2014 period, highlighting the main landmarks of their evolution as well as their benefits and constraints, illuminating the geographic, economic, political and cultural contexts where they emerged, as well as the education system they are supposed to serve. To this effect, we resorted to documental research, based on bibliographic and empirical studies, legislation and official documents, and documents produced by international entities. It should be noted that there is little documentation and empirical research on some fields we would be interested in deepening, in particular information concerning the curricula of teacher training.

The chapter is organized in three sections: Geographical, Demographical, Social, Economic, Political and Cultural Context; Educational System; and Teacher Training. In the

first section, the general context of training is analysed in its evolution along the dimensions stated in the heading. The second section is dedicated to describing and analysing the evolution of the formal education system, its goals and organization, population and challenges. The third section is dedicated to teacher training strategies, their evolution, objectives, access conditions, duration, institutions responsible for the programmes and challenges. The chapter ends with a concluding section, where the essential traits of the previous analyses are highlighted, and the increase in the number of teachers, the rise in their qualifications and the actual development of the teaching competencies are highlighted as the main challenges of teacher training.

Geographic, Demographic, Social, Economic, Political and Cultural Context

Mozambique, with an area of 799,380 km², is located on the eastern coast of Southern Africa, benefiting from a geostrategic location which, reinforced by major rail and port infrastructures along the coast, gives it a privileged position in freight distribution to and from the hinterland countries, to the west (Maloa, 2016). In administrative terms, the country is divided into eleven provinces, districts, administrative posts, towns and villages (Constitution of the Republic of Mozambique/CRM, 2004).

The country has a predominantly tropical climate, with two main seasons: summer, which is hot, wet and rainy, and winter, usually dry and cold. Mozambique is very vulnerable to natural disasters, namely floods, cyclones and droughts, resulting from climate changes and its geography (Cunguara & Garrett, 2011).

Three types of relief can be identified: (1) planes, on the coast, with altitudes up to 200 metres, which take up about 44% of the land, (2) low plateaus, which range from 200 to 1,000 metres of altitude and take up 51% of the land, and (3) high plateaus and mountains, with altitudes over 1,000 metres, covering only about 5% of the land (Cumbe, 2007). In these regions, various types of vegetation grow, especially forest, coastal undergrowth, miombo woodland, acacia and shrub land, palm tree and acacia savannah, mangrove forests (Sitoe, Macandza, Remane & Mamugy, 2015).

The population currently inhabiting Mozambique is heterogeneous, multicultural and multi-ethnic, resulting mainly from the migratory flow from the area of the great lakes, which began in the 3rd and 4th centuries. Some of these groups came to the region which is now Mozambique in several periods and using various points of entry, thus beginning a long settlement process. From the 9th century, peoples from the Persian Gulf also began to establish

themselves along the coast (Kok, 2012; Serra, 2000). The Portuguese population is present, too, but less than might be supposed, since the Portuguese penetration in the territory, albeit initiated in the 15th century, would only intensify in the late 19th century, following the military and administrative occupation. We must also add that a considerable number of teachers left the profession after the '25th April 1974' coup and during the independence process.

As regards the growth stages of these populations throughout time, there is a shortage of statistical data, a situation that prevailed until the 1940 census, the first survey with reliable data, and the 1950 census were conducted (Arnaldo & Muanamoha, 2014). The latter, the first to include data on education, registered 5,738,911 inhabitants, of which 5,615,053 were considered illiterate (Castiano, Ngoenha & Berthoud, 2005).

During the three decades after the 1950 census, the population of Mozambique doubled, coming to 10 million inhabitants in 1970 (Tsandzana, 2010; Langa, 2010). The continuous population growth has been maintained in the subsequent decades to the present time: in 2007, year of the latest census, the population had increased to about 21 million (Tsandzana, 2010; Langa, 2010; National Statistical Institute / INE, 2012).

Bearing in mind this growth rate, the number of inhabitants projected by the INE for 2014 was 24 million. Thus, the population growth rate in Mozambique is among the highest in the world, at a pace of about 2.5% per year. The following are important factors for that growth: (1) high fertility rate; (2) decrease in mortality rates, especially under-five, which dropped from 201 per 1,000 live births in 1997, to 138 per 1,000 in 2007, and 64 per 1,000 in 2011; (3) low educational level and (4) low use of family planning services (Ministry of Planning and Development/MPD, 2010; INE, 2012).

The population of Mozambique is characterized as predominantly young (50%) and mostly feminine (51,87%), and lives for the most part in rural areas: 70%, against 40% in urban areas (Tsandzana, 2010; Langa, 2010; INE, 2012).

The distribution of the population in the territory shows strong concentration in the provinces of Zambezia and Nampula, in each of which around 38% of the population lived between 1997 and 2007; the remainder was distributed rather uniformly among the remaining provinces. In the same period, the growth in population per province varied unevenly; special reference should be made to the provinces of Niassa, Tete and Maputo, with growth rates of over 50%, due to migrations both from other provinces and from other countries. Despite this increase in the Maputo province, the population of the city of Maputo, the country's capital, rose only slightly, since a large part of the migration went to the suburbs; at present about

5.4% of the country's total population is concentrated in this city (Tsandzana, 2010; Langa, 2010).

The progressive growth of the population was followed by the emergence and worsening of various social problems, prominent among which poverty, a condition that affects most of the population (MPD, 2006). Mozambique continues to have high poverty rates, despite governmental efforts, which nonetheless have managed to decrease the section of the population living in extreme poverty (under 1.25 US\$ per day) from 81% in 1996-97, to 60% in 2008 (Fox et al., 2012). Besides demography, the following are also important poverty factors: the constraints on available resources, the low productivity of family farming, the working-age population's low level of education and the poor infrastructural development (MPD, 2001; MPD, 2006). Moreover, natural disasters, which have afflicted the country in several regions year after year, have resulted in displacement as well as resettlement problems of the affected populations, contributing to the increase in the hunger and malnutrition rates (MPD, 2006).

Hand in hand with poverty, the country faces a number of serious social problems, as is the case of AIDS: Mozambique has the 8th highest prevalence rate in the world, with about 11.5% of the population aged between 15 and 45 years HIV-positive (UNICEF, 2011). The spread of the disease is associated with poverty, local cultural practices, and the migratory flows that occur in the border regions with neighbouring countries.

