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Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research  
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## Investigating Novice Teachers' Attitudes towards the Teacher Training

Case Study Secondary School Teachers

Thesis submitted to the Department of English in candidacy for the degree of LMD Doctorate in  
Didactics of English Language.

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## *Dedication*

*This work is dedicated*

*To my beloved family, my mother, my father, my sisters and brothers whose support, encouragement and constant love have sustained me throughout life.*

*To all my relatives, friends and colleagues*

*And finally to you dearest reader.*

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## **ABSTRACT**

Teachers are the backbone of any country's educational system. They play a critical role in the implementation of school changes and innovations and without them, no education reform will succeed at helping all students learn to their potential. The present study attempts to investigate the attitudes of high school novice teachers of English toward the adequacy of their teacher training program, which they had recently completed, in preparing them to meet the demands of work expected of them in secondary schools. In addition, this study attempts to investigate the challenges encountered by novice teachers in their first years of teaching. This investigation was carried out using a questionnaire and semi-structured interview as methods of data collection. The targeted population in this study is the high school novice teachers of English in the region of Biskra of which a sample of (70) novice teachers responded to the questionnaire and a sample of (03) teachers participated in the semi-structured interviews. The findings obtained in this research disclose that the high school novice teachers held negative attitudes toward their teacher training due to the existence of gaps between teachers' work demands and preparation practices, shortage of field-work experiences and a lack of supportive environment and guidance. It was also found that novice teachers developed negative attitudes toward two major challenges: contextual challenges including classroom management, heavy workload, overcrowded classes and teaching-related challenges including lesson planning, assessment and grading and time management. These challenges affected novice teachers' unfavorable attitudes toward their roles in the teaching and learning process and proved to frustrate their attempt to attain the set objectives. In this regard, it is recommended that a review of training plans designed to prepare teachers is necessary in order to bridge the gaps between the training received and the practical needs of novice teachers. This makes an essential step for the improvement of the quality of education as well as the professional and emotional well-being of teachers.

## **List of Abbreviations**

**BA:** Bachelor of Arts Degree

**CBA:** Competency-based Approach

**CM:** Classroom Management

**EFL:** English as a Foreign Language

**EHEA:** European Higher Education Area

**ELL:** English Language Learner

**ENS:** Ecole Nationale Supérieure

**L2:** Second Language

**LMD:** Licence /Master/Doctorate

**NT:** Novice Teacher

**Q:** Question

**U.S.:** United States

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## **General Introduction**

### **1.1 Background of the Study**

The world is changing rapidly. Globalization and the huge development of high technologies are significantly increasing the pace of our lives and bringing us closer than ever before, but also presenting profound challenges. The skills that were appropriate two decades ago, no longer prepare learners for the real world. They are in need to be able to use a wide variety of tools to cope effectively with the environment and to use the necessary language for interacting with people from different nations. Besides, the transformation in the society's views, values and norms urges the educational institutions worldwide to look for better ways to educate young people and prepare them to take responsibility for managing their own lives and acting autonomously.

Being aware of the crucial importance of language, Algeria cannot overlook the fact that English is the global lingua franca of international affairs. The role of English as the language of global trade, the international information technology and the opportunities and pressures of the rapidly changing world of globalization are factors that cannot be ignored if Algeria hopes to keep pace with the global trends and assume a competitive role. Therefore, a number of educational reforms have been introduced to prepare students meet the challenges of the 21<sup>st</sup> century. The Algerian educational framework has witnessed a deliberate shift regarding its curriculum and teaching methodologies. Hence a new curriculum based on a socio-constructivist approach to education was introduced to the Algerian educational system in 2003. In this perspective, teaching and training are considered as instruments for the development of autonomous individuals able to adopt critical thinking in order to adapt to constant changes. For more precision, this socio-constructivist competency based approach has been implemented in both middle and

secondary education with the aim of providing learners with the knowledge and skills that enable them to recognize and solve complex problems that have never occurred before.

Like the other educational settings, reforms have been introduced at the university level and thus the LMD system has been applied. Faced with the global age pressures, there was an urgent need to change the Algerian higher educational system to cope with the new directions and global trends in higher education. Algeria, like many other developed and developing countries all over the world, has implemented the policy and principles of the bologna process which was launched in 1999 by the ministers of Education and university leaders of 29 European countries. Its aim is to create a coherent and cohesive European higher education area. The result of joining this process is the adoption of the LMD system principles in the Algerian higher educational system. This system is a three cycle degree system. It is composed of Licence degree, the equivalent of the BA (Bachelor Degree) with six semesters (three years of study) then a Master Degree for two years (four semesters) and finally, the Doctorate Degree for three years of research (six semesters). The ultimate objective of this system is to respond to the requirement of the job market by providing the knowledge and skills students need to develop both academically and professionally. In addition, this reform is believed to provide further opportunities and possibilities for teachers and students so that both become involved in the training process.

It is an undeniable fact that the success and failure in achieving quality education lies primarily in the hands of classroom teachers. It is thus of central importance to recognize the centrality of teachers' role. However, it appears that teachers particularly novices are being ignored and rarely are asked about the quality of their teacher training. All efforts focus on ancillary things like the quality of textbook format while overlooking the quality of teacher education and training. Novice teachers are both consumers and producers of knowledge and need time to acclimate to a very complex profession, requiring support to accelerate their teaching skills as quickly as possible. It is argued that novice teachers who do not receive relevant support through comprehensive training programs will require three years to seven years of teaching to achieve their maximum effects on student learning (Stanulis & Floden, 2009). If teacher training institutions wish to produce competent teachers, they must be serious about developing teacher preparation programs by providing opportunities to learn from novice teachers to better design and develop training programs more suited to the existing needs of novice teachers. Therefore, consideration should be

given to what novice teachers hold as effective training to ensure not only a smooth transition from pre-service to in-service teaching but also accelerating the effectiveness of novice teachers with the ability to positively impact student achievement.

## **1.2 Statement of the Problem**

As mentioned above, the main aim behind the educational reforms and the implementation of a new system at the university level is to create an overall innovation within the Algerian universities. Therefore, new teaching curriculum, syllabuses were designed to meet the objectives of reforms and teacher training programs were initiated to enable teachers adapt to the new curriculum. However, these reforms have been met with apparent dissatisfaction and resistance. According to Freire (1985), every time an educational program is introduced and the objective is to reproduce the existing social relations, there is a resistance to this program. The Algerian educational agents and the public at large manifested their concerns about the efficiency and suitability of the university and school system. Teachers voiced their discontent about the program reform by organizing strikes (El Shourouk El Yaoumi, 09, 01, 2006). However, it can be noticed that novice teachers' opinions and views are being alienated as far as these new programs.

Novice teachers are suitably positioned for highlighting aspects of their teacher training coursework and professional practice that can be strengthened for enhancing their knowledge and skills to teach and also areas they consider to be poorly constructed or of little value. However, there is no research that investigates novice teachers' (graduates of the program reform) attitudes toward the adequacy of their secondary school teacher training. Therefore, this study undertakes to investigate and explore how do novice teachers perceive their teacher training program, which they had recently completed, in preparing them to meet the demands of work expected of them in secondary schools. In addition, this study attempts to investigate the challenges encountered by novice teachers in their first years of teaching and suggest ways to cope with them.

## **1.3 Objectives of the Study**

The objectives of this research work can be summarized as follows:

- Add theory on novice teachers' attitudes through an exploration of EFL novice teachers' attitudes in Algeria.
- Draw out implications for EFL teacher training and development in Algeria.

- Provide a medium through which EFL novice teachers in Algeria can express their needs, concerns and challenges and share their experiences with other communities of teaching in Algeria and worldwide.
- Sensitize stakeholders to the need to improve the teaching quality through effective teacher training programs.

#### **1.4 Research Questions**

The present study is an attempt to answer a set of questions related to novice teachers' attitudes toward the adequacy of their teacher training. The objectives of this investigation are guided by the following research questions:

- 1- How do EFL novice teachers in Biskra region perceive their teacher training?
- 2- What do EFL novice teachers in Biskra region find challenging in their first years of teaching?
- 3- What implications does this study have on teacher training and development in Algeria?

The first question seeks to identify and present a range of different attitudes held by the participants toward their teacher training. The second question seeks to identify the major challenges faced by novice teachers during their first years of teaching and the third question seeks to draw out implications of the findings for novice teachers' development and suggest some recommendations for teachers and education policy makers to reflect upon in an attempt to improve teacher training in Algeria.

#### **1.5 Research Hypotheses**

This research puts forward three main research hypotheses. These are:

- 1- EFL Novice teachers in Biskra region hold unfavorable attitudes toward their teacher education and training.
- 2- The biggest challenge that surfaces for EFL novice teachers in Biskra region is classroom management.
- 3- If EFL novice teachers in Biskra region receive adequate pre-service and in-service education, training and professional counseling, their attitudes will be more favorable toward their teaching practices.

## **1.6 Significance of the Study**

The scarcity of research related to novice teachers attitudes toward their education and training in undertaking actual classroom practices after the program completion (Brownell & Pajares, 1990) provides a strong rationale for this study. In addition, teacher training and development received extensive attention in the educational arena because of the need for quality teaching and teachers which made it a topic of current concern. This study is an attempt to encourage reflection about the strengths and weaknesses of teacher training programs and the importance of seeking novice teachers' attitudes and perceptions. In addition, it aims to contribute to the body of knowledge concerning the challenges of novice teachers and the ways in which teacher training programs can be adjusted to better prepare teachers for the realities they will face as they make the transition to the teaching profession. With more in-depth preparation, novice teachers will feel better prepared to teach and manage their classrooms effectively and will experience success and develop positive attitudes toward their profession. Moreover, it attempts to sensitize our teaching community to be aware of the change that is taking place in the world in order to meet what is expected from it in the technology-driven age and hence maximize its quality teaching.

## **1.7 Methods of Data Collection**

The study employs two methods of data collection namely, a questionnaire and a semi-structured interview. The questionnaire has been administered to the secondary school teachers of English in the region of Biskra to gauge novice teachers' needs and attitudes. As far as the objectives of our study are concerned, we believe that the use of the questionnaire as a data collection tool is helpful in obtaining the necessary data. Questionnaires are flexible in that they can be combined with other complementary, more intensive tools of qualitative research like interviews to yield more in-depth information (Mee, 2007). Therefore, Semi-structured interviews have been organized with the view of elucidating points that cannot be gathered through questionnaires. In other words, this interview was used to supplement the findings and to provide an in-depth insight into the questionnaire results. Partington, (2001) for instance points out that the interview method helps the researcher depict the "emic" side of participants, such as "their perceptions, attitudes and values, matters which are difficult to obtain by alternative methods" (p.1). The use of different methods from this perspective is a strategy that gives the research

more credibility and is likely to produce more comprehensive and accurate data; in other words, it enhances the reliability and validity of the information gathered.

## **1.8 Structure of the Thesis**

This thesis is presented in six chapters divided into two parts: theoretical and practical. The first theoretical part consists of three chapters while the practical one consists of four chapters. Chapter one provides an overview of the novice teacher. It encompasses issues like the attitudinal phases of novice teacher development, the types of knowledge required of novice teachers and their needs that should be fulfilled, in addition to the challenges and difficulties usually encountered during the first years of teaching.

Chapter two presents an overview of teacher training and development in general and in Algeria in particular. It discusses the different phases and models of teacher training. Then, it outlines the rationale and key features of teacher professional development. Finally, it presents the teacher training and development systems in Algeria before and after the reforms were initiated.

Chapter three is devoted to Classroom management. This latter is the biggest single concern of novice teachers. Therefore, this section contains a review of literature concerning the notion of classroom management and how it relates to novice teachers teaching efficacy and motivation. Issues related to the importance of classroom management, classroom management approaches, models and strategies are also covered.

The fourth chapter gives a reflective account of the research methodology underlying the study. It justifies the chosen methodology and methods for data collection. It then discusses the process of data analysis, and highlights issues of ethics and trustworthiness.

Chapter five, fieldwork and data analysis, undertakes to analyze the questionnaire which has been designed and administered to a large population of high school teachers of English. This section will present the findings and will profile the attitudes as articulated by the participants. The semi-structured interview with some of the surveyed teachers seems to corroborate what most of the other participants' feelings about their socio-professional environment as well as their attitudes toward their preparation.

The sixth and last chapter will provide interpretations of the main findings, which will be guided by relevant theory on teacher education and training with the goal of answering

the research questions as well as verifying the hypotheses. It ends with the implications, limitations of the study, and further research suggestions.

## **Chapter One: Novice Teacher Profile**

### **1.1 Introduction**

Being a novice teacher is the most difficult time in a teacher's career. Once hired, novice teachers face the demanding and daunting task of becoming a teacher and setting up a classroom that influences student achievement in positive ways. During that time, they struggle to find their own voice as professionals as they strive to reconcile their personal attitudes, beliefs and values with the reality of teaching. This chapter, therefore, intends to achieve a better understanding of novice teachers' attitudes, knowledge, needs and challenges. Besides, a distinction between novice and expert teacher as well as the phases of novice year teaching will be provided.

### **1.2 Novice Teacher**

A number of studies have defined a novice teacher as one with less than three years of teaching experience (Drake, 2000; Huberman, 1993; Leinhardt, 1989; Leinhardt & Greeno, 1986; Shealy, 1994; Shealy, 1995; Sherin & Drake 2000; Wilson, Shulman, & Richert, 1987). Novice teachers' teaching tends to focus on "survival" (Huberman, 1993) and establishing basic classroom routines (Sherin & Drake, 2000). During this stage, novice teachers are involved in "learning the texture of the classroom and the sets of behaviors congruent with the environmental demands of that setting" (Doyle, 1997, cited in Farrell, 2009, p. 182). In other words, novice teachers are teacher training program graduates entering the teaching profession with a typically zero to three years of teaching experience. In their first year, novice teachers' experiences are mediated by three major types of influences: their previous schooling experience, the nature of the teacher education program from which they have graduated, and their socialization experiences into the educational culture generally and the institutional culture more specifically (Mairif, 2013).

#### **1.2.1 Differences between Novice and Expert Teachers**

Speaking about novice teachers, it is well-worth examining the differences between novice and expert teachers that have been identified in the literature. According to

Bransford, Brown and Cocking (2000, cited in Orgoványi-Gajdos, 2015, pp. 591-592), the main attributes of expert teachers are the following:

- Experts are able to structure information by underlying functions (called chunking).
- Experts can perceive meaningful patterns of information.
- Experts categorize problems according to their deep structures while novices focus on their superficial features.
- Experts have a high level of content knowledge in a specific domain.
- Experts are able to organize their knowledge around key principles and concepts.
- Experts are able to retrieve efficiently suitable knowledge for the current situation.
- Experts spend more time on understanding and analyzing problems but then solve it more quickly while novices start to solve problems immediately.
- Experts have forward thinking process (to the goal) while novices use backward thinking process (from the goal).
- Experts are more flexible during approaching a problem.
- Experts have strong connection between metacognition and self-regulation process.
- Experts are generating more complex and sophisticated representation of problem situation.

In her book “Understanding Expertise in Teaching: Case Studies in ESL Teaching” Tsui (2003) examined the characteristics of novice and expert teachers that have been identified in the literature. Based on her research, the following table summarizes the main differences between novice and expert teachers:

**Table 0.1:** The Difference between Novice and Expert Teachers

<b>Novice Teachers</b>	<b>Expert Teachers</b>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- They tend to act according to rules and guidelines laid down by people with authority (planning is guided by rules and models)</li> <li>- They engage in short-term planning.</li> <li>- Novice teachers’ plans are more detailed.</li> <li>- They have difficulties anticipating problems in the classroom.</li> <li>- They are much less flexible.</li> <li>- Novice teachers’ have much less sophisticated knowledge.</li> <li>- Novice teachers are less efficient, less selective and have difficulties improvising</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- They rely on judgment and exercise autonomy when planning.</li> <li>- They engage in longer-term planning.</li> <li>- They plan their lessons mentally with brief notes (mental plans are very rich).</li> <li>- They are able to anticipate the difficulties that students are likely to have.</li> <li>- They are flexible</li> <li>- They draw upon a wide range of knowledge</li> <li>- They are more efficient, more selective and have the ability to improvise.</li> </ul>

The characteristics of novice and expert teachers that have been summarized in the above table are believed to be related to their “knowledge schemata” (Tsui, 2003). According to Livingston and Borko (1989, p. 37):

...the cognitive schemata of experts typically are more elaborate, more complex, more interconnected, and more easily accessible than those of novices. Therefore, expert teachers have larger, better integrated stores of facts, principles, and experiences to draw upon as they engage in planning, interactive teaching and reflection.

Peterson and Comeaux (1987) further argue that it is this knowledge schemata that affect teachers' perception and understanding of classroom events, the students, and their problem-solving, as well as decision-making in interactive teaching. The ability of expert teachers to recognize, interpret meaningful patterns and make sense of multiple classroom events is attributed to their rich and elaborate schemata for classroom events than novice teachers (Peterson & Clark, 1978). Expert teachers' better recall of classroom events and their more principled ways of analyzing and solving problems are considered to be caused by their well-developed knowledge schemata (ibid., 1987). In contrast, novice teachers' schemata are still being developed. Hence, they are less able to determine whether the information is relevant, and they consider more information before they make decisions in teaching. Consequently, they are less efficient (Livingston and Borko, 1989).

### **1.2.2 Novice Teacher Confidence for Teaching**

Novice teachers need to feel confident and competent to teach. Bandura (1997) claimed that beliefs in one's own capabilities are critical elements of how people behave. Pajares (2000, 2002) further extends this notion by indicating that the belief in one's own ability to achieve a task plays a huge role in achieving successful outcomes. Harlen and Allende (2009) note that confidence in teaching plays an important role in determining whether teachers provide their students meaningful learning experiences. In addition, confidence in the areas of theoretical and pedagogical knowledge more often equates to successful teachers who influence positive student outcomes (Cripps Clark & Walsh, 2002). In a similar vein, Lane et al. (2004) concurred that self-perceptions about ability does not necessarily equate to skills, motivation, and knowledge but being confident to undertake a task can provide an indication of performance. This means that being a confident teacher is as much important as being motivated and knowledgeable in the subject matter that s/he is teaching.

Bandura (1977, 1994) indicated that beliefs in one's ability to succeed are influenced by four factors. The first and most influential one is experience "enactive attainment" that provides practice for individuals to undertake a task within a realistic situation. This helps developing confidence when the task is achieved successfully. The second influence is vicarious experience or modeling where individuals model an activity to provide an understanding of how it can be accomplished. The third one is social persuasion which is

manifested as direct encouragement or discouragement messages received from others. The last one is psychological state like stress, anxiety and mood that can influence the levels of confidence.

Teachers' confidence or what Bandura (1977) called "self-efficacy" can then influence their willingness to teach particular key learning areas and their success and effectiveness in the classroom (Geoghegan, Geoghegan, O'Neill, & White, 2004; Giallo & Little, 2003; Gunning & Mensah, 2010; Jamieson-Proctor & Finger, 2006; Lavelle, 2006). Although it is evident that there is a need to investigate the teachers' self-efficacy to teach in the secondary school, there is little research that highlights this aspect. Therefore, the confidence of novice teachers needs to be considered since it plays a crucial role in the success of teachers in their classrooms.

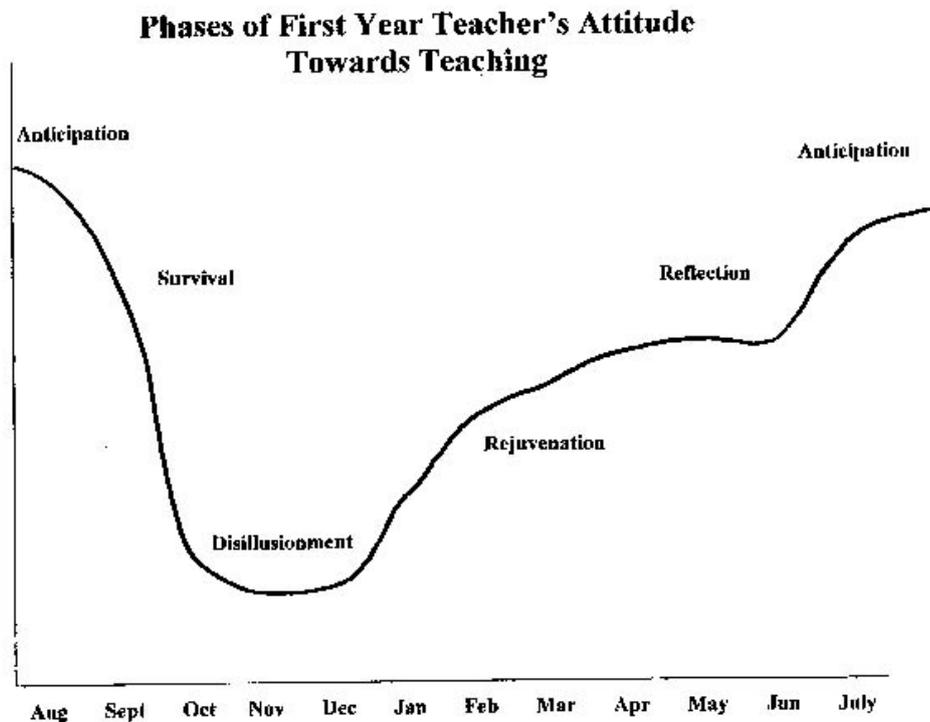
### **1.2.3 Phases of First Year Teaching**

The first year of teaching is a real challenge for novice teachers. Therefore, recognizing the different phases that novice teachers go through as they enter the profession, can support and assist education programs to make the first year of teaching a more positive experience for them. Novice teachers move through several phases from anticipation, to survival, to disillusionment, to rejuvenation, to reflection, and then back to anticipation (Moir, 2011, cited in Gravé, 2013, p. 37).

- Anticipation Phase: during this stage, novice teachers enter the profession with a high excitement and commitment to make a difference in students' lives. In addition, they have a somewhat idealistic view of how to achieve their goals. This feeling of excitement can last only for the first few weeks of school.
- Survival Phase: the first months of teaching are very overwhelming for novice teachers particularly because of their constant need to develop curriculum. During this phase, novices learn a lot with a very rapid pace and they are instantly faced with a variety of situations and problems that they had not anticipated. Therefore, they become very busy and consumed with the day-to-day routine of teaching.
- Disillusionment Phase: the length and intensity of this phase varies among novice teachers. After non-stop work and stress, novice teachers start questioning their

competence and commitment. During the disillusionment phase, classroom management is considered to be a major source of stress and novice teachers prefer to focus more time on curriculum planning and less on classroom management. This can be due to their lack of confidence to handle students' misbehavior problems.

- Rejuvenation Phase: this stage is characterized by a slow rise in novices' attitude towards teaching. Getting a rest after the first half of the year, novice teachers gain a better understanding of the system and develop a sense of accomplishment and acceptance of the realities of teaching. During the stage, the main focus of novice teachers is curriculum development, long-term planning and teaching strategies.
- Reflection Phase: during this phase, novice teachers reflect back on their teaching and realize that there are things they can improve upon as they move towards the next year. After the phase of reflecting, they begin to anticipate the next year and think about the different changes that they plan to make in curriculum, management and teaching strategies which brings them to a new phase of anticipation.



**Figure 1.1:** Phases of First Year Teachers' Attitudes toward Teaching (Moir, 2011, cited in Gravé, 2013, p. 38).

It is of crucial important to assist novice teachers and ease their transition from student teacher to full time teacher. Therefore, recognizing the different phases that novices go through can be of great help for teacher education program designers to make the first year of teaching a positive experience for new teachers. According to Fuller and brown's research (1975, p. 38), teachers also undergo distinct stages of development from novice to experienced involving the following:

- Self: the concern for own survival as an individual.
- Task: concern about the duties of a teacher.
- Impact: the ability to make a difference and be successful with their students and the learning and teaching process.

### **1.2.4 Challenges of Novice Teachers**

The first year of teaching is considered to be a difficult experience for most novice teachers. The change in role from a student to a teacher is not a simple transition. According to Featherstone (1993, cited in grave, 2013), the first year of teaching is a difficult and complex task that can have a major impact on the professional development of novice teachers. They enter the profession with high expectations for themselves and for the students. However, over the course of one year, teachers experience a decreased strength of belief in their own effectiveness and in their students' learning potentials (Harris and Associates, Inc., 1991).

Among the areas in which novice teachers have difficulties in is classroom management. A public agenda survey (2004) found that 85% of novice teachers felt unprepared to deal with students' problem behaviors. According to Hover and Yeager (2004), classroom management difficulties can prompt novice teachers to abandon the research-based instructional practices they have studied at university, like project-based and cooperative learning, in favor of calm and steady lectures. Another challenge that novice teachers commonly face is the lack of guidance and resources for lesson planning. Fry (2007) observed that novice teachers are spending 10 to 12 hours a day trying to make lesson plans, grading and the different demands of extracurricular assignments. Marshall, Fittinghoff, and Cheney (1990, cited in Fantilli & McDougall, 2009, p. 814) pointed out

that it is not until they have survived the initial shock of the first year that novice teachers are able to begin to concentrate on the important areas of long-term planning, overall student goals, and individual students' needs. This shows that novice teachers have almost the same responsibilities as experienced teachers with many years of service. Therefore, instead of letting them swim or sink with lesson planning, developing models of lesson planning and teaching resources by experienced teachers can be helpful for them at least to keep their heads above water.

A study conducted by Beck, Kosnik, and Rowsell (2007) focused on novice teachers' views of their needs during their first year of teaching. The teachers' comments indicated areas in their teacher training programs that they wished would have been covered in more depth. These areas included a deeper understanding of theoretical frameworks, procedures for the first weeks of school, practical knowledge and skill, understanding of skill in assessment and evaluation, capacity for comprehensive program planning, and finally the ability to implement effective group work. Therefore, teacher educators need to find new ways of teaching to best meet novice teachers' needs. This would allow beginning teachers to gain a better understanding of how to implement the knowledge and skills they have studied into practice.

Liston, Whitcomb and Borko (2006) claimed that there are three main reasons behind novice teachers' problems or challenges. The first one is related to the curriculum in university-based teacher preparation programs which does not prepare them for the realities of today's classrooms. This was supported by Tahone and Allwright (2005) who argue that the "differences between the academic course content (...) and the real conditions that novice language teachers are faced with in the language classroom appear to set up a gap that cannot be bridged by beginning teacher learners" (cited in Gravé, 2013, p. 36). The second reason is the lack of peer support. According to Colbert and Wolfe (1992), without adequate supports, only the strongest and most determined teachers succeed. It seems that more than anything else that novice teachers need for, yet seldom receive, is meaningful feedback on their teaching from veteran teachers and administrators (Fry, 2007; McCormack, Gore, & Thomas, 2006). The last reason identified by Liston, Whitcomb and Borko (2006) is the inefficient in-service training programs that are meant to fulfill novice teachers' needs.

### 1.2.5 Novice Teachers' Needs

It becomes clear that learning to teach is developmental. However, novice teachers are still expected to hold the same responsibilities for student learning and the same expectations for their performance as their more experienced colleagues. Therefore, to better support novice teachers, the first logical step is to examine what novice teachers exactly need to overcome these challenges. According to Moeini (2009, p. 1), needs are the gaps between what is expected and the existing conditions. In other words, there is a discrepancy between what individuals expect to fulfill or possess and the inability to deliver on, or cope with the new situation. Murray (1938) defined the individual's need as a, "potentiality or readiness to respond in a certain way under certain given circumstances". Differently stated, when the teacher challenges the circumstances surrounding him/her and struggle to improve his/her teaching, then it can be said that this teacher has recognized his own needs. Therefore, we can say that needs explain individuals' behavior.

The study of needs have received a particular attention from psychologists. The pioneering work of Abraham Maslow's (1943) established the value of need at the fore of exploration and the specialized scholarly literature. Maslow's theory of needs suggests that individuals' needs are arranged in a hierarchy. This classification demonstrates that needs can be prioritized. The hierarchy of needs is usually referred to explain how people satisfy their various personal needs in the context of work. In addition, it demonstrates the different types of needs and their degree of importance. This implies that some needs should be satisfied first before other needs. According to Maslow, there are two levels of needs. The lower level of needs is called deficiency needs which include physiological needs (air, food, shelter, etc.), safety needs (personal safety, financial safety, etc.), love and belonging needs (affection, connection to family, friends, and colleagues) and esteem needs (self-respect and respect from others, high evaluation of oneself, achievement, reputation/prestige). These needs ought to be satisfied in order to move up to the higher level of needs (being needs) which include aesthetic needs and self-actualization needs. The chart below is proposed to demonstrate the predetermined hierarchy which Maslow advanced in his book.



**Figure 1.2:** Maslow's hierarchy of Needs Chart

This pyramid of needs has at its base the survival needs (i.e., physiological) then topped by safety, social, esteem needs, and the topmost head is self-realization. Maslow (1968) defined self-actualization as an “on-going actualization of potentials, capacities and talents as fulfillment of mission, a fuller knowledge of, and acceptance of, the person’s own intrinsic nature and an unceasing trend toward unity, integration, or synergy within the person”(p. 24-27). Maslow (1968) argued that the deficiency needs can be satisfied only by other people which means that individuals who are driven by these needs are more dependent on the environment than the self-actualizing individuals. Accordingly, individuals in dependent position must be more afraid of the environment, since they are not in control of their own fate and they need to be responsive and flexible in order to be able to adapt themselves to the context (Maslow, 1968: 35).

Breaux and Wang (2003) and Coffey (2008) use Maslow’s (1968) deficiency needs to demonstrate that before the new teachers can move on to pursue their desire of becoming a teacher, there are concerns and needs that need to be dealt with. First, Physiological and safety needs. Questions like, where is my classroom? Why doesn’t someone show me where my classroom is? Where do I eat lunch and what will it cost? When do I get paid and how do I make sure that I have health insurance? According to Breaux and Wang (2003, p. 63), are what novice teachers think about once they start working. In addition, Darling-Hammond (1997) indicated that teachers are asked to teach more information at a higher cognitive level to an increasingly diverse student population, but with little support from the system. Johnson and Donaldson (2004, p.106) also argued that the schools’ inadequate equipment and resources and ‘the unspoken expectations’ that teachers ought to be able to cope with can demoralize teachers. According to Goddard and

associates (2006), novice teachers reported that the daily routines, rules, and policies were less clarified and the school environments were less able to accommodate innovative work practices.

The aforementioned findings are a simulation of Maslow's notion of growth. According to Maslow (1968), "The individuals will grow when the attractions of growth and the anxieties of safety are greater than the anxieties of growth and the attractions of safety"(p.47). When it is applied to new teachers' situation, it means that supportive working conditions help teachers overcome the needs for safety and facilitates good teaching (Johnson &Donaldson, 2004). In a similar vein, Feiman-Nemser (2003) added that "whether the early years of teaching are a time of constructive learning or a period of coping, adjustment, and survival depends largely on the working conditions and culture of teaching that new teachers encounter" (25).