In sociocultural terms, it must be pointed out that, as a result of its historic relation with Portugal, Mozambique is a Portuguese-speaking country and the only such nation in the whole of the African eastern coast (Constitution of the Republic of Mozambique/CRPM, 1975). Still, the country has several ethnolinguistic communities, the result of a long process of cultural crossings and transformations, which includes both the cultures of the first Bantu peoples, and the cultures brought by consecutive invasions before the Portuguese colonization (Kok, 2012). This reality gives the country a considerable linguistic diversity, which at the same time represents one of its main cultural assets, as well as a challenge to the full inclusion of all populations, especially in the field of education. A consequence of this linguistic diversity, as well as of the foreign influence, is that the languages spoken in Mozambique are divided into two main groups: (1) the indigenous languages, of Bantu-origin, in particular Macua, Tsonga, Sena, Lomwe, Shona, Tswa, Shuabo, Ronga, Marenje, among others; and (2) the group of languages of foreign origin, in particular Portuguese, spoken only by about 25% of the population, English and French. We should conclude by pointing out that,

notwithstanding the fact that the official language is Portuguese, the mother tongue of about 85% of the population is one of the Bantu languages (Weglarz, 2010).

From an economic perspective, at present Mozambique is undergoing crucial changes resulting from the discovery and exploration of natural resources, especially minerals, which represent an opportunity to make the national economy stronger and more competitive. Despite regional conflicts, devastating floods and world fluctuations in the price of the main goods, in the past decade Mozambique has made remarkable advancements regarding its growth, stabilization and reform (USAID, 2004). Thus, between 1995 and 2012, the country registered one of the highest average annual economic growth rates of GDP in the world (8.1%), (INE, 2013a; END, 2014), a phenomenon also associated with such factors as the increase in national and foreign investment, access to funding, technology transfer, and gains from the investment in education and in infrastructures (USAID, 2004). More specifically, in the period from 2003 to 2012, the economy proved to be more robust and resistant to external and internal blows, and therefore the country has continued to present high stable economic growth, with an average inflation rate of 7.1%, and an average real GDP growth rate of about 7.0% a year. In 2012, real GDP rose by 7.2% and *per capita* GDP by 608.1 USD (Report of the Bank of Mozambique/RBM, 2012; INE, 2013a).

This macroeconomic stability has fostered the relaunch of the country's economic and social development, indicated by the state budget for Education. Thus, in 2015, as in 2013 and 2014, the state budget for Education represented 18.6% do total state budget. Basic education was the privileged sector, budget-wise, as had also happened in previous years (UNICEF, 2015). However, despite that expressive percentage, incidentally higher than that of many other African countries, Mozambique still displays lower levels of expenditure per student and a poorer performance regarding completion of basic and secondary education, when compared with the average rates of sub-Saharan Africa (UNICEF, 2015).

Vis-à-vis its economic base, Mozambique is a fundamentally agricultural country: 45% of the territory has the potential for agriculture and 70% of the population live in a rural environment, the majority having agriculture as their base for subsistence (PNUD, 2014; INE, 2013). Also, the GDP shows that agriculture is the sector that contributes the most to domestic production, with an average participation of 23.3%, in the period from 2003 to 2012 (RBM, 2012; END, 2014). Nevertheless, the country is rich in natural resources, some still in research stage and others at the start of exploration, especially natural gas and coal. Hence the investment in industrialization as a factor of prosperity and competitiveness, framed by an inclusive and sustainable development model, and backed by natural assets (END, 2014).

The distribution of national wealth is ensured by the state, based on the recognition and appreciation of the role of the productive zones (CRM, 2004). Still, despite the improvements found, the challenges of the fight against poverty persist.

On the one hand, the population's poverty rate decreased from 69.4% in 1997 to 54.1% in 2002-2003, combined with the adoption of policies and actions to reduce poverty and regional asymmetries. We should highlight the improvement in basic welfare services and the increase in business initiatives that contribute to more production and employment (Agenda/2025, 2003; USAID, 2004).

Yet, on the other hand, the growth of the Human Development Index by about 23.6% in the period between 1999 and 2000 was not enough to change the setting of shortcomings in basic needs for a considerable part of the population. The situation remains critical: almost 10 million Mozambicans, from a population of 20,632,434, live in poverty, with problems of food insecurity, low income, and unemployment. Mozambique continues to hold a place in the list of the poorest countries in the world (USAID, 2004; INE, 2013a).

Another element that characterizes the economic climate lies in the fluctuations that the Metical, Mozambique's currency, has known, particularly since 1998, when it was depreciated by between 15% and 20% in real terms, against the US Dollar and the Rand. On the one hand, currency fluctuations, and, in particular, depreciation, are understood as causes for concern; on the other hand, depreciation helped attract foreign investment for megaprojects, and improved the competitive position of Mozambican products. Those projects have contributed to increase exports very quickly, as was the case of aluminium, coal and gas, and have introduced advanced technologies, management, training and a more qualified workforce in the country (USAID, 2004).

Regarding the political system, four important periods can be identified. The precolonial period, dominated by the existence of various reigns and empires, governed on the basis of customary law and traditions, some of which coexisted with the exercise of colonial power. The colonial period, lasting five centuries (1498-1974), characterized by the presence of the Portuguese colonial authority, particularly from the end of the 19th century, which imposed repressive and discriminatory legislation and power. Among the natives, customary law was maintained within the limits defined by power (Agenda/2025, 2003; Castiano et al., 2005; Serra et al., 2000). Resistance to colonial power flared up in the last years of the regime, with the onset of the liberation war, which broke out in 1962 incited by the Mozambique Liberation Front (FRELIMO), led by Eduardo Mondlane, followed, after his assassination (1969), by Samora Machel (Agenda/2025, 2003; Vieira, 2006).

The post-independence period began with the proclamation of the National Independence in June 1975, as a result of the liberation war. It ended in 1974 following the Carnation Revolution which took place in Portugal, and which contributed positively to the final denouement of the liberation process (Agenda/ 2025, 2003; FIDH, 2004; Vieira, 2006). When it took over the country's destiny, FRELIMO adopted a Marxist-Leninist one-party political regime. This orientation met with the opposition of some sectors of the population, and this resulted in the constitution of the Mozambican National Resistance (RENAMO) (Agenda/2025, 2003; FIDH, 2004). In the same context, severe tensions sparked off with South Africa and Rhodesia, countries with different orientations. A brutal civil war then broke out in Mozambique: the health and education systems collapsed, agricultural production and various infrastructures were destroyed, thousands of civilians were massacred (FIDH, 2004).