The need for a supportive school environment leads teachers to the next level of needs which is love and belonging needs. O'Brien (2004, p.2), argued that among the reasons that lead novice teachers to leave the profession is the isolation from colleagues. Lacey (1977, p. 40) added that the isolation of teachers has become one of the characteristics of the classroom that has influenced both the teacher's role and the school's culture. This means that the social context of education is vital to broaden the teacher's role. Hobson et al (2006, p. 182), in their study of the process of becoming a teacher, concluded that the most mentioned factors that attract student teachers to a particular teaching post are the school climate, the colleagues, the support offered, the head teacher, and the pupils. This shows that novice teachers are aware of the importance of collaboration among teachers and how it can be fruitful for their teaching.

Lave and Wenger (1991, cited in HanXu, 2013) suggest that, in communities of practice, members are mutually engaged in collaboration that reinforces shared beliefs and can contribute to the formation of personal and professional identities. This simulates what Clark and Hollingsworth (2002) and Lovett and Gilmore (2003) contended that the context where teachers work can play an important role in determining teacher confidence and self-efficacy.

According to Lacey (1977), novice teachers employ two types of situational adjustment strategies in dealing with the constraints they face which are as follows:

- Strategic compliance, in which the individual complies with the authority figure's definition of the situation and the constraints of the situation but retains private reservations about them. He is merely seen to be good;
- Internalized adjustment, in which the individual complies with the constraints and believes that the constraints of the situation are for the best. He really is good (p. 72).

Lacey's theory implied that teachers' ideas and actions are affected by their work environment. Therefore, one must take into account the constraints of the situation in which the teacher is being socialized for a better interpretation of his/her ideas, attitudes, beliefs and actions.

The next level of needs is esteem needs. Maslow (1970) argued that all individuals have the need for firmly based self-esteem and the satisfaction of this need leads to a sense of worth, self-confidence, capability, strength and adequacy of being necessary and useful in the world. Flores (2004, p. 133) indicated that the difficulties and reality of teaching that novice teachers confront may challenge their personal beliefs, attitudes and their self-efficacy toward teaching. This is supported by Draper and O'Brien (2006) who contended that starting a new job can threaten one's self-esteem. According to Breaux and Wang (2003, p. 63), novice teachers ask questions like, when will I hear a few words of encouragement? What can I do to help so that I feel I have some significance around here? I feel so useless and so alone. Won't someone tell me about the 'unwritten rules' in the school? These questions demonstrate that novice teachers struggle to satisfy their desires for attention, recognition, importance and appreciation, but they are left with no support and guidance which can weaken their teaching commitment.

Bandura (2004, p. 131) defined self-efficacy which is an important element of meeting the self-esteem need as "the belief in one's capabilities to organize and execute the courses of action required to manage prospective situations". Goddard's (2001) research suggests that teachers with higher level of self-efficacy to make a difference in their students' lives have positive influence on their students' self-efficacy and academic achievement. However, teachers who feel less confident about themselves are more likely to find teaching an unrewarding profession and are less motivated to experiment new teaching methods and ideas and have less hopes for professional development. Therefore, as Breaux and Wong (2003) suggested, new teachers need to be trained and supported in

order to be successful although this can be costly but it is better than losing them, or even worse, risk keeping them as bad teachers which costs more.

In short, it can be said that the individual's biological needs, physical needs, social needs, and psychological needs should to be accommodated in order to put his full potential to be a productive citizen. In other words, if the aforementioned basic human needs are not met, it is unlikely that the teacher will perform effectively. Therefore, the reluctance in addressing and redressing teachers' needs would probably affect negatively their instructional skills and eventually undermine their quality teaching and widens students' achievement gap.

### **1.3 Attitudes**

Research on attitudes has been popular in many disciplines. However, most information on attitudes is reported in the literature of social psychology. The construct is considered more central to social psychology than to any other academic area. Allport (1935) claimed "the concept of attitude is probably the most distinctive and indispensable concept in contemporary American social psychology." This means that the field of social psychology is primarily concerned with attitudes. However, other disciplines have a claim on attitudes, Baker (1992, p.1) states that "the notion of attitudes has a place in psychology, sociology, anthropology, education, history, human geography and creative arts". Baker (1992, p. 10) concurs that attitudes "...stood the tests of time, theory, and taste". The continued and proven utility of attitudes in this field of study proves the importance of this concept.

Attitude has been a difficult concept to define adequately, but its popularity leads to a wide range of definitions among social psychologists. The following definitions of attitude are among the earliest that were offered by pioneer researchers:

Attitude is readiness for attention or action of a definite sort (Baldwin, 1901, p. 11).

An attitude is a mental and neural state of readiness, organized through experience, exerting a directive or dynamic influence upon the individual's response to all objects and situations with which it is related (Thomas & Znaniecki, 1918, P. 50).

An attitude is a complex of feelings, desires, fears, convictions, prejudices or other tendencies that have given a set or readiness to act (Chave, 1928, p. 365)

An attitude is a tendency to act toward or against something in the environment which becomes thereby a positive or negative value (Bogardus, 1931, p. 62).

Attitudes are literally mental postures, guides to contact to which each new experience is referred before a response is made (Morgan, 1934, p. 34)

It can be noticed that the aforementioned scholars tended to perceive attitude as a simple entity, only Morgan uses the plural form of “attitude”. In addition, all these definitions appear to believe that attitudes are emerged through the interactions in the social environment to give a judgment of the latter.

More recent definitions of attitude include the following:

- 1- An attitude is an idea charged with emotion which predisposes a class of actions to a particular class of social situations (Triandis, 1971, p. 2).
- 2- An attitude is a learned disposition to respond to an object in consistently favorable way (Fishbein and Ajzen, 1975, p. 6).
- 3- An attitude is a disposition to react with characteristics judgments and with characteristics goals across a variety of institutions (Anderson, 1981, p. 93).
- 4- Attitudes are tendencies to evaluate an entity with some degree of favor or disfavor, ordinarily expressed in cognitive, affective, and behavioral responses (Eagle& Chaiken, 1993, p. 155).
- 5- Attitude is a psychological tendency that is expressed by evaluating a particular entity with some degree of favor or disfavor (Hewstone and Stroebe, 2004, p. 241).

Recent definitions deliberately attribute emotional and cognitive features beside the behavioral aspects to attitudes. According to Hewstone and Stroebe “attitudes are assumed to guide behavior” (2004, p. 240). Attitudes, therefore, are not directly observable in themselves, but they act to organize and provide direction to actions that are observable. This close connection between behaviors and attitudes proves the utility of the latter in the socio-psychological study of individuals.

### **1.3.1 Attitude Formation**

The term attitude formation refers to the movement we make from having no attitude toward an object to having some positive or negative attitude toward that object (Oskamp,

1991, quoted in Bordens & Horowitz, 2002, p. 167). According to Bordens and Horowitz (2002), there are four mechanisms for attitude formation:

**a- Mere Exposure**

Being exposed to an object increases feelings, usually positive, toward that object, repeated exposure can lead to attitudes.

**b- Direct Personal Experience**

Attitudes acquired through direct experience are likely to be strongly held and to affect behavior. People are also more likely to search for information to support such attitudes.

**c- Operant and Classical Conditioning**

Most social psychologists would agree that the bulk of the attitudes are learned. That is, attitudes result from experience not genetic inheritance. Through socialization, individuals learn attitudes, values, and behaviors of their culture. Important influences in the process include parents, peers, schools, and mass media.

**d- Observational Learning**

Attitude-formation occurs through watching what people do and whether they are rewarded or punished. Then, imitating that behavior succeeds. When there are discrepancies between what people say and do, children tend to imitate the behavior (ibid. pp. 169-170).

So we may gain our attitudes in a number of ways, through mere exposure, direct experience, operant and classical conditioning or through observational learning. Whether consciously or unconsciously formed, attitudes are considered to be beneficial for social and psychological survival. Smith and Mackie (2000) recognized that “we develop attitudes because they are useful to us” (p. 250). This means that attitudes define individuals and their perceptions of events and others.

### **1.3.2 Types of Attitudes**

Social psychologists have identified two types of attitudes: explicit and implicit attitudes. Hewstone and Stroebe (2004) indicated that “in a broad sense, the study of

attitudes is important because attitudes are important for our social lives” (p. 240). Therefore, it is worth emphasizing the distinction between the types of attitudes.

### **1.3.2.1 Implicit Attitudes**

Breckler, Olson and Wiggins (2006) defined implicit attitude as “an individual’s automatic evaluative response to a target, which can occur without awareness. An implicit attitude is a spontaneous, immediate, good-bad response to the target that cannot be consciously controlled. It reflects how the individual evaluates the target at a subconscious level” (p. 202). Therefore, implicit attitudes are attitudes that are involuntarily formed and are unknown to the individual. In other words, implicit attitudes exist outside the individual’s conscious awareness.

### **1.3.2.2 Explicit Attitudes**

According to Bordens and Horowitz (2002) an explicit attitude is “an attitude in a controlled processing about which are aware of its existence, its cognitive underpinnings, and how it relates to behavior” (p. 181). Explicit attitudes refer, therefore, to attitudes that are deliberately formed and are easy to self-report. In other words, explicit attitudes exist at the conscious level and can be observed by an outsider.

It has been argued that implicit and explicit attitudes tap into different knowledge and thus should be unrelated (Greenwald & Banaji, 1995; Greenwald, McGhee & Schwartz, 1998), whereas others have found relations between the two (Dovidio et al., 1997). However, Breckler et al. (2006, p. 202) note that “the distinction between implicit and explicit attitudes will not always be important”. Therefore, what is more important is that both types of attitudes, explicit and implicit, are essential in shaping individual’s thought, judgment and action.

### **1.3.3 Categories of Teachers’ Attitudes**

Teaching behavior can be affected by various socio-psychological factors. According to Cooper et al. (2011, p. 5) there are four major categories of attitudes that affect teaching

behavior: (1) teachers attitudes toward themselves, (2) teachers' attitudes toward children, (3) teachers attitudes toward peers and parents, and finally, (3) teachers' attitudes toward the subject matter.

### **1.3.3.1 Teachers' attitudes toward themselves**

This category refers to how teachers perceive and treat their strengths, limitations, needs and anxieties. Teachers who see themselves positively have better opportunities to understand their behavior which make them more confident. This confidence will be manifested in the way they handle their classrooms. However, teachers who live in self-denial tend to exclude themselves and others from better rapport. According to Cooper et al. (2011) "there is evidence from psychology that people who deny or cannot cope with their own emotions are likely to be incapable of respecting and coping with the feelings of others" (p. 163). Therefore, for better achievement and better classroom discipline, colleges need to consider including counseling sessions and awareness experiences as part of novice teachers training programs.

### **1.3.3.2 Teachers Attitudes toward Children**

In general, teachers have mixed expectations and feelings of their students. The way teachers perceive and treat their students can greatly affect their achievement. Research has shown that negative attitudes can lead to low expectations of a person (Campbell, Gilmore & Cuskelly, 2003, Palmer, 2006). On the other hand, positive attitudes can lead to higher expectations of a person (Angelides, 2008). This means that teachers' negative attitudes and low expectations may result in reduced opportunities for students to learn; however, their positive attitudes can enhance students' opportunities to learn which will eventually improve their classroom performances. According to Cooper et al. (2011, p. 163) "as a teacher, you need to believe that all of your students are capable of high academic achievement, and adjust your beliefs and behavior based on the needs, abilities, and aspirations of each individual student". To summarize, students act as their teachers expect of them.

### **1.3.3.3 Teachers' Attitudes toward Peers and Parents**

This category refers to how teachers see their colleagues in the teaching profession and how they interact with students' parents. Generally teachers spend too much of their time distanced from their colleagues. A recent survey found that teachers spend just 3% of their school day collaborating with other teachers. This shows that teachers need more support to feel free to share their own experiences and ideas which can help other teachers and educators to connect and ultimately improve the quality of instruction they offer to their students. Concerning teachers-parents relationship, generally, parents show reluctance to take the initiative to visit their children's teachers unless a problem occurs. Most of the research done on parents' involvement in their children schooling, emphasize the importance of collaboration between school and the family in order to improve the children's development (Johnson, Pugach & Hawkins, 2004). This means that teachers and parents need to work collaboratively in order to better improve students' educational performance and achievement.

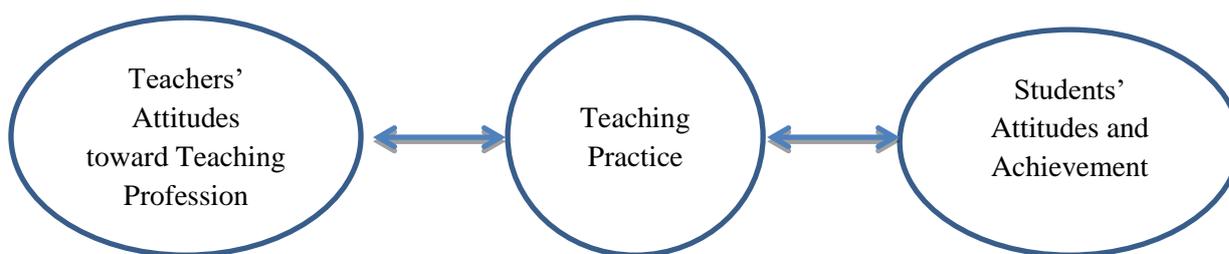
### **1.3.3.4 Teachers' Attitudes toward Subject Matter**

This part is all about enthusiasm and motivation. Almost all teachers start teaching with commitment and motivation until they face the long-hours and low-salary challenges. In other words, teachers tend to be attached to their subject matter, but the discouraging constraints that they face lead them to develop negative attitudes toward their subjects that eventually deflate their commitment. According to Cooper et al. (2011), "teachers who are not enthusiastic about what they teach, can hardly hope to instill enthusiastic responses in their pupils" (p. 6). Therefore, administrative staff might be recommended to avoid assigning heavy workload to the teachers if possible, or organize some meetings where teachers can collaborate in order to increase their motivation.

### **1.3.3.5 Teachers' Attitudes toward Teaching Profession**

In addition to these four categories, it is essential to add a fifth one "teachers' attitudes toward the teaching profession". There is a consensus among a number of studies on the correlation between teachers' attitudes and teaching profession (Al Harthy,

Jamaluddin, & Abedalaziz, 2013; Akbaba, 2013; Bhargava & Pathy, 2014). Smith (1993) conducted a study on teachers' attitudes toward teaching profession and found that teachers' attitudes have an effect on their teaching effectiveness. The following figure, proposed by Smith (1993), illustrates the relationship between teachers' attitudes and teaching practice:



**Figure 1.3:** The Cycle of the Relationship between Attitudes and Teaching Practices (Smith, 1993)

This figure indicates that teachers' attitudes toward their teaching profession have an influence not only on their teaching practice, but also on their students' achievement. According to Duatepe and Akkuş-Çıkla (2004), teachers' negative attitudes towards their profession can negatively influence their teaching performance. However, effective teachers are reported to demonstrate positive attitudes towards teaching through promoting and participating in a collaborative work environment. Researchers conclude that teachers' positive attitudes towards teaching depend largely on the personal beliefs of teachers and their personal experience of pre and post education and training (Reyhan Agcam & Muzaffer Pinar Babanoglu, 2016).

### 1.4 Teacher Identity

The concept of teacher identity has been receiving an increasing attention in the educational research in the past two decades. Research studies place significant emphasis on examining teacher identity formation and its impact on teacher quality. MacLure (1993) and Maguire (2008) define teacher identity as being a “continuing site of struggle” and a “continuing site of contestation, struggle and reworking”. In other words, Teacher identity is thought to be constructed from life experiences and ongoing learning for the individual teachers (Eraut, 1995; Hargreaves, 1998; Tickle, 1999; 2000). In a similar vein, Crow

(1987) contended that teacher identity is based on memories of previous teachers, former teaching experiences and childhood events. Other researchers have developed more specific definitions of teacher identity, Beijaard et al. (2000, cited in Bukor, 2011, p. 5 ) defined it as “subject matter, pedagogical and didactical expert”. However, Knowles (1992) indicated that characterizing professional identity is an unclear concept considering what and to what extent things are integrated into an identity.

The above conceptualizations and definitions of teacher identity seem to remain vague, and at times perplexing. There are no explicit and clear definitions of teacher identity. Therefore, this concept seems to be taken for granted. According to Olson (2008), the problem with defining teacher identity stems partly from the various ways the concept of “identity” has been used in psychology.

Goodson (1981) stated that teachers’ actions cannot be separated from their past experiences. This means that teachers’ attitudes and beliefs influence their understanding of classroom behavior and this will eventually affect their perceptions of their identity as teachers and their teaching performance. With their own ideas and beliefs about what it takes to be a good teacher, students come to teaching education with preconceptions that they have already formed from thousands of hours of observation of teachers, whether good or bad (Clark, 1988). According to Clark (1988), students’ conceptions of teaching are not complete, having only viewed the performance side of classroom teaching, perhaps from the narrow viewpoint of a school student. Another interesting observation was given by Goodman (1985) who stated that:

Students tend to engage in unrealistic optimism and demonstrated self-serving biases perceived as important for teaching including those attributes that they themselves possess. When describing a really good teacher student emphasize interpersonal and affective variables and downplay academic dimensions of teaching.  
(p. 53)

What can be noticed is that novice teachers come to the teaching profession with firm ideas and preconceptions about teaching and learning. The confidence in their own ideas and beliefs can influence their understanding of classroom behavior and therefore affect their teaching practices. According to Weinstein (1989), training in pedagogy does not seem to fundamentally alter earlier ideas about teaching. This view is also supported by

Lortie (1975) who claimed that researchers in the field of education feel that the impact of altering prospective teachers' identity during teacher education is minimal. This means that trying to change novice teachers' beliefs and preconceptions that they have already formed about teaching is not an easy task.

### 1.4.1 Teacher Identity and Knowledge

Over the past several decades, teacher knowledge has been researched extensively. It has been considered and valued as an important component of a teacher's profile. However, research on the relationship between teacher identity and teacher knowledge witnessed a number of conflicting views. Smith (2007) viewed knowledge as "external to the individual and fixed" (p. 379). While Olsen (2003, p. 4) contended that "each is part of the other". Other researchers like, Beijaard et al. (2004) argued that teacher identity can be seen as a "process of practical knowledge-building characterized by an on-going interaction of what is individually and collectively seen as relevant to teaching" (p. 123). In other words, teacher knowledge "is seen in relation to teachers' lives and the contexts in which they work" (Johnston et al., 2005, p. 54). This means that teachers form their identity through interactions in the social context of schooling as they encounter with others and situations.

A number of research studies have investigated the interaction between teacher identity and teacher knowledge particularly with pre-service teachers. According to Kincheloe (2003), "mainstream teacher education provides little insight into the forces that shape identity and consciousness. Becoming educated, becoming a critical teacher-as-researcher / teacher-as scholar necessitates personal transformation based on an understanding and critique of these forces..." (p. 47). While Smith (2007) research study results concluded that pre-service teachers' identity formation is complementary and connected to the development of teacher knowledge in teacher education programs. Therefore, teacher education programs should focus both on pre-service teachers' identity work and knowledge growth (Smith, 2007). To conclude, we can say that teacher identity and teacher knowledge complement each other in a way that one cannot happen without the other.

### 1.4.2 Teacher Identity and Emotion

A growing area of research of teacher identity shed light on the investigation of the role of emotions in teaching and the development of teacher identity. According to Mok (2002), personal values play a significant role in teachers' professional growth and he added that "personally defined values are related to physical and psychological feelings of well-being, reactions to roles and conceptions of self" (p.116). Goleman (2005) pointed out that "in a very real sense we have two minds, one that thinks and one that feels" (p.8). He further added that:

These two minds, the emotional and the rational, operate in tight harmony for the most part, intertwining their very different ways of knowing to guide us through the world. Ordinarily there is a balance between emotional and rational minds, with emotion feeding into and informing the operations of the rational mind, and the rational mind refining and sometimes vetoing the inputs of the emotions. [...] In many or most moments, these minds are exquisitely coordinated; feelings are essential to thought, thought to feeling. (Goleman, 2005, p. 9)

The above quotation is a significant claim that confirms the importance of emotions and underscores the fact that research on emotions should be taken seriously. Zembylas (2005) pointed out that "emotion is the least investigated aspect of research in teaching, yet it is probably the aspect most often mentioned as being important and deserving more attention" (p.466). We can say that emotions are lenses to explore teachers' identity; therefore, it is of crucial importance to view teacher identity through the role of emotions and personal views.

Nias (1996) contended that teaching is an activity which involves human interaction and that teachers invest their 'selves' in this activity. Therefore, it has an emotional dimension. According to Sutton and Wheatley (2003) research findings, emotions can affect teacher motivation and cognition. They explained that teachers' negative emotions are "a central component of management and discipline because they focus attention so powerfully" (Sutton & Wheatley, 2003, p. 336). Another study conducted by Mogg & Bradley (1999) suggested that emotional stimulus is often better remembered than the unemotional. This means that emotions can even influence teachers' memory when

retrieving information. Thus, emotions play an essential role in the development of learning, mental constructs, and the meanings we create (Day & Leitch, 2001).

## 1.5 The Good Teacher

The question of who is and what constitutes a good teacher cannot be answered in a simple way. A good teacher, according to Combs et al. (1978, p. 7), refers to “a unique personality... an intensely personal thing”. The common belief in teacher training today is that “teaching is about human relationships and good teachers must possess the most accurate understandings about people and their behavior available in our time” (Combs et al., 1978, p.23). Another definition was given by Solmon et al. (2004) who claimed that good teachers are “characterized by unimaginable levels of energy, of passion, of zeal, and of motivation” (p.59). Another key feature of a good teacher is enthusiasm. This latter comes from teachers’ content knowledge and experience and is one of the most characteristics found in good teachers, yet it is very rarely discussed in the literature (Mackinnon, 2007). In addition to these qualities, good teachers need also to possess the ability of understanding people. Therefore, Combs et al. (1978) developed a long list of desirable interpersonal qualities including the ability to understand the needs of students, making content meaningful and understanding the nature of learning.

In contrast to the aforementioned definitions that summarized the qualities of a good teacher from a humanistic view, the mechanistic view according to Combs et al. (1978), focuses on the technical side, with teachers’ knowledge viewed as observable, pre-specifiable trainable items. Teacher knowledge, teaching styles, and teaching behaviors have been found to have an immense impact on student learning (Moats & Foorman, 2003; Stronge, 2011; Timmerman, 2009). In addition, Stronge, Ward, and Grant (2011) investigated classroom practices that make a good teacher. They explored classroom practices of effective versus less effective teachers. The study results indicated that the most effective teachers scored significantly higher in classroom management. In a similar vein, Wong and Wong (2004) contended that teachers who do not manage their classrooms well, will continuously struggle to gain students’ attention, respect and control over them. Moreover, Marzano and Marzano (2003) asserted that instruction and learning are both influenced in poorly managed classrooms which will eventually affect student achievement

negatively. Therefore, it can be said that classroom management is an important characteristic of good teaching as it has a significant impact on students' achievement.

The difficulty behind defining a good teacher can be due to the contrasting views expressed by scholars in the literature. Good teaching is more than the skillful use of pedagogy. It requires a combination of values in thinking creatively, balancing expectations, thoughtful adaptation and authentic life-like learning, rather than technical compliance, professional knowledge, vision and a sense of purpose (Duffy, 2009). Therefore, a definition of a good teacher needs to consider a lifetime of experiences and an alignment of beliefs, competencies, professional identity and mission to form a coherent whole that matches the environment (Korthagen, 2004). In conclusion, becoming a good teacher implies a continuous work and commitment, and it can only be achieved with patience, respect, understanding, innovation and a good balance between flexibility and strictness, but most of all, an immense love for the teaching profession.

### **1.6 Teacher knowledge**

Like other international organizations, the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) Centre for Educational Research and Innovation (1994) has regarded the following types of “knowledge” and “skills” as appropriate for teachers:

- Content knowledge or knowledge of the substantive curriculum areas required in the classroom.
- Pedagogic skills including the acquisition and ability to use a repertoire of teaching strategies.
- Reflection and the ability to be self-critical, the hallmark of teacher professionalism
- Empathy and commitment to the acknowledgment of the dignity of others
- Managerial competence, as teachers assume a range of managerial responsibilities within and outside the classroom (pp. 14-15)

The suggested knowledge and skills are necessary to ensure the novice teachers can execute their duties and responsibilities effectively. Teacher knowledge, teaching styles, and teaching behaviors have been found to have an immense impact on student learning (Moats & Foorman, 2003; Stronge, 2011; Timmerman, 2009). Teacher knowledge is defined as “a body of professional knowledge that encompasses both knowledge of general pedagogical principles and skills and knowledge of the subject matter to be taught”

(Grossman & Richert, 1988, cited in Ben-Peretz, 2011). There are many aspects of knowledge that novice teachers need to know. Shulman (1987) categorizes teacher knowledge into seven types. Regardless of the subject specialism, teacher knowledge would include:

- General pedagogical knowledge, with special reference to those broad principles and strategies of classroom management and organization that appear to transcend subject matter
- Knowledge of learners and their characteristics
- Knowledge of educational contexts, ranging from workings of the group or classroom, the governance and financing of school districts, to the character of communities and cultures
- Knowledge of educational ends, purposes, and values, and their philosophical and historical grounds
- Content knowledge
- Curriculum knowledge, with particular grasp of the materials and programs that serve as “tools of the trade” for teachers
- Pedagogical content knowledge, that special amalgam of content and pedagogy that is uniquely the province of teachers, their own special form of professional understanding (Shulman, 1987, p. 8; quoted in Ball et al, 2008, p. 391).

Among the suggested categories, pedagogical content knowledge is of special interest. Shulman (1987) developed these categories of knowledge because he believed that pedagogy and content were being treated as mutually exclusive domains. Therefore, teacher education programs should combine these two knowledge bases for more effectively prepared teachers.

Content knowledge is the “what” of teaching or as Metzler (2011) defined it the “knowledge about the subject matter to be taught” (p. 46). Teachers need to develop both depth and breadth of content knowledge so that they can effectively plan lessons, instruct, assess students’ performance, and provide the necessary feedback. However, Pedagogical knowledge includes the “how” of teaching, or the “knowledge about teaching methods that pertain to all subjects and situations” (Metzler, 2011, p. 46). This may include unit and lesson planning, classroom management and the assessment of students’ learning which are related to the practical aspect of teaching. Pedagogical content knowledge is the “what and how” of teaching, or the “knowledge about how to teach a subject or topic to specific groups of students in a specific context” (Metzler, 2011, p. 46). This means that

pedagogical content knowledge is the combination of the two types of knowledge, pedagogy and content.

Shulman (1987) defined pedagogical content knowledge as the combination of pedagogy and content which is part of teachers' understanding. According to Qureshi (2013), there are two parts to his idea of pedagogical content knowledge. The first part refers to teaching strategies, like using diagrams and explanations while presenting the specific subject knowledge to students in a way that is understandable to them; while, the second part refers to the specific teaching problems that emerge during the process of teaching (Qureshi, 2013).

Karp (2010) mentioned an interesting point related to content knowledge and novice teachers. He suggested that, before starting teaching, teachers are surrounded by their colleagues and supervisors and are used to advanced knowledge (university-level). However, it is important for teachers to have school-level knowledge where the information could be understood easily by their students. This can be achieved by providing novice teachers more time so that they could familiarize themselves with the effective ways to teach and also by giving them opportunities to collaborate with other experienced teachers. Karp (2010) concluded that the individuals who choose the teaching profession need to understand that their learning does not finish at university, but it is a life-long process. Therefore, the school where they teach is not only a learning institution for their students, but also for them.

### **1.7 Teacher Efficacy**

Teacher efficacy is essential and can play a major role in overcoming problems in education. However, researchers disagree on its definition and how it should be measured. In fact, the term "teacher self-efficacy" with reference to educational writings appeared with Bandura's definitions. Bandura (1977) proposed that "teacher's efficacy is a type of self-efficacy," which he defined as "the outcomes of cognitive process in which people construct beliefs about their capacity to perform at a given level of competence" (p. 480). Later, researchers continue to use different terminologies like, teacher sense of efficacy, teacher efficacy, or/and teacher self-efficacy. For example, Ashton (1985) proposed that teachers' sense of efficacy involves "their beliefs in their ability to have a positive effect

on student learning” (p. 142). Tschannen-Moran, Hoy, and Woolfolk Hoy (1998) defined teacher efficacy as the “teacher’s belief in her and his ability to organize and execute the course of action required to successfully accomplish a specific teaching task in a particular context” (p. 233). Teacher efficacy has also been described as “teachers’ beliefs in their abilities to affect student performance” (Armor et al.; Gibson & Dembo (as cited in Dellinger et al., 2008, p.753).

Bandura (1977) suggested that beliefs of people have an effect on their efforts, particularly their determination or flexibility when encountering problems, as well as the ways they cope with their anxiety in challenging situations. This means that what teachers believe about their ability can influence their teaching and consequently students’ learning. It has been argued that when teachers have stronger beliefs in their work competence, they are more likely to have high expectations for all students. High self-efficacy beliefs are important because they are perceived as satisfying predictions that support an individual’s abilities or inabilities (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2007). Researchers have proposed that teachers who believe that they can make a large difference to students’ learning are more likely to set higher goals (Midgley, Feldlaufer, & Eccles, 1988), adopt innovative and advanced instructional strategies (Nie, Tan, Liao, Lau, & Chua, 2013), take responsibility for student learning (Soodak & Podell, 1996), and persist through problems and obstacles (Soodak & Podell, 1993), which may lead to greater classroom success and higher expectations (Ross, 1998; Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001). In contrast, teachers who believe they are unsuccessful with students will not usually put more effort into planning and teaching. When confronted with problems for the first time, they are discouraged easily, although they may be aware of approaches they can use to help students.

Negative beliefs cause teachers to have low teacher efficacy, even if they know how to engage students in learning. If these teachers believe in their inability to be successful, they will get stuck and they may fail in teaching and managing students’ unruly behavior. In addition, teachers with lower self-efficacy are believed to rely on weaker and easier teaching approaches (Ashton & Webb, 1986), respond to management problems permissively (Dibapile, 2012), and fail to keep students on task (Ashton, 1983), which may result in poor classroom results. Teachers’ self-efficacy beliefs vary within their environments, in behaviors, as well as in the knowledge obtained in their educational

settings. Therefore, teacher educators are challenged with preparing teachers to be task oriented to achieve their goals.

Efficacy beliefs are believed to cause teachers to put more effort into teaching and to be motivated to set goals for themselves (Allinder as cited in Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001). Teachers' ability to set goals leads to self-regulation, which in turn enhances teacher efficacy. This means that teachers can take responsibility over their work, not because the school administration is going to evaluate it, but because they have specific objectives they need to achieve as they impact students' learning. Thus, they are guided by their thoughts about and motivation for their work. These teachers can also be ambitious, comfortable with their ideas, and patient when facing difficult situations because of their efficacious beliefs.