Finally, the forth historic period responds to Mozambique's need to overcome the long-standing social and economic crisis and achieve peace. It is marked by several facts, more notably, at the beginning: Mozambique joining the Bretton Woods institutions in 1984; the start of macroeconomic reforms aiming at stabilizing the economy in 1987; Frelimo, now a political party, abandoning Marxism-Leninism (FIDH, 2004; Castiano et al, 2005); and the approval of a new Constitution of the Republic in 1990 (Agenda/2025, 2003; Castiano et al., 2005).

The new constitutional framework (CRM-90) defines Mozambique as an independent, sovereign, democratic, welfare state, based on pluralism of expression and party organization as well as the respect for and guarantee of the fundamental rights and liberties of citizens. The state is subject to the Constitution and is founded on legality; the people can choose their representatives by direct, equal, secret and periodic ballot. From the point of view of political organization, the system is characterized as representative democratic, it is based on the separation of powers and adopts as sovereign organs, besides the President of the Republic, also the head of government, the Assembly of the Republic, the Government, the Courts and the Constitutional Council. The unity, indivisibility and inalienability of the territory are strong constitutional determinations, as well as the identitarian appreciation of the country's linguistic diversity. Regarding foreign policy, Mozambique is defined as a non-aligned state, with an independent foreign policy, favouring peace policies and negotiated solutions in conflict regulation. In the same vein, the country pledges to honour the United Nations Charter and the African Unity Charter (CRM-90).

The CRM-90, besides introducing party plurality in the political system, also brought important changes to the economic life, defining a legal framework for the market economy

(Agenda/2025, 2003; Castiano et al., 2005). This situation, combined with the political stability resulting from the end of the civil war in 1992, sixteen years after it began, and the multi-party general elections of 1994, allowed the country to know considerable improvement in the growth rates, stimulated by domestic and foreign investment, as well as by the assistance of the international community (Agenda/2025, 2003; FIDH, 2004; Vieira, 2006).

In any case, internally, the electoral processes continued to be afflicted by strong conflict, with claims of voter fraud submitted by the opposition parties, especially by RENAMO (Vieira, 2006), which, nonetheless, assured parliamentary representation, besides ruling, at local level, five municipalities in the central and northern regions of the country.

According to the CRM-90, Mozambique is also defined as a secular state, based on the separation between the state and the religious denominations. Individuals are ensured freedom of conscience, religion and worship, and religious denominations have the liberty to organize and carry out their functions, within the framework of the state laws. The state, in turn, has the responsibility to ensure and guarantee the protection of the places of worship.

The religious denominations have played an important role in the socialization of the citizens, through initiatives of various scopes and natures. Hence the government considers religious denominations to be important interlocutors when it comes to designing national development strategies (END, 2014).

Concerning the distribution of the main religious creeds, approximately one third of the total number of believers in the country is Catholic (28.4%); the second position is occupied by the Islamic religion (17.9%) and the third by the Zion/Sion religion (15.5%). Some churches, albeit with less support from the population, had an important expression in the country due to their role in training many leaders during the colonial period (Protestant churches). It should be noted that 18.7% of the population has stated that they do not adhere to any religion or faith (INE, 2013a). Despite this religious diversity, the various communities have coexisted peacefully, which reflects the country's assumption of cultural diversity as its inalienable heritage.

The Education System

The development of a formal education system only intensified in the first half of the 20th century with the publication of its legal framework, with special reference to Law No. 238 of May 17, 1930. It establishes the organization of the native education system into rudimentary, professional and normal basic education, giving it the task of preparing future

rural workers and skilled workers, and of moralizing the natives, in other words, of «gradually elevating the native population of the overseas provinces from the wild life to the civilized life of the learned peoples». Rudimentary basic education was intended to “civilize and nationalize the colony’s native peoples, disseminating among them the Portuguese language and customs” (Castiano et al., 2005, p. 19) and was structured in three classes. This level of education was later redefined successively as Adaptation Education and Pre-Primary Education, by the Ministerial Order No. 15.971 of 1962, and by the Decree No. 45.908 of 1964, respectively (Castiano et al., 2005; Rocha, Hedges, Liesegang & Chilundo, 1993). The mission of professional education was to “prepare the natives of both genders, over ten years of age, to acquire honestly the means to maintain civilized life and contribute to the advancement of the colony” (Castiano et al., 2005, p. 19); it was taught in Arts and Crafts Schools, for boys, and in Professional Schools, for native girls. Normal education was meant to train native teachers for Rudimentary Schools.

The intervention of the Portuguese state in the working of this education system was mediated by Catholic missions, to which it entrusted the direct responsibility for running it, generally in rural areas (Missionary Agreement Holy See-Portugal, 7th May, 1940).

Alongside native education, from the first quarter of the 20th century the Colonial Official Education had already been implemented in Mozambique, aimed at populations from the mainland and, later, to the assimilated. This system was taught in urban areas, it followed closely the mainland’s education system, in its structure and curricula, and was organized into Basic Education, High School Education, and Technical Vocational Education; it was the only one, in fact, to allow the subsequent access to Higher Education (Castiano et al., 2005). As regards higher education, from 1963/64 the General and University Studies existed in the capital, extensions of the Portuguese university, where degrees in medicine, engineering, veterinarian medicine, agronomy and pedagogical sciences were taught.

In short, the existence of two modalities of education, native and official, is a clear demonstration of the policy of discrimination and colonial domination of which the education system was a tool, a situation that remained in place until the independence.

Even so, in the 1960s, the Portuguese colonial regime’s isolation in the international community, the shortage of labour and qualified staff, as well as the regime’s need to respond to the intensification of the liberation struggle, forced it to make some adjustments to the education system (Rodrigues, 2007, cited by Matavele, 2015; Mazula, 1995).

In any case, the considerable discrimination persisted to such an extent that, for instance, in 1966/67, from a population of 444,983 educated Africans, 439,979, in other

words 98.9%, only attended primary school; and on the same date black people represented only 1.1% of students in secondary education (Gasperin, 1989). According to the 1970 census, the last carried out by the colonial regime, at the time there were 89.7% of illiterate people, with only 16.8% of the population enrolled in Primary Education and 0.23% in Secondary Education. And in 1973, the University of Lourenço Marques, the only one in this colony, was attended by 3,000 students, of which 40 were black (Mazula, 1995; Gómez, 1999). This is a very heavy legacy to overcome!