Teacher efficacy has been researched extensively, and the drawn conclusions are found to be relevant to student achievement as well as classroom management (Armor et al., 1976). Moreover, research studies have reported that "when teachers are highly efficacious, their students are found to have a high level of academic achievement, autonomy and motivation, and a firm belief in their own efficacy" (Cheung, 2008, p. 104). Ho and Hau (2004) also claimed that efficacious teachers provide constructive guidance and praise rather than just criticism, devote extra time in assisting low-level students, and show interest in students' learning and progress. Teacher educators; therefore, need to raise prospective teachers' awareness of self-efficacy because teachers with low self-efficacy encounter more difficulties in teaching and are not satisfied with their work and experience high levels of stress.

### **1.8 Characteristics of Effective Teachers**

Considering the complex task of teaching, effectiveness is an elusive concept. At the present, the main criterion for measuring teacher effectiveness is through assessing student achievement. However, student achievement should not be the only way to measure teacher effectiveness. The teacher's influence is far reaching so it is challenging to define what results might show effectiveness and how those results should be measured. Ramsden (2003) believed that there is no right answer to the question of how to teach students better; there are however, methods that may be better for each individual teacher. Allington

(2005) and Glen (2001) also insisted that there is no single method of instruction that would work efficiently for every student. Despite these complexities, the literature demonstrates that there are particular characteristics that can be identified as common among the effective teachers. Ramsden (2003), for example, pointed out six common characteristics of effective teaching. These are as follows:

- a- engaging students' interest in the subject matter by providing clear explanations
- b- Teachers should show respect and concern for students and their learning,
- c- Providing students options in assessment,
- d- Establishing clear goals and setting high expectations,
- e- Utilization of differentiating instruction,
- f- A teacher should be a lifelong learner.

(cited in Qureshi, 2013, p.32)

Poplin et al. (2011), in their study of effective teachers, discovered some common features that effective teachers share. These features are the following:

- a) Strictness: these teachers believed that their strictness was essential for not only effective teaching and learning but also for safety and respect;
- b) Instructional intensity: in the classroom of these teachers, instruction was always going on and teachers transitioned from one activity to another quickly and smoothly;
- c) Movement: these teachers moved frequently around the classroom to assist each student;
- d) Traditional instruction: the instruction used by these teachers was traditional, specific, understandable, and teacher-directed,
- e) Exhorting virtues: these teachers encouraged their students to practice specific virtues such as respecting self and others, working hard, and more,
- f) Strong and respectful relationships with students: these teachers respected their children as individuals (p. 41).

The growing body of research on teacher effectiveness has reinforced that the notions of characteristics and behaviors matter in teaching. In a study by Torff (2005), principals of secondary schools were asked to explain what they perceived as features of an ineffective teacher. The top three features provided were inability to manage classrooms,

inability to implement lessons, and inability to establish relationships with their students. The review of literature revealed several other characteristics of effective teachers including instructional delivery. According to Stronge et al. (2011), the use of direct and individualized instruction is common among effective teachers. Kinchin (2003), in his turn, asserted that the foundation of effective teaching is built upon the preparedness of teachers. Preparedness includes knowledge of the curriculum and the students' prior knowledge of the content because the more the teacher knows about the content and student, the more effective the teaching will be (Qurrshi, 2013). Therefore, these teachers would have higher levels of student engagement and lower levels of off-task behaviors, as well as higher ratings for listening and expressing feelings.

It is quite clear that there are innumerable characteristics of effective teachers in the literature. However, we can agree that effective teachers do have an extraordinary and lasting impact on the lives of students. Therefore, to best meet students' needs, every teacher needs to have a wide range of subject knowledge and a large repertoire of professional skills because the complexities of the classroom do not allow them to follow a "one-size-fits-all" approach to teaching. In short, the literature is very rich with many strong arguments related to effective teachers. However, the one thing that is guaranteed is that this topic will continue to be debated and analyzed for many years to come.

### **1.9 Teacher Burnout**

The challenges of being a new teacher, if not solved properly, can create obstacles like teacher burnout (Gold, 1996). This debilitating job-related phenomenon was first observed in North America. Like almost all concepts, burnout definition is elusive, and there is not any one universal definition that satisfies every one's understanding of this construct. Teacher burnout was described by Gold (1996) as attrition's elusive Partner. While, Goddard, O'Brien, and Goddard (2006, p. 857) describe it as 'a chronic state of physical, emotional and mental exhaustion that arises in personnel from the cumulative demands of their work'. Generally, teachers who suffer from burnout demonstrate signs such as emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, reduced personal accomplishment, gradual depletion, loss of interest and motivation, and frustration (Wilmar, Maslach and Marek, 1993, p. 3). Freudenberger (1973, cited in Gold, 1996, p. 556) concludes the resources for burnout as:

- 1- An individual's response to chronic, everyday stress rather than to occasional crises;
- 2- A mismatch between what workers feel they are getting in return from their work and what they feel they are giving to others;
- 3- A work-related syndrome that stems from an individual's perception of a significant discrepancy between effort and reward; and
- 4- A syndrome that emanates from an individual's perceptions of unmet needs and unfulfilled expectations.

Gold (1996, p. 558).indicated that among the problems confronted by novice teachers that may cause burnout are the lack of personal accomplishment and appreciation from others; overwhelming feelings of inability to cope with the level of workload and the multitude of pressures encountered each day; and the feel of lack of supportive school environment. Burnout is also associated with issues concerning:

- 1) Poor physical health;
  - 2) Emotional symptoms, such as depression, which are most consistently linked to burnout;
  - 3) Behavioral symptoms that have been most clearly related to burnout through unproductive work behaviors and even turnover;
  - 4) Negative interpersonal relations with students; other teachers, and parents
- (Gold, 1996, p. 557)

The early years of teaching can be then described as problematic. Chapman and Green (1986), in their study on novice teachers' turnover, concluded that the support given to ensure the quality of novice teachers' professional life can have a long-term impact on the career-long development of these teachers. Therefore, supporting novice teachers during this early time is very critical in order to ensure self-actualized individuals who are comfortable, secure and able to reflect effectively.

### **1.10 Conclusion**

Novice teachers are new and inexperienced teachers whose transition into the professional practice is often unsettling. They enter the profession with daunting

psychological and professional paucity which give birth to negative attitudes. Teachers' attitudes influence their understanding of classroom behavior and this will ultimately affect their perceptions of identity as teachers and their teaching performance. This evolving identity conflicts sometimes with experience once teachers had faced the reality of classrooms. Thus, understanding the issues that novice teachers face or experience including their attitudes, needs and challenges and how we might support them during the initial years of teaching might be a proactive measure to preserve teacher commitment and prevent teacher burnout and deskilling.

## **Chapter two: Teacher Training and Professional Development**

### **2.1 Introduction**

The future of any nation depends on the quality of teaching which ultimately depends on the quality of teachers. Teachers play a vital role in education and preparing them for the teaching profession is a priority considering its complex and challenging nature. Teacher training is therefore an important input in the professional preparation and growth of competent teachers. Teachers should receive adequate education and professional training to possess the knowledge and skills required to be able to dedicate themselves to the teaching profession and meet the demands and expectations of students and society in general. This chapter intends to provide an overview of teacher training and development in general and in Algeria in particular. It discusses the different phases and models of teacher training. Then, it outlines the rationale and key features of teacher professional development. Finally, it presents the teacher training and development systems in Algeria before and after the reforms were initiated.

### **2.2 The Field of Second Language Teacher Education**

Second language teacher education was a term originally coined by Richards (1990) to cover the preparation, training and education, of second language teachers. As Richards and Nunan (1990, p. 15) declared that, “the intent of second language teacher education must be to provide opportunities for the novice to acquire the skills and competencies of effective teachers and to discover the working rules that effective teachers use”. The field of second language teacher education dates from the 1960s. During that time, English language teaching began a major period of expansion worldwide to renovate the field of English as a second or foreign language. It began with specific approaches to teacher training for language teachers in the form short training programs and certificates to give prospective teachers the needed practical classroom skills for teaching. These training programs contained courses in language analysis, learning theory, methodology, and sometimes a teaching practicum. The field of second language teacher education was developed in response to two issues; the first is the internally initiated change which is represented in the teaching profession gradually evolving

a changed understanding of its essential knowledge. The second represents the external pressures like globalization and the need for English as a language of international communication, and this brought with it the need for new language teaching policies for more control over teaching and teacher education.

Second language teacher education has expanded considerably through the efforts of scholars and researchers as well as the demand for effective SLTE programs. The aim of this field is to understand how people learn to teach, how the process of teacher learning actually unfold and which knowledge and experiences underlie these processes (Freeman & Richards, 1996, p. 351). The field of second language teacher education is concerned with determining appropriate curricular content and effective instructional processes in language teacher education programs. The content of SLTE is composed of six domains which form the foundation and the core knowledge base of any SLTE program attempting to give priority to teaching itself and to acknowledge the complexity of the nature of effective second language teaching.

### **2.3 The Distinction between Teacher Education and Teacher Training**

In the literature, much has been written about teacher education and teacher training, but these terms continue to be used interchangeably and synonymously throughout most professional and scholarly journals. For instance, Deighton (1971) uses the titles “professional training” (p. 70), “teacher education in universities and colleges” (p. 78), “in-service training” (p. 79), “sources of training” (p. 80), and “types of in-service education” (p. 81) indiscriminately. However, there were distinctions that were made between these two terms but they were often conflicting, confusing or contradictory. Traditional language teacher education has involved a delicate balancing act between education and training. The former addresses the development of language knowledge and language teaching and learning. The latter emphasizes the development of skills to apply this knowledge in the practice of language teaching, with a limited opportunity to observe and practice that theory in actual classrooms or simulated contexts such as microteaching (Crandall,2000). According to Rowntree (1981), the term teacher education,

.. is wider than teacher-training in that it includes not simply a teacher's vocational training (whether initial, pre-service training or subsequent in-service training) but also whatever general post-secondary education he has that contributes to his growth as a person regardless of his future profession. Thus, teacher education courses include the study of one or more academic disciplines as well as educational subjects and supervised teaching practice. (p. 313)

In other words, teacher education is the successful learning of knowledge, skills and attitudes where it is learned in such a way that the learner can express his own individuality through what he learns and can subsequently apply it, and adapt it flexibly, to situations and problems other than those he considered in learning it.(Rowntree, 1981, p. 75). In a similar vein, Hawes and Hawes (1982, p. 225) defined teacher education as:

The very broad field of study and instruction concerned with professional preparation for careers in teaching, administration, or other specialties in education, particularly in the levels of preschool, elementary, and secondary education. Also called professional teacher education.

Obviously this definition parallels the one of Rowntree (1981) in that education is defined as the major concept and training is defined as the minor one. The confusion, however, arises with the definition of teacher education provided by Good (1973) which purportedly includes,

All the formal and informal activities and experiences that help to qualify a person to assume the responsibilities of a member of the educational profession or to discharge his responsibilities more effectively; the program of activities and experiences developed by an institution responsible for the preparation and growth of persons preparing themselves for educational work or engaging in the work of the educational profession.

(p. 586)

Through the above definition, Good (1973) insists that the two concepts of teacher education and teacher training are synonymous. However, such subtle contradictions are

confusing especially for those preparing a career in education. Therefore, Rowntree (1981) proposed that training can be defined as:

The systematic development in a person of the knowledge, attitudes and skills necessary for him to be able to perform adequately in a job or task whose demands can be reasonably well identified in advance and that requires a fairly standardized performance from whoever attempts it (p. 327)

Therefore, in this context, education becomes the global concept in that the term teacher education includes both the theoretical and practical components of a teacher preparation program. The term training is confined more to “well identified” instructional activities which require “fairly standardized performance”. According to Hills (1982), education deals with the acquisition of knowledge while training deals more with the application of knowledge. Those involved in preparing prospective language teachers refer to themselves as either teacher trainers or teacher educators. Widdowson (1997) describes teacher training as solution-oriented, with the “...implication that teachers are to be given specific instruction in practical techniques to cope with predictable events...,” while teacher education is problem-oriented, with the implication of “...a broader intellectual awareness of theoretical principles underlying particular practices” (p. 121). Therefore, within one learning system, elements of both education and training can be found.

## **2.4 Phases of Teacher Training**

Generally, the preparation of teachers is described as teacher training; this label reflected the actual process of providing future teachers or non-certified in-service teachers with some subject matter knowledge and some pedagogical methods so that they can transmit information to their students. This is still the case in the majority of developing countries, particularly in Africa, Asia, and Latin America where the shortage of teachers is still found to be a major factor in the type of teacher training offered. According to the International Encyclopedia of Teaching and Teacher Education (1987), teacher training can be divided into three phases: pre-service, induction and in-service training. These phases are parts of a continuous process that goes on throughout the professional career of teachers.

### **2.4.1 Pre-service Teacher Training**

Pre-service teacher training also called initial teacher training or initial teacher education varies greatly throughout the world in terms of institutional context, content area, time allocation and practical experiences (Ben-Peretz, 1995). Although it has been considered that this preparation is what teachers will ever receive throughout their career, nowadays it is acknowledged that pre-service teacher training is just the first step in a long process of professional development.

Pre-service teacher training refers to the education that teachers receive before being licensed to teach. In other words, it is the education of teachers before they enter into service as teachers. Throughout the world, pre-service teacher education generally takes place in post-secondary institutions (like colleges, universities). The typical pre-service teacher education program includes two major components: formal coursework and field experiences. This latter generally referred to it as practice teaching (Anderson, 1995, p. 571). During this period of teacher education, teaching practice goes side by side, while they are getting knowledge about theory papers. Freeman (1989, p. 39) defines pre-service teacher training as a strategy for direct intervention that is typically aimed at preparing teachers for classroom practice. The intervention is based usually on the knowledge and skills that should be practiced and mastered as a pre-requisite for teacher qualification (ibid).

In the majority of countries, the initial or pre-service preparation varies depending on what level the teacher will teach after graduation. The traditional way is to have secondary teachers be prepared in institutions of post-secondary education, while teachers being prepared for primary schools require a lower level of education. However, a new trend has been established in a majority of countries to impose the same level of preparation on all teachers, regardless of the level they will teach. Recent examples are the cases of Venezuela (Villegas-Reimers, 1998) and France (Bourdoncle and Robert, 2000), where the reforms were implemented with some dissatisfaction among teachers (Villegas-Reimers, 2003).

#### **2.4.1.1 Models of Pre-service Teacher Training**

Pre-service teacher training is an important period of time to provide not only knowledge of subject matter but also pedagogical knowledge to student teachers. Calderhead and Shorrock (1997) presented three models of early professional development found in different

countries around the world. Each model places a different emphasis on specific aspects of learning how to teach and is based on a variety of different approaches to the learning process. These models are as follows:

- The enculturation, or socialization into the professional culture, model  
This model emphasizes the socializing processes in professional development. The study of socialization as it relates to the teaching profession refers to “the field of scholarship which seeks to understand the process whereby the individual becomes a participating member of the society of teachers” (Zeichner & Gore, 1990, p. 329). The organization, physical resources of schools, and values established in the institutional practices exert a powerful influence on the teachers, and may often overrule the practices acquired during their teacher preparation (Reimers, 2003).
- The technical, or knowledge and skills model  
This model emphasizes the knowledge and skills teachers need to acquire in order to contribute to classroom practices. In the 1960s and 1970s, the model focused on classroom behavior, like micro-teaching, questioning techniques or behavior control (ibid.). In addition, this model also emphasizes pedagogical content knowledge; that is, the kind of knowledge that expert teachers usually have and which novice teachers need to acquire. This includes knowledge of children, teaching strategies, curricula, school rules, the availability of materials, subject matter and how to facilitate others’ understanding (ibid.)
- The teaching as a moral endeavor model  
This model focuses on a method of teaching which involves caring for young children, taking into consideration their interests, preparing them to be a part of a future society, and influencing the way in which they live and relate to each other. It has been claimed that this constitutes an important aspect of teaching, which is highly valued by teachers, parents and children, but is usually ignored in discussions on the professional development of teachers. According to Hargreaves (1995), it is the moral dimension of teaching that makes this profession unique.

A study conducted by Vonk (1995), he concludes that there are two models of teacher initial preparation. The first is teacher professionalism, “which is based on the principles of mastering the academic or subject knowledge and professional competence. In this model, teacher education provides future teachers with instructional skills and knowledge of pupils’ learning processes and of child development” (p. 291). The second model is the

personal growth model which assumes that “if teachers have greater self-understanding, are more reflective, more sensitive, more empathic, and more fully self-actualized, they would inevitably be better teachers” (p. 291). This implies that initial teacher education has undergone significant transformations as a result of the different ways teaching and teachers’ work is seen in schools.

#### **2.4.1.2 The Role of Practical Experience**

The growing recognition for the contextual knowledge of the teacher, the respect of the teacher as central in the teaching and learning process, and the crucial roles of the teacher as needs analyst, problem-solver, decision-maker, program and materials developer, and a researcher of his or her own classroom (Richards 1990), has led to a call for teacher training programs to create opportunities for future teachers to access this knowledge and test theories and principles with actual practice.

Practical experiences like observations, apprenticeships, student teaching, internships, or other teaching practices have long been a part of most language teacher training programs. In a study conducted by Richards and Crookes (1988), they pointed out that 75 percent of teacher training programs included practicum experiences. This latter comprises a number of activities that ranges from observing experienced teachers and peers, being observed by or conferencing with supervisors or mentor teachers, participating in peer or microteaching, and taking responsibility of a classroom instruction. However, Crandall (1996) indicated that these experiences are often too few, too late, and not sufficiently focused on the realities of the classroom, the program, or the school. Consequently, a number of language teacher educators (Crandall, 1994; Johnson 1996b; Richards 1990) have called for more extensive and intensive practical experiences to be incorporated throughout teacher training programs in order to provide future teachers with greater opportunities to link theory with practice and to receive support and learn from veteran teachers, as well as offering experienced teachers an opportunity to learn from their new counterparts (Stoyhoff, 1999).

Within the boundaries of general teacher education, future teachers spend more time in real teaching situations compared when they are in language teacher preparation programs, especially those that took place outside of education departments (Crandall, 2000). Collaborations between university-based teacher education departments and schools offer

both future and experienced teachers' opportunities to engage in collaborative research and teaching, while also helping the language learners in the classroom (Crandall, 2000). Practices including the observation of mentor teachers, peers or self-observation through video recordings accompanied by reflective activities such as feedback, diary writing or discussion sessions, are especially important for language teacher preparation and professional teacher development (Crandall, 1994; Fanselow, 1987).

Observation experiences at all levels of educational programs should be part of the professional sequence. However, because observation is characteristically used in teacher supervision and evaluation, the self-knowledge it can provide has too often been ignored (Crandall, 2000). A number of observation experiences and instruments have been developed that enable teachers and researchers to focus attention on specific aspects of classroom interaction, management, or instruction, and construct or reconstruct understandings of language teaching and learning (Crandall, 2000)

The category of practice needs to be viewed in a larger context than student teaching alone. Real and simulated experiences should be available and complement studies throughout the college program. These and clinical experiences provide valuable pre-student teaching experience especially if they are integrated into professional courses. Field experiences should be provided early and continuously and should be a relevant part of the total instructional system. Teacher training programs can also provide practical experience that encourages prospective teachers to continue their professional development after they finish their programs. These experiences may help them be prepared for a variety of future activities like writing for publication, developing proposals for conference presentations or working on public speaking and professional presentations (Crandall, 2000).

Internship has not been a major factor thus far in teacher preparation. Andrew (1967) calls for greater effort in this direction. He proposes that the intern concept be considered well beyond its current application in Master of Arts in Teaching (M.A.T.) fifth year programs. The association for Student Teaching (1968) has adopted the following definition of internship in teacher training:

The internship in teacher education is an integral part of the professional preparation of the teacher candidate, having been preceded by successful observation-participation and student teaching-

or equivalent clinical experiences in a school environment, and is planned and coordinated by the teacher education institution in cooperation with one or more school systems. The intern is contracted by and paid by a local school board, assigned a carefully planned teaching load for a school year, and enrolled in college courses that parallel his professional experience. The intern is supervised both by a highly competent teacher who is recognized for his supervisory capacity and is assigned released time to devote to the supervision of interns and by a college supervisor who makes a series of observations and works closely with the school supervisor and the intern (p. 11).

Internship integrated into the total undergraduate sequence may constitute the most potent vehicle for learning more about professional teacher behavior. Currently the main differences between student teaching and interning are:

- The well-defined authority of the intern.
- Some type of salary arrangement for the intern.
- The post-degree nature of internship.

Andrew's (1967, p. 238) views on professional education are premised upon continued differentiation of instructional responsibilities ranging from assistant teacher, through intern, resident, and professional teacher. As teachers move toward the top of a pyramid of team teaching, an impact upon the length, level, type and sequencing of professional experiences will be witnessed. Systems will be more efficiently designed to produce the necessary entry level of competencies. Thus different configurations of professional sequences will emerge.

Professional educators often neglect two contributions of professional coursework (especially in periods of critical teacher shortages. These are in the areas of selection and retention. A new rule within the professional sequence needs to be designed to direct uncommitted, unqualified students to identify other paths to the baccalaureate degree. Admission criteria are obviously not adequate for predicting success or commitment to teaching (Horton & Green, 1971). Therefore, the professional stage of teacher preparation may need to meet the challenges presented by the selection and retention of students as prospective teachers.

## 2.4.2 Teacher Induction

The literature on teacher induction has its roots in the 1950s and 1960s in the US, where mandatory schooling and the professional standards of teachers were being questioned in the post-war period (Serpell, 2000; Tisher, 1979). This period noted an emphasis on professional standards for teachers and the necessity for new teacher induction. Despite the support for novice teacher induction for over twenty years, there has been and continues to be confusion and ambiguity concerning the specific definition of induction and what it entails in the context of teacher education (Feiman-Nemser, 2010; Fulton, Yoon, & Lee, 2005; Martinez, 1994; Wong, 2004). According to the literature, there is no common understanding as to what induction is and it is difficult to articulate a concept that satisfies the vast array of formal and informal practices undertaken in different educational settings. However, in recent years, the recognition of novice teacher induction as a vital component of teacher acculturation into the teaching profession generated a number of definitions. In a study conducted by Ingersoll et al. (2004), they pointed out that beginning teacher induction is a collective of program involving orientation, support, and guidance for novice teachers. While Wong (2004) suggested a more detailed definition of induction:

A system-wide, coherent comprehensive training and support process that continues for two to three years and then seamlessly becomes part of the lifelong professional development program of the district to keep new teachers teaching and improving toward increasing their effectiveness. (p. 42)

Based on these definitions, novice teacher induction is defined here as the primary phase in a continuum of professional development leading to the teacher's full integration into a professional community of practice and continuing professional learning throughout their career (Kearney, 2013). In other words, beginning teacher induction is a well-designed program to provide support and guidance in the transition from novice to professional to guarantee the success of novice teachers in their early years in the profession. In addition, in these two definitions, the authors note that effective induction program produce teachers who are dedicated to continuing learning, and quality teaching and learning (Ingersoll & Kralik, 2004; Ingersoll & Smith, 2004; Wong, 2004), which has further implications for the

effectiveness of a teacher who is nurtured in a successful beginning teacher induction program, culminating in acceptance into a professional community of practice.

### **2.4.2.1 Components of Effective Teacher Induction Program**

Teacher induction is a comprehensive, multiyear process designed to train and acculturate novice teachers in the academic standards and vision of schools (Wong, 2004). Thus, there are no two teacher induction programs that are alike. Each induction program is based on the individual needs of its unique school. These varying perceptions of induction programs make the design of universal programs difficult. However, there are a number of components that underlay effective and successful induction programs. These components, identified from the international research as exemplars of the best practice, are the following:

- The one- to two-year mandated program that focused on teacher learning and evaluation;
- The provision of a mentor;
- The opportunity for collaboration;
- Structured observations;
- Reduced teaching and/or release time;
- Intensive workplace learning;
- Beginning teacher seminars and/or meetings;
- Professional support and/or professional networking; and
- Part of a program of professional development. (Kearney, 2014, pp. 7-11)

Wong (2004, p. 48) also provided a list of common components that underlay most successful teacher induction programs. This list consists of the following elements:

- Begin with an initial 4 or 5 days of induction before school starts
- Offer a continuum of professional development through systematic training over a period of 2 or 3 years
- Provide study groups in which new teachers can network and build support, commitment, and leadership in a learning community
- Incorporate a strong sense of administrative support
- Integrate a mentoring component into the induction process
- Present a structure for modeling effective teaching during in-services and mentoring

- Provide opportunities for inductees to visit demonstration classrooms.

Smith and Ingersoll (2004), similar to the DEST (2002), indicate that the different objectives and purposes of teacher induction have a direct correlation to the types of programs being implemented. It is also clear that the contextual needs of individual teachers influence the structure of induction programs for novice teachers, especially when implemented at the school level; therefore, the elements of induction that are deemed effective and those components of programs that are considered best practice by the literature need careful consideration.

#### **2.4.2.2 Mentoring**

In the last decade, mentoring has become a term related to different roles and professions. Simply put, mentoring is the passing on of support, guidance and advice in which a more experienced individual uses their knowledge and experience to guide a more junior member of staff (CIPD, 2008). In the field of teacher education, mentoring can be defined as an intentional and planned process by which experienced teachers reflect their knowledge, support and skills to novice teachers newly entering to the profession (Ozturk,& Hoard, 2019). According to Zembytska (2015), mentoring refers to an official cooperation between a novice teacher and a more experienced teacher, from which both parties will benefit. This means that teachers who prepare themselves as mentors increase their potential to enhance student growth and development, help students maximize education experiences, and enrich their own teaching experience and professional development (Zachary, 2002). In addition, mentors report that they gain exposure to new and diverse perspectives, improve coaching and listening skills, find work more meaningful and satisfying and often become reengaged professionally (ibid.).

#### **2.4.2.3 Difference between Mentoring and Induction**

The terms induction and mentoring are often enormously conflated. The two terms are not synonymous, yet they are often used interchangeably (Feiman-Nemser, 2010). Induction is the broader umbrella for a variety of supports for novice teachers, while mentoring is one type of induction support. In other words, mentoring is one of the components of teacher

induction program. Induction is a comprehensive, coherent and sustained professional development process which is organized by a school district to guide and support novice teachers for sustained professional learning (Wong, 2004). However, mentoring is a practice. It refers to an intentional pairing of an experienced teacher with a novice teacher as a means to survive and maximize the development of the novice teacher (Pitton, 2006). A detailed distinction between the two terms is provided in the following table:

**Table 2.1:** Difference between Mentoring and Induction (Wong, 2004, p. 45).

<b>Mentoring</b>	<b>Comprehensive Induction</b>
Focuses on survival and support	Promotes career learning and professional development
Relies on a single mentor or shares a mentor with other teachers	Provides multiple support people and administrators -- district and state assistance
Treats mentoring as an isolated event	Treats induction as part of a lifelong professional development design
Limited resources spent	Investment in an extensive, comprehensive, and sustained induction program
Reacts to whatever arises	Acculturates a vision and aligns content to academic standards

The literature on mentoring within induction programs, though not widely studied, suggests the need for identification of highly skilled practitioners with strong interpersonal skills and commitment to lifelong learning as being essential to the induction process. In addition, Moir et al. (2009) suggested the need for these practitioners to be actively recruited, trained and supported in their own development. Wong (2004) further suggests that mentors should be trained to the mission and goals of the strict, aligned to its vision, mission and structure, and supported by stakeholders including administrators and educator associations. The literature also calls for mentors' release time from teaching to foster meaningful and extended engagement with novice teachers. Lehman (2003) wrote that every district should offer a multiyear induction program that provides systematic help and support, and this cannot be done adequately by another teacher with a full-time load who drops by when time permits or when a problem arises. Therefore, teacher induction program developers should consider how much time is needed to allow the mentors undertake their roles.

Just as mentoring is a component of teacher induction, this latter is a component of professional development (Wong, 2004). This relationship is shown in the figure below:

#### 2.4.2.4 Coaching and Mentoring

Coaching and mentoring are also terms that are usually confused. In reality, both mentoring and coaching are closely associated activities with the support of learning. Coaching is usually a short-term relationship which can be offered to facilitate change, improve performance, increase efficacy and assist in skill development (Ozturk, Hoard, 2019). Mentoring, on the other hand, accomplishes much of the same but usually a longer term relationship (ibid.). Even though mentoring and coaching represent a peer-networking interaction which draws upon collaboration and mutual trust, mentoring is essentially a supportive process which consists of a combination of coaching and counseling and it requires extended professional relationships, while coaching is enabling and helping process. Therefore, it can be summarized that mentors require many of the skills as coaches (Rhodes, Stokes & Hampton, 2004). Wong and Wong (2012) summarized the main differences that distinguish mentors from coaches in the table below:

**Table 2.2:** The Differences between Mentors and Coaches (Wong & Wong, 2012, p. 20).

<b>Mentors</b>	<b>Coaches</b>
Are available for survival and support	Help teachers improve student learning
Provide emotional support, answer singular procedural questions	Coach to improve instructional skills on a sustained basis
React to whatever arises	Collaborate with administration and other teachers
Treat mentoring as an isolated activity	Part of job-embedded induction and staff development process
Mentor with reflective conversations	Coach to specific learning objectives

To conclude, mentoring can be considered as a multi directional concept as it brings the individual support (Smith & Ingersoll, 2004; Sweeny, 2008) provided to novice teachers by veteran teachers in schools and the professional development concept together and encourages skill development (Nicholls, 2002). According to Tillman (2003), mentoring practices aim to provide beginning teachers with smooth transition from learning to teaching, reduce their anxiety and fear, and support their professional development.