At the same time, during the armed struggle, the resistance developed innovative education experiments in the liberated areas, particularly at the level of primary education. The creation of these schools, alongside literacy and adult education, were core concerns of FRELIMO whenever it liberated a new part of the country. In these schools, those who had studied taught those who had not had that chance, on a creative basis, not bound to the belief in restrictive universal pedagogic principles: “The main indication of method that the Front derived from dialectical materialism was that of deducing the demand of connecting study and work from the same contradictions of the social production of its time” (Gasperini, 1989, p. 26). In turn, teaching the FRELIMO fighters at secondary-education level was carried out in the schools of countries that supported this movement, and also at the Mozambican Institute, in Tanzania, founded in 1963 (Gasperini, 1989).

It was probably upon the basis of these two processes, action from the regime and action from the resistance, that the education system was shaped throughout the past 41 years, since the end of the Portuguese colonialism in 1975. Besides, the experience that the education sector lived in the year immediately following the end of the colonial regime also left a very strong mark in the education system. In that period, despite all the efforts made, it proved hard both to reformulate the system in accordance with the new political orientations and to implement a school network which would in fact enable compulsory education and train the *cadres* necessary to form the new state. Not only the deterioration of the economic situation and of the relation with the neighbouring countries, but also war and droughts hindered the enactment of the defined guidelines.

In 1983, as a response to this situation, Law 4/83 of March 23rd was approved, creating the National Education System (NES): education was set at the centre of the government’s priorities, leading to a process of intense structural change in the sector, within the context of the construction of the Socialist State (Basílio, 2010; MINED, 2012a).

Thus, the process of creating and implementing Mozambique’s NES began, and had two distinct moments. The first starts with the passing of Law 4/83 and takes place in a

context of construction of the Socialist State: education is planned and controlled by the state, and its main role is to train the new man who, besides freeing himself from obscurantism, should take on the values of the socialist society, namely a strong appreciation of national unity, love for the motherland, a fondness for studying. The following strategic objectives of the NES should be highlighted: to eradicate illiteracy; to achieve universal and compulsory schooling to the first seven grades; and to intensify the technical training of the *cadres* needed for the state apparatus and for the major economic projects, based on an equally new and socialist pedagogy (Castiano et al., 2005; Law 4/83). This law articulates the NES in five subsystems: General Education, Adult Education, Technical and Vocational Education, Teacher Training, and Higher Education.

The second period of the implementation of the NES began in 1992, with the reformulation of Law 4/83, which culminated with the passing of Law 6/92 of May 6th. So as to adapt the education system, both pedagogically and organizationally, to the country's new social, economic and political conditions, the Mozambican government reformulated some of the foundations of the previous system (Castiano et al., 2005). Thus, although the state remained at the forefront of the educational process, the new law opened the sector to the participation of communities, cooperatives, companies and other non-governmental organizations. Concerning objectives, the present NES keeps and broadens the objectives previously attributed to education, as it aims to, among other, (1) eradicate illiteracy, (2) ensure basic education to all citizens, in accordance with the development of the country and through the progressive introduction of compulsory schooling, (3) ensure that all Mozambicans have access to technical vocational training, (4) train citizens with a solid scientific, technical, cultural and physical preparation, as well as high moral civic and patriotic education, (5) train the teacher as self-aware educator and professional, with a solid scientific and pedagogic preparation, capable of educating youths and adults.

About the organization of education, Law 6/92 establishes three subsystems: pre-school education, which takes place in nurseries and kindergartens for children under the age of six; school education, constituted by general education, technical vocational education, and higher education; and the extra school education, which comprehends activities in the areas of literacy, as well as cultural and scientific improvement and refresher activities (Law 6/92; Uaciquete, 2010).

General education is the main axis of the NES, and it is organized in two cycles: primary education and secondary education. The mission of Primary Education (PE), of free and compulsory attendance, is to prepare students to access secondary education, and its

objectives are (1) to provide basic training in the areas of communication, life and social sciences, as well as physical, aesthetic and cultural education; (2) to impart knowledge of basic techniques; and (3) to ensure basic personality training. This level is organized in two stages: the first, from the 1st to the 5th grades, for children from 6 to 10 years old; the second, comprehending the 6th and 7th grades, for children of 11 and 12 years of age. The mission of General Secondary Education (GSE) is to consolidate, broaden and deepen the knowledge acquired in the previous stage. It is organized in two cycles: the first (GSE1), from the 8th to the 10th grade, for children from 13 to 15 years old; the second (GSE2), formed by the 11th and 12th grades, for 16- and 17-year-old youths. Completing each of the cycles awards a corresponding certificate (Law 6/92; MINED, 2012a).

Technical Vocation Education (TVE) aims to ensure the technical, integral training of school-age youths. It is organized in elementary, basic and intermediate education. Access to each one of these three levels is articulated with the output of general education. Their mission is to train *cadres* for the economic and social sectors, in successive levels of professional qualification and certification, in conjunction with the levels of organization of those sectors of society (Law 6/92). At present, TVE is being reformed, focusing on the introduction of a modular system and the development of curricula that foster the participation of various actors, especially the manufacturing sector (MINED, 2012a).

The school education also contemplates Higher Education (HE), which is aimed at students that have completed the 12th grade. Its mission is to train technical and specialized *cadres* at the highest level, in the various fields of knowledge necessary to the development of the country. Upon completion, the following degrees are awarded, depending on the level achieved: *bacharel*, *licenciado*¹, master and doctorate. At present, state and private HE covers all the provinces of the country: in 2010, the former had about 76,000 students enrolled in 17 institutions, and the latter about 28,000 students enrolled in 19 institutions (MINED, 2012a; MINED, 2012b). The number of HE graduates has been rising in the past years: for example, in 2004, 2,878 students graduated and in 2010 the number was 8,600, which corresponds to an increase by 259% (MINED, 2012a).

Analysing the situation of the system at present and from the point of view of its population, it should be noted that in the past five years, the NES annually enrolled about 1,200,000 new students in the first academic year. In total, the headcount in basic education

¹ In Portugal, prior to the adoption of the Bologna Declaration, *bacharel* was the title awarded to the first higher education degree (*Bacharelato*) by Polytechnic Institutions after a three-year programme; *licenciado* was the title of awarded to the honours degree (*Licenciatura*) by Universities after a four- to six-year programme, or a *Bacharelato* complemented with two extra years in a Polytechnic (dual-stage *licenciatura*).

came to about 5,500,000 students in 2013, and 5,705,343, in 2014 (MINED, 2012a; MINED, 2012c; MINED 2013, MINED, 2014). Table 1 shows the global figures for students enrolled in basic and secondary state education, including day and night courses, in the period from 2010 to 2013.

Table 1 highlights the exponential increase in enrolled students, putting pressure on all levels of the system, especially on GSE, which was proving increasingly incapable of absorbing PE graduates (MINED, 2009): the table shows that EP enrolled students, potential candidates of GSE, are about seven times more in number than the students enrolled in that cycle. It can also be noted that, in under five years, the GSE, pressured by the growth of PE, nearly doubled its headcount, from 300,000 students in 2007, to 563,352 in 2010, coming to 854,567 students 2011, 855,180 in 2012 and 864,160 in 2013.

The boom in the school population in the last two decades, both at EP and at GSE levels, reflected alarmingly in the rise of the student-teacher and the student-class ratios. For instance, at GSE level, the student-teacher ratio reported in 2007, per province, varied between 56:1 and 70:1 in GSE1, and 51:1 and 85:1 in GSE2. In a more recent period, between 2010 and 2013, the trend towards higher student-teacher ratios continued and, in some regions, it even worsened (Mofate and Carita, 2015). At PE level, in this same period, the student-class ratio was on average 52, and the student-teacher ratio was on average 56.

Table 1
Students enrolled in state schools in Mozambique, 2010-2013 (day and night courses)

Year	Primary Education				General Secondary Education 1st and 2nd Cycles			
	Total Students	Total Teachers	SCR	STR	Total Students	Total Teachers	SCR	STR
2010	5,189,601	***	51	***	563,352	***	63	***
2011	5,225,994	92,163	53	57	854,567	14,593	89	59
2012	5,326,255	95,188	52	56	855,180	16,087	83	53
2013	5,475,691	98,554	52	56	864,160	17,814	79	49

SCR – Student-Class Ratio; STR – Student-Teacher Ratio; *** – No data available.

Mofate and Carita (2015), with recourse to the annual statistics of the Ministry of Education (2010-2013).

A similar expansion did not take place in TVE, which has grown more slowly when compared with general education. For example, in 2014, there were 47 institutions of TVE with about 46,000 students enrolled in the various levels and courses, versus 17,483 general education institutions, taking in about six million students (MINED, 2012a; MINED, 2014).

To explain the slow growth of TVE, several factors can be presented such as (1) high costs per student, (2) lack of qualified teachers, (3) insufficient funds for the necessary working conditions (MEC, 2006). Still, despite this slow progress, it should be pointed out that the number of students in agricultural, industrial and business courses evolved positively in the last decade, going from 32,000 in 2004 to 45,000 in 2011 (MINED, 2012a).

Besides the characterization aspects that we have been highlighting, two other features that compromise the system's fairness and efficacy should be pointed out: the school drop-out and school failure rates.

The NES shows alarming levels of drop-out rates. According to official data, in 2010, it was estimated that the average drop-out rate had risen to figures above 10% in PE. In 2011 drop-out rates of 14%, in the 5th grade, and 13% in the 7th grade were reported, and they tended to rise (MINED, 2012a). In the case of GSE1 and GSE2, in the same year, drop-out rates of 8% and 31.4%, respectively, were reported. In the Strategic Plan for Education and Culture/2006, it is considered that several factors contribute to drop-outs, a phenomenon which affects especially girls, namely (1) poverty, (2) hunger, (3) long distances between home and school, and (4) aspects of a sociocultural nature, specifically, early marriages, parents' education, and initiation rites (MEC, 2006).

In 2013, for example, the system showed equally alarming school drop-out rates, as can be deduced from the success rates reported by the INE (2013b), based on the 2012/13 school survey carried out by MINED. Thus, in PE1 83.7% of students succeeded; in PE2, 77.6%; in GSE1, 66.3%; and in GSE2, 74.2%. The system identified as factors that contributed to failure: (1) lack of infrastructures, insufficient in quality and quantity; (2) lack of laboratories, (3) financial inadequacy to meet the needs of the sector; and (4) teacher absenteeism (MEC, 2006; MINED, 2012a), to which we could also add the participation of children and adolescents in domestic, agricultural and livestock work.

To conclude, the development of public education since the post-independence period resulted in substantial advances towards equality in access to education, with special reference to: (1) the decrease in illiteracy rates from about 93% in 1975 to 48% in 2008; (2) the increase in primary education enrolment rate, which went from 44% in 1997 to 77.1% in 2008; and, (3) the increase in the proportion of girls in primary education, from 33% after the independence to 47.2% in 2009 (AfriMAP, 2012; MEC, 2006). We can say that significant steps were taken towards the fulfilment of the strategic constitutional goals assigned to the NES, regarding the eradication of illiteracy, universal and free schooling to the first seven

grades, and the intensification of technical training of *cadres* for the state apparatus and for the major economic projects.

Still, despite the reinforcement of equalitarian justice in the field of education, apparent in the advances mentioned above, the sector faces countless challenges. Special reference must be made, first and foremost, to the progressive population growth and the consequent rise in educational demand. This fair demand, together with a shortage of structures, equipment and teachers, both in number and quality, and on a national scale, make the situation extremely difficult, presenting a substantial challenge to consistent investment in these fronts (Mofate & Carita, 2015).

Equally important challenges for the NES are the development of integrated educational and social programmes, aiming at preventing school drop-out and school failure at all levels, as well as the expansion of TVE as qualifying response for youth, capable of contributing to reduce poverty and increase employment opportunities (MINED, 2012a). The full satisfaction of these challenges can only be achieved, and must be achieved, in synergy with the country's economic and cultural development.

Teacher training

In this section, we intend to describe and analyse how teacher training began and evolved in Mozambique, the challenges it faced along the way, taking as reference three distinct periods of the history of education in this country: the colonial period, the 1975-1982 period, and the period after the creation of the National Education System, with Law 4/83, between 1983-2014 (Matavele, 2015).

As we have seen, in the 19th century the colonial regime created, and maintained up to the country's independence, two different education systems: one aimed at the majority of the population, the black native population, run by missions (Missionary Statute, art. 66^o of April 5th, 1941); and the other, reserved for the white population and the assimilated, entrusted to state and private institutions (Preamble of Law 4/83; Castiano et al., 2005). To respond to these two education systems, largely lacking in qualified teachers, two corresponding teacher training systems were instituted in 1926, associated with two types of schools (Madeira, 2010, cited by Matavele, 2015): the Qualification Schools for Native Teachers (QSNT) and the Primary Education Schools (PES), the former aimed at training teachers for native education; the latter intended to train teachers for schools for the white population and the assimilated (Decree 312, of May, 1st, 1926, cited by Guro, 1999).