#### **2.4.2.5 Qualities of an Effective Mentor**

There are certain qualities that a mentor teacher should hold. Mentors must attach importance to their own professional development and have deep thinking skills. Mentors should be aware of their responsibility as a guide for novice teachers' professional development and should effectively provide contribution to novice teachers' fund of knowledge respectfully to their approaches (Nicholls, 2002). According to Zuljan and Bizjak (2007), effective mentor teachers should observe the novice teachers regularly and give feedback. Moreover, mentor teachers should listen and encourage novice teachers; share their time and experiences with the novice teachers and be a role model as an effective teacher (Brock & Grady, 2006; Sweeny, 2008). Other than these, mentors should be voluntary, accessible and knowledgeable (Breux & Wong, 2003). Additionally, effective mentor teachers are team leaders since they work together with novice teachers as a team. Therefore, in addition to creating and maintaining effective working relationships, mentor teachers have a significant role in developing and supporting novices within the team. In a study conducted by Brock and Grady (2006, cited in Ozturk & Hoard, 2019, p. 151), they suggested a list of characteristics that mentor teachers should have:

- 1- They should have a positive and professional attitude towards his job
- 2- They should be talented teachers
- 3- They should have the skill to form interaction and communication with individuals having various characteristics
- 4- They should have knowledge related to young and adult learning theories
- 5- They should be talented for determining and solving the problems
- 6- They should have knowledge of assessment and evaluation
- 7- They should have knowledge of school culture and students
- 8- They should have knowledge of school policy, syllabus and resources
- 9- They should have continuous professional development understanding

The opportunity to participate in an effective mentoring practice during the first three years of the teaching profession is crucial for all novice teachers (European Commission cited in Jokinen, Heikkinen & Morberg, 2012). However, having a mentor is not enough for meaningful learning and professional development (McCollum, 2015; Breaux & Wong, 2003). Mentors should be selected carefully (Croffut, 2015) and in conformity with criteria (Sweeny, 2008) for mentoring practices to be effective (Sacilotto-Vasylenko, 2010). According to Brock and Grady (2006), mentor teachers should be selected among distinguished and experienced teachers before the start of the academic semester in order to learn their responsibilities and make the necessary preparations before getting in touch with novice teachers.

### **2.4.3 In-service Teacher Training**

In-service teacher education can be defined as the relevant courses and activities in which a serving teacher may participate to upgrade his professional knowledge, skills and competence in the teaching profession. Therefore, it encompasses all forms of education and training given to a teacher who is already on the job of teaching. In-service teacher education is also referred to as a continuing education which is designed for retaining, deskillng and updating teachers' knowledge. Therefore, it can be said that in-service education which is subsequent to initial education is designed to fill the gap of professional inadequacies of serving teachers.

Fisher (2003) pointed out that what is appropriate for generations ago might no longer prepare future students for the life and work beyond school. Students nowadays are being expected to be more creative and thoughtful in their daily activities. Consequently, novice teachers now must be engaged in activities of in-service training programs to cater for their inadequacies, extent their professional competencies and face the new challenges and changes in the education world.

According to billing (1976) in-service education is staff development which is a deliberate and continuous process involving the identification and discussion of present and anticipated needs of individual staff for furthering their job satisfaction and career prospects and of the institution for supporting its academic work and plans, and implementation of programs of staff activities designed for the harmonious satisfaction of these needs (Osamwonyi, 2016). According to UNESCO (1985) continuing education can be regarded as the entire body of educational processes whatever the content level and method, whether

formal or otherwise, whether they prolong or replace initial education in schools, colleges and universities as well as in apprenticeship, whereby persons regarded as adults by the society to which they belong develop their abilities, enrich their knowledge, improve their technical or professional qualifications or turn them in a new direction and bring about changes in their attitudes or behavior in the two fold perspective of full personal development and participation on balance and independent social, economic and cultural development

### **2.4.3.1 Rationale for In-service Teacher Training**

The need for promoting professional development of teachers is now well-known in all domains. Among all the strategies for improving the instructional system, the upgrading of teachers' professional competence is considered the most important (Petracek, 1987). Hence, preparing in-service courses for teachers in the form of refresher programs and orientation camps is a common feature of educational systems. Usually, the main aim of these programs is to update, refresh and improve in-service teachers' competence. Sometimes, these programs are organized to provide teachers with orientation to help them implement new curricula or use new materials. Moreover, in-service training programs are typically held to compensate for the inadequacy of the previous education and training received. Kpangbam (1992, cited in Junaid & Maka, 2015) pointed out that the rationale for in-service teacher education and training for teachers can be summarized in the following points:

- 1- It is recognized that however good existing pre-service teacher education programs are, they by their very nature cannot equip intending teachers with all they need for a life-time of work in the classroom.
- 2- There is increasing awareness of the impact of social, political and technological changes and of the need for teachers to be conscious of and responsive to such changes.
- 3- There is a growing expectation that teachers should reform their own practice, as it is only then that meaningful curriculum development could take place in the daily routine of classrooms.
- 4- There is a growing number of specialized administrative roles that teachers have to take up with passing years in teaching, for example, head of department, head of blocks and counselor and effective performance of the tasks requires specialized training because they involve the exercise of leadership skills and judgment of a high order (p. 12)

This means that the major reason for holding in-service programs for teachers is the inadequacy of pre-service teacher preparation. It seems that no matter how effectively initial training courses are organized, they can never fully train prospective teachers. In his report teacher education and training, James (1972) considers in-service teacher training very crucial in a teacher's career and indicates that:

It is self-evident that pre-service education and training, together with the probationary years, can be no more than a foundation. In that initial period, it is impossible to foresee, let alone to provide for, all the demands that may fall on the teaching profession in future, and on the individual members of it during their career. (DES, 1972, cited in Henderson, 1978, p. 35)

The report also emphasized that teachers' professional growth is a career long process of development where the stages of pre-service, induction and in-service are all part of one inclusive continuum. This is contrary to the past where these stages were often regarded as separate entities and in-service training was just an extension. According to Burke (1987), "the professional growth of a teacher is now a career-long process of development beginning with undergraduate studies and culminating in retirement" (p. 7).

## **2.5 Key Components of Effective Teacher Training**

In the modern system of education, nearly for the last three hundred years, the task of preparing the teaching force has been the responsibility of teacher education programs. According to Kelley (1989), teaching is,

at the heart of education and the single most important action that the nation can take to improve schools is to strengthen teaching. The teacher who meets high and rigorous standards can galvanize the entire system (p. 56)

This means that the future of any nation depends on the quality of schools which ultimately depends on the quality of its teaching force and on its training. Teacher training is, therefore, an important input in the professional preparation and growth of competent teachers. Therefore new researches were conducted to make the various components of teacher training programs. Although different training programs exist, researchers agree that

that there are common key components that all teacher training programs should contain. De Land Sheere (1987, pp .79-82), identified four specific components of teacher training in the contemporary world, while discussing the fundamental concepts of teacher education. These components are as follows:

- 1) General education
- 2) Specific subject mastery
- 3) Psychology and education study
- 4) Applied education.

The component of general education of teacher training program includes getting used to one's physical environment, and the understanding of the processes involved in working together. It constitutes the set of knowledge, skills and affective behaviors learned to contribute to a harmonious development of an individual in a given environment. The individual should receive general education in order to understand his environment, modify it and analyze it critically. It aims at a critical discovery and acquisition of meaningful factual knowledge, principles, methods, health science, literature, aesthetics, philosophy, politics and ethics. It includes development of cognitive skills, ability to communicate, to obtain information to work independently and also to socialize and work in groups. General education usually continues after university graduation and cannot be standardized, but its level should be high for all.

Specific subject mastery refers to the recent and advanced knowledge of the subject content required to ensure the high quality of teaching of the subject. Hence, teachers must be quite competent from the point of view of subject content mastery. Kelley (1989) explains the reason for teachers having subject mastery is that “teachers should have a rich understanding of the subjects they teach and appreciate how knowledge in their subject is created, organized, linked to other disciplines and applied to real world settings” (p.14).

In addition to the mastery of content knowledge, teachers should have an understanding of pedagogy which is a set of theories and rules governing the teaching practice. The subject specific pedagogical knowledge is a repertoire of representations that combine instructional techniques about subject matter. This includes knowledge of the different appropriate ways to present the lesson to students through demonstrations and experiments. Knowledge of the laws of behavior, learning processes, developmental stages and ways of guiding, is another

prerequisite of teacher education. An active introduction of experimental psychology should also help the understanding of learning processes. Sociology and cultural anthropology will help in interpreting socially bound behavior and the introduction to group dynamics should also be a part of teacher education and training.

The last component that each teacher training program should include is applied education. This latter is the set of studies and actions developed for instruction and independent learning. At this level, the teacher has to make his own decisions based on his experience when the scientific knowledge is not available. Curriculum development and assessment are also part of applied education. In addition, teachers should be prepared to make the instructional activities that include selecting content, defining objectives, choosing appropriate methods, organizing the classroom, collecting or developing teaching materials and making formative and summative decisions.

The aforementioned four components of general education, specific subject mastery, pedagogy and applied education are key elements of any teacher training program. However, this does not mean that they are the only components. The number and nature of teacher training components depend upon various patterns and the terminology of these components differs from nation to nation.

## **2.6 Teacher Training Principles**

Although there are various attempts to restructure teacher education and training which have been published, no coherent body of knowledge exists about central principles underlying teacher education and training programs that are responsive to the expectations, needs and practices of prospective teachers. Northfield and Gunstone (1997) attempt to make a number of principles which form the basis for any approach to teacher training and aims at enhancing teachers' capacities to affect their situations. These principals are as follows:

- Teacher education programs should model the teaching and learning approaches being advocated and promote the vision of the profession.
- Teacher education must be based on recognition of the prior and current experiences of teachers and encourage teacher knowledge and understanding.
- Teacher educators should maintain close connections with schools and the teaching profession to support novice teachers.

- Teacher education is best conducted in a collaborative setting to share ideas and experiences.
- Teacher education involves the personal development, social development as well as the professional development of teachers (p. 49)

Teacher education is inevitably inadequate (Northfield & Gunstone, 1997) and cannot entirely prepare teachers for their entire careers. This entails that teacher training needs to focus on how to learn from experience and how to build professional knowledge. Therefore, modeling approaches, that create opportunities for prospective teachers to be aware of their learning about teaching, need to continuously be made explicit. The development of such practice requires an approach that revolves around the need to create meaningful collaboration in learning and teaching, collaboration of colleagues and peers as well as student teachers and teacher educators. Helping student teachers recognize and respond to the challenging demands in their learning to teach can be considered way to help them learn meaningfully through experience. The traditional theory to practice approaches to teach education this seems to have been neglected and it may well explain the phenomenon of the reality shock that graduate students experience during their early stages of the teaching profession.

The challenge of teaching a whole class on a regular basis seems to be a complicated process for novice teachers. This experience tends to foster concerns of survival. Furthermore, during this critical period of classroom teaching, novice teachers rapidly begin to focus on classroom management rather than students learning. Therefore, Korthagen et al. (2001) suggested a simplified model for prospective teachers' first teaching practice which is as follows:

Each prospective teacher gives a one hour lesson to one high school student once a week for eight weeks. Neither the university supervisor nor the cooperating teacher is present during the actual one to one lessons, but there are supervision sessions and seminar meetings during the one to one period. The lessons are audio-recorded and are subsequently the object of detailed reflection by the student teacher (p. 128)

To put it simply, this one to one teaching experience gives prospective teachers many opportunities to learn on the basis of their own experiences and the interests they develop through these experiences. The key here is reflection, because usually student teachers do not learn so much by being taught by their supervisors instead they learn more through the structured reflection on their experiences and the discussions they make with colleagues and peers.

A common belief on learning to teach encompasses the assumption that university-based components of teacher preparation offer the theoretical foundation of teaching while the school teaching experience offers a place in which these theories are applied and practiced. This belief diminishes the various possibilities that universities can offer. One way to reframe this situation involves constructing appropriate ways for student teachers to genuinely engage in experiencing the aspects of teaching in an environment where such engagement is the focus (Korthagen et al., 2001). The learning of prospective teachers is only meaningful when it is embedded in the experience of learning to teach. Prospective teachers need opportunities to understand what is involved in the planning of teaching, doing the teaching and reflecting on the teaching. One way of creating such opportunities is by helping student teachers experience teaching practice being both constructed and deconstructed so that their learning about teaching is embedded in their experiences of learning and teaching (Segall, 2002). Teacher educators therefore need to actively create situations where this can occur and be a fundamental part in teacher training programs.

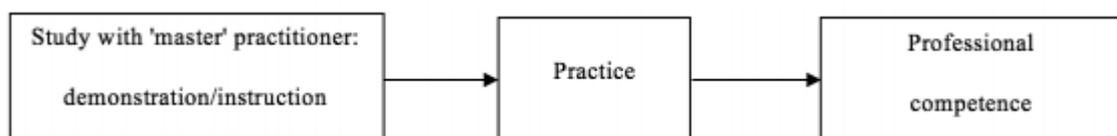
## **2.7 Models of Teacher Training**

Wallace (1991) identified three major models of language teacher education:

- 1) A craft or apprenticeship model by which less experienced teachers learn through observing those with more experience;
- 2) An applied science or theory-to-practice model by which knowledge is learned from experts and then applied in real-world contexts;
- 3) A reflective model by which teachers reflect upon, evaluate, and adapt their own practice.

### 2.7.1 The Craft and Apprenticeship Model

The craft model, shown below as Figure 2.1, is the oldest form of professional education; however, its concept is widely used in practicum courses. It refers to learning to teach in the way apprentices learn crafts; the trainee or novice teacher is supposed to learn by imitating all the techniques used by the experienced teacher without questioning their underlying purpose, validity or reliability. Therefore, knowledge is acquired as a result of observation, instruction and practice. This model is built on the notion that learners learn in a similar way regardless of their background knowledge; thus, they are provided with a standardized curriculum and a prescribed way of teaching. However, this is regarded as an oversimplification of the education complexity. Moreover, the role of the teacher educator in this model “is seen as an expert, as a catalyst for change, as a model teacher and as the source of new ideas and information. His or her primary functions are to provide ideas and suggestions, to solve problems, and to intervene and point out better ways of doing things” (Richards, 1989, p. 3). Even though this teacher educator role may prove effective in teaching, it does not acknowledge student teachers’ creativity and critical judgment. As Kincheloe (2008) suggests, the craft model of teacher education renders teaching into a “lifeless” practice by killing the curiosity and creativity of teachers.

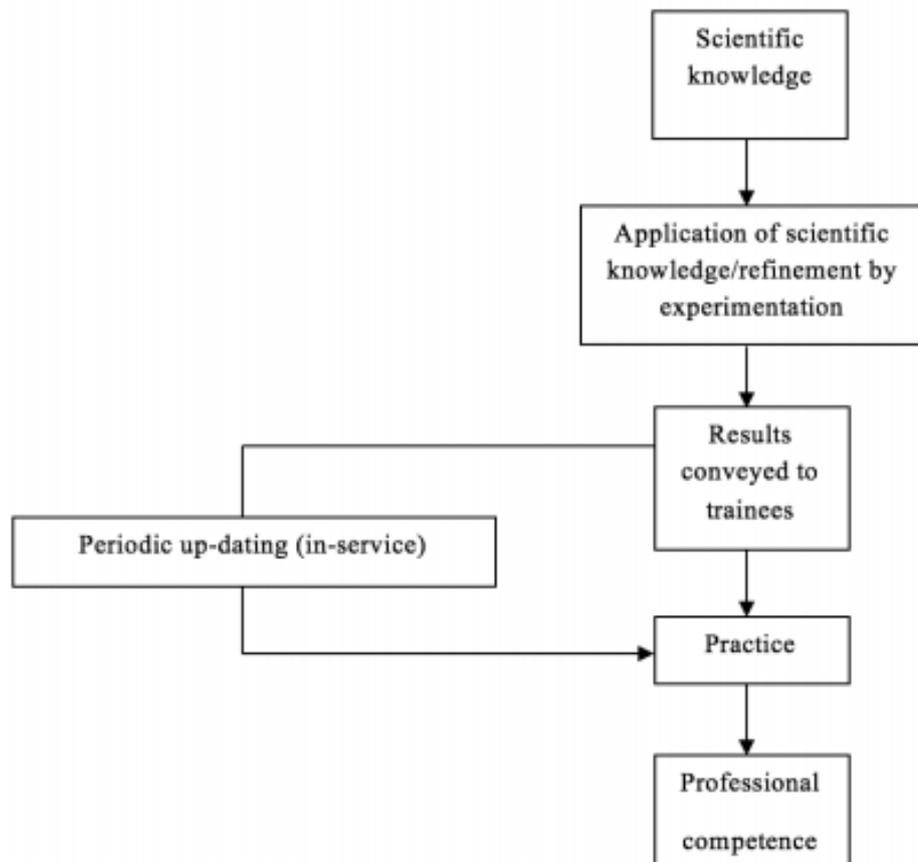


**Figure 2.1:** The Craft Model (Wallace, 1991, p. 6)

### 2.7.2 The Applied Science Model

Different terms have been used in the literature to describe this model of teacher education, for example, the traditional model (Hodkinson and Harvard, 1995), the applied science model (Wallace, 1991), or ‘technical-rationality’ model (Schön, 1983; 1987). The model is shown as (Figure 2.2) and emphasizes theory based knowledge (Gram and Karlsen, 2004). The model can be considered as the most prevalent model underlying most language education programs. Richards (1998) reported that this model “is informed and validated by scientific research and supported by experimentation and empirical research”. (p. 34).