The QSNTs were only regulated in 1930, when the legal framework of teacher training for the rudimentary basic education of natives was established, determining curriculum, duration (3 years), profile of applicants, and certification (preparatory cycle, equivalent to a 6th grade), among other elements. Thus, the native people of this colony could apply to this training course provided they met the following criteria: “16 years of age or older; good civic behaviour; basic education exam and entrance exam; exemption from diseases or physical deficiencies not compatible with the profession” (Education Yearbook of the May 1st, 1930, cited by Mudiue, 1999). Also in 1930 the first QSNT was created, in Alvor, Manhiça. From 1941 onwards, these schools were handed to the Catholic Church (Decree 4469, of August 13th, 1941), and the missions were charged with running and implementing the whole training process, including candidate selection, subject to superior approval (Guro, 1999; Niquice, 2005; Castiano et al, 2005).

Starting in 1964, the Schools for Station Teacher Qualification (SSTQ) were also established, to train teachers for the rudimentary native education in rural areas. Eleven schools were created, one per district, and the trainers were missionaries recruited through the submission of adequate qualifications for the subjects that were supposed to teach. This training had a four-year duration and awarded a degree equivalent to the 2nd year of the preparatory cycle (Mudiue, 1999; Niquice, 2005).

For the official basic education, PTSs were created during the 1960s and beginning of the 1970s in the district capitals, modelled closely on their counterparts in the metropole, which admitted as applicants Europeans or assimilated, with a 5th grade qualification (Guro, 1999; Niquice, 2005).

In the meantime, the teacher training system suffered the influence of the policies of school expansion and improvement of the teaching conditions which take place from the 1960s onwards, as a result of international pressures and recommendations on the colonial regime and its need for qualified staff. Also, the progression of the liberation war favoured the elimination of some barriers which prevent the natives from accessing education, namely qualified education (Rodrigues, 2007). And thus, to respond to the growth of school enrollments, the teacher training system for basic education was adjusted, and from then on contemplated three types of basic school teachers: (1) monitor, with low professional training – three months of pedagogic training, after completing basic education, aimed at teaching in missionary schools; (2) station teachers, trained at the SSTQs, aimed at teaching in schools of the school station, rural areas and urban peripheries; and (3) the teachers whose training was carried out at the PTS, where they obtained a qualification corresponding to middle level, and

who were aimed at teaching European children and the children of the assimilated in basic schools, both state-run and private (Robate, 2006).

At the same time, in the last years of the colonial regime, in the areas liberated by FRELIMO, access to schooling was seriously lacking in teachers. Hence, it was assumed that education should be everyone's task and, in particular, of all who had obtained their education in the country's schools. They could attend short-range teacher training courses, six months in duration, the curriculum of which included, besides basic academic schooling, training in teaching methodologies, pedagogy and psychology. Teachers in service continued their professional development within the context of school districts, known as ZIPs, where they participated in seminars, and, cooperatively, planned their work and produced their pedagogic resources (Robate, 2006).

Considering now the second period in the country's history of education (1975-1982), we should highlight that, in the first years of the independence, there were, in the whole country, only about 10,300 teachers working in basic education, and about 1,800 in secondary education. From these teachers, around 10,000 had the status of monitors, in other words, they had the lowest professional qualification, or maybe even none at all (Castiano et al., 2005). Thus, with few underqualified teachers, the training and recruitment of new teachers was a crucial challenge for the new regime after the independence.

The identification of this situation, the quick intensification of the school demand and consequent exponential growth of school enrolments, especially in basic education, and also the exodus of a substantial part of Portuguese teachers, all this led the new regime to broaden the teacher recruitment base pool, through the militant drafting of young students (an initiative known as the «8th March Generation») and of all individuals with the minimum requirements for teaching, and to adopt expedite measures to retrain existing teachers as well as train new ones, first and foremost for basic education, on a national scale.

Thus, a Basic Education Teacher Training Centre (BETTC) was created in every province. Candidates with the 4th grade could access the training provided there. At the same time, until 1977, ten Schools for Training and Educating Basic Education Teachers (STEBET) for the 5th and 6th grades of that study cycle were created (Table 2). The curriculum of both institutions, taught by retrained teachers who had graduated from the old PTSs and SSTQs, laid strong emphasis on political-ideological as well as on didactic-pedagogic aspects. Courses were distinct in the form of access and duration: application to the former was made with the 4th grade and the course lasted one year; the requirements to access the latter were 9th grade schooling or teaching experience, in the case of working teachers, and

course lasted seven and four months, respectively (Guro, 1999; Gómez, 1999; Matavele, 2002; Castiano et al., 2005). From 1977 onwards, secondary school teachers, in turn, were trained at the Faculty of Education of the Eduardo Mondlane University (EMU). The recruitment base started at the 9th grade, for the 7th to 9th grades, and at the 11th grade, for the 10th and 11th grades, in two-year training courses, which awarded a middle-level degree, to the former, and a *bacharel* degree, to the latter (Matavele, 2015) (Table 2).

The support to initial training, namely for the many teachers with no pedagogic training that slowly accessed the education system, was ensured by specially-created pedagogic structures: the school clusters, known as ZIPs, for basic education teachers, and the Pedagogic Support Commissions, for secondary education teachers (Matavele, 2002).

Table 2
Teacher Training in the period immediately after the independence (1975/1977)

Goal	Place	Access	Duration
Primary Education	Training Centres for Primary Education Teachers (one in each Province)	4 th grade	1 year
Primary Education 5 th and 6 th grades	Training and Education Schools for Primary Teachers	9 th grade Retraining	4 to 7 months
Secondary Education Teachers (from 1977): 7 th to 9 th grade	Eduardo Mondlane University (EMU)/Faculty of Education	9 th grade	2 years (middle-level degree)
Secondary Education Teachers (from 1977): 10 th and 11 th grades	Eduardo Mondlane University (EMU)/Faculty of Education	11 th grade	2 years (<i>bacharelato</i>)

After this emergency stage in training and recruitment, it was urgent to reorganize the process of teacher training on a different basis, stressing not only the increase in their numbers, but also the elevation of recruitment conditions and training quality, which were becoming rather insufficient. Thus, the qualification requirements in the access to some training levels were raised according to the education levels they were aimed at, as well as the nature of the institutions responsible for training, as specified in Table 3 (Castiano et al., 2005).

Table 3
Changes in the training system still in the period immediately after the independence (1979/1982)

Goal	Place	Access	Duration
Primary Education: 1 st to 4 th grade	Training Centres for Primary School Teachers (TCPST)	6 th grade	1 year
Secondary Education: 5 th and 6 th grades	Middle Pedagogic Institutes (MPI)	9 th grade of general education or	2 years

		corresponding degree	
Secondary Education: 7 th , 8 th and 9 th grades	Faculty of Education of the Eduardo Mondlane University (EMU)	9 th grade	2 years (<i>bacharelato</i>)
Secondary Education: 10 th and 11 th grade	Faculty of Education of the Eduardo Mondlane University (EMU)	11 th grade	2 years (<i>bacharelato</i>)

Finally, in the period from 1983 to 2014, which began with the passing of Lei 4/83, creating the new NES, an attempt was made to organize the very disperse and unstable teacher training system. That law defined teacher training as a subsystem of the NES which, besides ensuring the pedagogic, methodological, scientific and technical qualification of teachers for all education subsystems, should adopt a deeply ideological nature, in accordance with the socialist state principles, providing integral training to the teachers. The same law defined initial training as one of the fields of teacher training, together with on-the-job training and continuing training, and determined that it should cover “youths and adults with the academic or technical-vocational qualifications of an immediately lower level” to that which would be acquired with training, through the professional training course suitable to the desired degree or education branch (art. 34). From the point of view of its structure, Law 4/83 defined two levels of initial teacher training (Table 4).

Table 4
Teacher Training Courses established in Law 4/83

Training Levels	Desired Degree	Access	Duration
Middle	Primary Education and Practical Subjects of Technical Vocational Education 1 st Level of Adult Education	2 nd Level of General Education	3 to 4 years
Higher	Secondary and Middle Education	Middle Level of General Education	4 to 5 years

However, following Law 4/83, successive changes continued to be introduced in teacher training, many of which then coexisted with solutions they were supposed to replace, particularly regarding the institutions responsible for teacher training for primary education (Training Centres for Primary Teachers-TCPT, Primary Education Schools-IMAP, Teacher Training Institutes-TTI, among others).

The coexistence of a diversity of solutions was also true of access conditions, duration and certification level of training. In any case, it can be said that the trend was for the conditions to access training to be pushed up – 10th grade certificate, admission exam with a

minimum score, and an interview became requirements, although the same could not be said of the training duration, which dropped to one year (Decree 41/2007 of May 16).

In the meantime, due to the constitutional and political changes that took place, adjustments to the legal framework of teacher training were introduced through Law 6/92 of May 6. This law determines that training for all education subsystems would thereafter be imparted in specialized institutions, and defined as general goals for this training: to integrally train teachers, providing them with solid scientific, psycho-pedagogical and methodological skills as well as the ability to continuously develop them. Regarding its structure, Law 6/92 defined three levels of teacher training (Table 5).

Table 5
Teacher Training courses defined by Law 6/92

Training Levels	Institution	Desired Degree	Access
Basic	TCPT	PE1	7 th grade
Middle	IMAP and ADPP	PE2 and VE	10 th grade or equivalent
Higher	EMU	All education levels	12 th grade

Despite this new legislative effort, nearly ten years later, in 2004, in the document entitled *Strategy for Teacher Training* (STT.04-15), the inability to train the number of teachers necessary for this system is still quite clear, as are the immediate consequences on teacher recruitment: for instance, most of the graduates of the IMAP and the ADPP Schools were placed in the 1st cycle of secondary education, although they were trained for the 2nd cycle of primary education. The same document identified those that seemed to be at the time the main training institutions: CFPP for training teachers for 1st Degree Primary Education, IMAP and ADPP Schools to train teachers for 2nd Degree Primary Education, and the PU and the EMU to train Secondary Education teachers.

Also in the same document, teacher training was characterized, from the perspective of its internal dynamics, as follows (MINED, 2004, p. 14):

- “Various teacher training models and lack of consensus on the characteristics of the appropriate delivery of courses;
- The curriculum of teacher training is outdated and needs revision to correspond to the curricular change in basic education;
- Inadequate balance and lack of systematic connection between the *education theory* and *its practice*;
- Courses are held in an extremely prescriptive manner with a practice generally *teacher-centred* and not *student-centred*, and students are not sufficiently encouraged to reflect upon the practice;
- Lack of connection between the course elements *based on the institution* and *elements based on the school*;
- The opportunities for on-the-job training and for continuing professional development for teachers are scarce;
- Teacher trainers often lack preparation and experience, especially in the practice of contemporary basic education;

- The institutions responsible for teacher training often lack appropriate teaching and learning resources”.

We can then conclude that from 1983 to 2004 various training models coexisted, especially for primary education, which varied between 6th grade + 1 year of training to 10th grade + 2 years of training, thus presenting different statutes and natures, corresponding more to responses to emergency situations than integrated training strategies (MINED, 2004).

From the TTS.04-15 sharp criticism also emerges regarding a situation that has little presence in the available information and which still has not quite made it as object of academic research, namely training curricula. In this respect, the following features stand out: their outdatedness, lack of connection between theory and practice, and the recourse to traditional pedagogies (MINED, 2004). The poor preparation of teacher trainers and their isolation vis-à-vis partners in the field, the limited resources of training schools and the immense frailties of continuing training depict a picture of the existing situation that is clearly not positive.

In short, the scarcity of resources of various nature as well as the social pressure to expand the education system, “led to the implementation of emergency programmes, (...) to training models characterized by fragmentation and discontinuity, resulting in a system without coherence” (MINED, 2004, pp. 7, 8). This situation seemed to derive, also, both from the meandering nature of governmental measures and the diversity of influences and/or impositions introduced in the system by international agencies (Castiano, Ngoenha, & Guro, 2012).

The TTS.04-15 comes into being as a response to this situation. This strategy’s policy proposals suggest the need to (1) improve training, (2) take a coordinated approach to the issue, (3) integrate initial training and on-the-job training with each other and the two with continuing professional development of teachers, and also (4) decentralize the system, whenever feasible and appropriate (MINED, 2004). As short-term strategy, it considers the need to respond to pre-school education and to children with special educational needs, a unique model of teacher training from the 1st to the 7th grade, a new teacher training course for teachers of the 1st cycle of GSE and TVE, distance-education courses for teachers already working as well as foster training institutions for distance-learning programmes, so as to achieve better provision of the teachers the system needed. To improve trainers’ training, an intensive training programme was considered and, in the medium term, raising their academic and professional certification. The revision of access methodologies and teacher qualification was also contemplated (Table 6) (MINED, 2004).

Table 6

Strategy 04-15 for Teacher Training: Short-, medium- and long-term training models

Deadline	Goal	Access	Duration
2004/2008	1 st to 5 th grade	Seven years' schooling Other mechanisms projected	1 year
	6 th to 7 th grade	Ten years' schooling Other mechanisms projected	1 year
	8 th to 10 th grade	Twelve years' schooling Other mechanisms projected	1 year
	1st cycle of Secondary and Vocational	To be revised	
2009-2012	1 st to 5 th grade	Ten years' schooling, if feasible	2 years
	6 th to 7 th grade	Ten years' schooling, if feasible	2 years
	8 th to 10 th grade	Twelve years' schooling	2 years
	1st cycle of Secondary General Education	To be revised	Possible extension to 2 years
2013-2015	Projects degree for all teachers, <i>bacharelato</i> being the initial qualification		

In the meantime, the evaluation of the implementation of the Strategic Plan for Education and Culture 2006-2010/11 (PEEC06-10/11), despite confirming the progress achieved with the expansion of the education system and the increase in equity in participation, notes that great challenges still remain, teacher training being one of them: “We emphasize, in particular, the need to make Primary Education teacher training more practical, focused on learning Portuguese and on teaching-learning methodology” (MEC, 2006, p. 11). Moreover, the training profile for primary education was still not widespread, which was intended as more ambitious than what had been envisioned in 2004 (10th + 3 years; strategy in two stages with two years of initial, face-to-face training and one year of on-the-job training, in principle in the distance-learning format of middle professional level).

In short, despite the political intentions, teacher training as a whole, due to a series of factors weighing on the education and training system as well as on all the social services, found it hard to provide the specialized qualified staff that are supposed to serve that system, both in number and quality. Furthermore, in many situations, learning continues to be ministered by teachers with no pedagogical training, a situation which in 2011 came to 21% of PE1, 17% of PE2 and 21% SE1 (MINED, 2012a).

The creation of such structures as the National Institute for Distance Learning and the National Directorate for Teacher Training may contribute to improve this situation. They are

intended, respectively, to broaden access to all subsystems, namely of Teacher Training, and to implement a training strategy in the context of the professionalization of teaching (MINED, 2012a).

In any case, serious challenges regarding teacher training persist, challenges which society and the state need to address.

Conclusions

With the programme of economic reforms that started in the mid-1980s, the peace agreements of 1992 and the multi-party elections of 1994, a new period in the history of Mozambique began, with receptiveness to foreign investment and other conditions for reactivation of the economic and social activity. Albeit essentially agricultural, the country invested in exploring its natural resources and industrialization, and in the 1990s it achieved important macroeconomic stability. This setting has persisted, albeit with some fluctuations and some deceleration. And yet, Mozambique is still one of the poorest countries in the world, with endemic health problems, low average life expectancy, extremely low qualification levels of its resources, fragile economic and institutional structures, heavy dependence on international aid (Gaspar, Cossa, Santos, Manjate & Schoemaker, 1998; Worldbank, 2016).

The education system, which is expected to strongly contribute to the education of *cadres* indispensable to the country, has followed the changes in the political and economic process. And thus, despite the advances (more budget, more access, more qualification), the shortage of structures, facilities and qualified teachers persists. Moreover, the increase in population and the fair demand of education for children and youth contributed to the rise in student-teacher and student-class ratios, further compromising the quality of the educational service provided, making the response to school drop-out and school failure all the more difficult (Mofate & Carita, 2015).

The teacher training system, particularly in the critical sector of primary education, besides not training the necessary number of teachers, has presented a myriad of solutions, not always articulated or coherent, internally as well as among one another, which have generated disappointing training initiatives incapable of contributing decisively to improve the quality of teaching. Thus, the main challenges facing teacher training are the increase in the number of teachers, the rise of their qualification, and the actual development of their teaching competencies, as well as their relationship with the country's cultural diversity. In accordance with the recommendations put forward by the SPE 12/16, the response to these challenges may benefit from a more rigorous system management, translated into an emphasis on its

stability and coherence, the actual execution and evaluation of the measures designed, more and better control of allocated resources. From a qualitative point of view, teacher training could benefit from raising access conditions and increasing the duration of training, from a curriculum more focused on teaching competencies as well as from the openness and the cooperation between the training entities and the education field, in order to test and foster the training process.

List de Acronyms

ADPP – Development Aid from People to People

AIDS – Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome

CRPM – Constitution of the Popular Republic of Mozambique

CRM - Constitution of the Republic of Mozambique

CRM-90 – Constitution of the Republic of Mozambique

EMU – Eduardo Mondlane University

END – National Development Strategy

EP1 – Primary Education 1st stage

EP2 – Primary Education 2nd stage

ESG – General Secondary Education

ESG1 – General Secondary Education 1st cycle

ESG2 – General Secondary Education 2nd cycle

FRELIMO – Mozambique Liberation Front

GDP – Gross Domestic Product

HDI – Human Development Index

HE – Higher Education

IFHR – International Federation for Human Rights

IMAP – Primary Education Institutes

INE – National Statistical Institute

MEC – Ministry of Education and Culture

MINED – Ministry of Education

MPD – Ministry of Planning and Development

NES – National Education System

PE – Primary Education

PEEC06-10/11 – Strategic Plan for Education and Culture 2006-2010/11

PEE 12/16 – Strategic Plan for Education 2012-2016

PEI – Primary Education Institutes

PES – Primary Education Schools

PMI – Pedagogic Middle Institute

PU – Pedagogic University

QSNT – Qualification Schools for Native Teachers

RBM – Report of the Bank of Mozambique

RENAMO – Mozambican National Resistance

SSTQ – Schools for Station Teacher Qualification

STEPET – Schools for Training and Educating Primary Education Teachers

TCPST – Training Centre for Primary School Teachers

TTI – Teacher Training Institutes

TTS – Teacher Training Strategy

TVE – Technical Vocational Education

UNICEF – United Nations Children’s Fund

UNDP – United Nations Development Programme

USAID – United States Agency for International Development

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