Hodkinson and Harvard (1995) pointed out that “the traditional model encouraged learning of theory as if it were fact” (p. 4) and those in support of the model argue that teaching problems can be solved by the application of empirical science (Wallace, 1991). However, if things did not work, something is wrong with the scientific knowledge which is the prerogative of the scientists and scholars who are experts in generating theory and not practitioners (Wallace, 1991). To summarize, this model suggests that teachers learn to be teachers by being taught research-based theories where these theories can be conveyed to students only by the experts in the field. The main criticisms of this model are that professional problems remain despite the increase of scientific knowledge and it ignores the value of teacher practitioners. In addition, the tendency of experts to be at a distance from classrooms resulted in the separation of practice and theory.



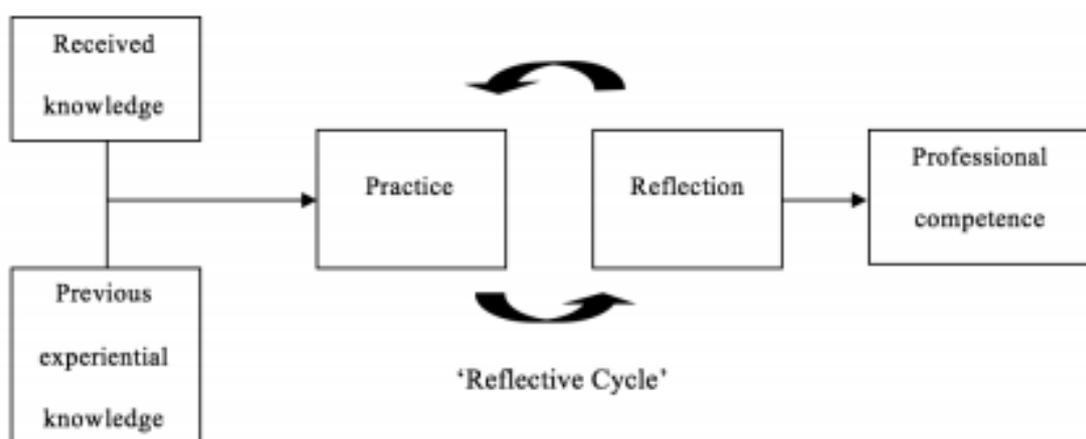
**Figure 2.2:** The Applied Science Model (Wallace, 1991, p. 9)

### 2.7.3 The Reflective Model

The third model, reflective practice, has become a dominant paradigm in teacher education research and programs worldwide. It attempts to overcome the main criticisms of the applied science model discussed above. It is based on the assumption that teachers learn by reflecting on their own experience (see Figure 2.3). Teachers are expected to apply what they have learned through reflection into their practice alongside aiming to refine their professional abilities. In other words, the teaching experience is recalled and considered to reach an evaluation and to provide an input into future planning action. For Schon (1987), reflection is a never ending process consisting of acting, observing, reflecting, inventing and testing. Hence it is a process of continuous growth. However, Zeichner and Liston (1996) warned that not every thinking about teaching can be considered as reflective “if a teacher never questions the goals and values that guide his or her work, the context in which he or she teaches, or never examines his or her assumptions” (p. 1). Therefore, they clarified what they meant by a reflective practitioner. According to them a reflective teacher:

- Examines, frames, and attempts to solve the dilemmas of classroom practice.
- Is aware of and questions the assumptions and values he or she brings to teaching.
- Is attentive to the instructional and cultural contexts in which he or she teaches.
- Takes part in curriculum development and is involved in school change efforts.
- Takes responsibility for his or her own professional development.

(Zeichner& Liston, 1996, p. 6)



**Figure 2.3:** The Reflective Model (Wallace, 1991, p. 15)

Schon (1987) asserted that student teachers should be given tasks to explore their own learning by questioning their assumptions and comparing theory with their experience. Therefore, teacher educators should work as coaches and help them deal with situations for which there are no suggested solutions. A careful look on these three models of teacher education, it can be said that they broadly correspond to the three views of teaching identified by Freeman (1991; 1996) which are:

- 1- Teaching as doing (a behavioral model emphasizing what teachers do and encouraging a craft model of teacher education)
- 2- Teaching as thinking and doing (a cognitive model emphasizing what teachers know and how they do it, encouraging both theory and skills development; craft and applied science models of teacher education)
- 3- Teaching as knowing what to do (an interpretivist perspective emphasizing the reason behind teachers' actions in different contexts, encouraging the use of reflection and the development of frameworks of interpretation to theory and skill development in teacher education).

Wallace's three models of language teacher education are likely to be needed in all teacher development programs, but in different degrees, depending on teachers' experience and understanding. However, neither traditional education nor training are sufficient. What nowadays teachers need are opportunities to reflect upon their beliefs and practices and to construct and reconstruct their personal theories of language teaching and learning (Bailey 1992; Flowerdew, et al., 1992; Freeman & Richards 1996; Sachs, et al., 1996). Teaching depends upon the application of appropriate theory, the development of careful instructional designs and strategies, and the study of what actually happens in the classroom" (Richards, 1990).

## **2.8 Teacher Professional Development**

Nowadays, societies are engaging in promising and serious educational reforms. One of the key elements in these reforms is the professional development of teachers. This makes the field of teacher professional development a growing and challenging area which has received major attention during the past few years. According to Glatthorn (1995), "Teacher

development is the professional growth a teacher achieves as a result of gaining increased experience and examining his or her teaching systematically”(p. 41). In other words, professional development refers to the “training intended to teach teachers the knowledge and skills they need to perform their jobs well and often, these programs are aimed at veteran teachers to help them update their professional skills and knowledge” (Ravitch, 2007, p. 173). Another detailed definition was provided by Lange (1990, cited in Wong, 2011, p. 50) who points out that professional development is,

A term used in the literature to describe a process of continual intellectual, experiential, and attitudinal growth of teachers ... [It permits] continued growth both before and throughout a career ... in which teachers continue to evolve in the use, adaptation, and application of their art and craft.

This conception of professional development is, therefore, broader than career development, which is defined as “the growth that occurs as the teacher moves through the professional career cycle” (Glatthorn, 1995, p. 41). Therefore, when looking at professional development, one must examine the content of the experiences, the processes by which the professional development will occur, and the contexts in which it will take place (Ganser, 2000; Fielding and Schalock, 1985). Professional development includes both, formal and informal experiences. Formal experiences like attending workshops, professional meetings and mentoring and informal experiences like reading professional publications, and watching documentaries related to an academic discipline (Ganser, 2000). In this sense, it includes the notion of continuing education that permits professional advancement through lifelong development of vocational capabilities using self-learning materials as well as more formal delivery systems (Unesco, 1990).

To ensure a successful teacher development, Guskey (1995, cited in Villegas-Reimers, 2003, p. 17), pointed out some guidelines that must be followed when planning and implementing professional development opportunities for teachers. They are:

- to recognize change as being both an individual and an organizational process;
- to think big, but start small;
- to work in teams to maintain support;
- to include procedures for feedback on results;

- to provide continuous follow-up, support, and pressure;
- to integrate programs.

Similarly, Corcoran (1995, cited in Villegas-Reimers, 2003, p. 17) has suggested some guiding principles for experts and organizations that are designing and implementing professional development programs. These principles are:

- stimulate and support site-based initiatives (schools', districts' and teachers' initiatives)
- be grounded in knowledge about teaching;•model constructivist teaching
- offer intellectual, social and emotional engagement with ideas, materials and colleagues
- demonstrate respect for teachers as professionals and as adult learners
- provide sufficient time and follow-up
- be accessible and inclusive.
- 

Knowing how to design, implement and assess professional-development opportunities is a learned process, and teachers need time, support and opportunity to learn the necessary skills and knowledge in order to become effective promoters of their own professional development. Moore (2000) offers several suggestions for principals and directors of school programs to support the professional development of teachers. They include; planning ahead, starting early, establishing a routine, tapping internal resources, establishing a mentoring program, holding staff meetings for professional development and observing and guiding change.

### **2.8.1 Distinction between Teacher Training and Teacher Development**

In the 1990s, the practice versus theory distinction was sometimes resolved by distinguishing teacher training from teacher development. Teacher training is identified with entry-level teaching skills related to a specific teaching context. While teacher development refers to the development of teachers' repertoire of teaching skills gained through the observation of veteran teachers and practice teaching in a controlled setting. Teacher development is a life-long process of growth which may involve collaborative and/or autonomous learning, but the important distinction is that teachers are engaged in the process and they actively reflect on their practices. According to Wallace (1991), "The distinction is that training or education is something that can be presented or managed by others; whereas development is something that can be done only by and for oneself" (p.3). In order to see the

whole picture, Head and Taylor (1997) gave a table showing the main differences between teacher training and teacher development as follows:

**Table 2.3:** Difference between Teacher Training and Teacher Development (Head & Taylor, 1997, p. 9)

<b>Teacher Training (TT)</b>	<b>Teacher Development (TD)</b>
Compulsory	Voluntary
Competency-based	Holistic
Short-term	Long-term
One-off	Ongoing
Temporary	Continual
External agenda	Internal-agenda
Skill/technique and knowledge based	Awareness-based, angled towards personal growth and development of attitudes/insights
Compulsory for entry to the profession	Non-compulsory
Top-down	Bottom-up
Product/certificate weighted	Process weighted
Means you can get a job	Means you can stay interested in your job
Done with experts	Done with peers

Johnston, Pawan and Mahan-Taylor (2005) pointed out that teachers' beliefs and knowledge, life stories, alongside their identity and development are the four key factors grounding the theoretical framework of professional development for a teacher. Therefore, teacher development as a bottom-up process is more humanistic and appears to create productive learning environments shaped by teachers' individual needs. In a study conducted by Akiran (2004), it was emphasized the importance of the voice of teachers in the agenda to create better teacher development programs. In a similar vein, Inozu (2011) pointed out the importance of teachers and student teachers' beliefs in shaping the practical issues of the field and hence suggesting developmental changes in teacher development programs to improve teachers' practice.

### **2.8.2 Characteristics of Teacher Professional Development**

For years, the only form of professional development available for teachers was staff development or in-service training which usually consists of workshops or short-term courses that would provide teachers with new information on a particular aspect of their work (Villegas-Reimers, 2003). Only in the past few years the professional development of teachers has been considered a long-term process that includes regular opportunities and experiences planned systematically to promote growth and development in the profession (ibid.). This new perspective of professional development has several characteristics organized as follows:

- 1- It is based on constructivism rather than on a transmission-oriented model.
- 2- It is perceived as a long-term process.
- 3- It is perceived as a process that takes place within a particular context. Actual classroom experiences.
- 4- It is linked to school reform.
- 5- A teacher is conceived as a reflective practitioner.
- 6- Professional development is conceived of as a collaborative process.
- 7- Professional development may look and be very different in diverse settings. (Villegas-Reimers, 2003, pp.13-15)

Professional development has to be considered within a framework of social, economic and political trends and events (Woods, 1994). What works in one situation may not work in another. Therefore, schools and teacher educators must evaluate their needs, cultural beliefs and practices in order to decide which professional development would be most beneficial to their particular situation. Guskey (1995b) argues strongly on the importance of paying attention to context so that the “optimal mix” (p. 3) of professional development processes can be identified and planned.

### **2.8.3 Rationale for Teacher Development**

Research revealed that all teachers, whether in small towns and rural areas or in cities did not receive adequate training and support when required to switch to new teaching approaches (Song, 2002; Chen, 2005, cited in Feng, 2006). In education reforms, teachers have been considered passive receivers where their opinions are completely ignored. Therefore, they have experienced frustration and confusion and they perceived educational reform as a

hindrance. Some teaching reforms failed in some countries due to teachers' insufficient understanding and knowledge as well as their attitudes towards the reformed curriculum (Van Driel et al., 2001). In contrast, educational reform that centered around teachers development have seen a success. According to Maley (cited in Spratt, 1994, p. 54), there are at least five overlapping reasons through which teacher development has arisen:

- 1- A feeling that training courses cannot alone satisfy all trainees' needs.
- 2- A need to go beyond mere training (is there a life after the course?)
- 3- The search for a sense of direction which characterizes the increasing professionalization of ELT.
- 4- The growing confidence of teachers in their ability to share their own growth.
- 5- The influence of the wider life-long education movement.

Therefore, it becomes evident that professional development is a key factor to ensure the success of teacher education and training. Hence, it would be significant to explore the nature and reality of teacher development especially the practices of teachers and teacher educators. In addition, successful professional development opportunities for teachers have a significant effect on students' performance and learning (Villegas-Reimers, 2003). This means that when it comes to the improvement of student's learning and performance, professional development of teachers plays a vital role. Thus, investing in teacher development is the key to ensure that schools become learning communities where teachers learn from each other, work together and share practices for effective learning and teaching.

#### **2.8.4 Stages of Teacher Development**

Teachers pass through different stages of their development at different times in their career. These stages, if teacher development opportunities are to be effective, must be taken into consideration since teachers' needs can vary from one stage to the other. Researchers studied these stages and provided a number of models that describe teacher professional development stages. Day et al. (2007, pp. 66-101), for example, identified and defined six of these stages as follows:

- Professional Life Phase (0–3) Years Commitment: Support and Challenge

In this phase, teachers would be likely to follow one of two distinct professional life paths.

- a) Developing sense of efficacy; enjoy career advancement with increased self-efficacy.
- b) Reduced sense of efficacy which led to change of school or career.

- Professional Life Phase (4–7) Years: Identity and Efficacy in Classroom

Teachers demonstrate a primary concern about their confidence and feelings in being effective; promotion and additional responsibilities had already begun to play a significant role in teachers' perceived identities, motivation and sense of effectiveness.

- Professional Life Phase (8–15) Years – Managing Changes in Role and Identity:

Tensions and Transitions

This phase is a key watershed in teacher professional development. Teachers face additional tensions in managing change in both their professional and personal lives. Most of them had additional responsibilities they were at the crossroads of deciding the direction of their professional identity within the profession, whether to climb up the management ladder or to remain in the classroom.

- Professional Life Phase (16 –23) Years Work Life Tensions: Challenges to

Motivation and Commitment

In this phase, teachers were categorized into three sub-groups on the basis of their management of the challenges of work–life and home events:

Sub-group a) teachers who had seen their motivation and commitment increase, as a result of their further career advancement and good pupil results/relationships.

Sub-group b) teachers who maintained their motivation, commitment and sense of effectiveness, as a consequence of their agency and determination to improve their professional life.

Sub-group c) teachers whose workload, management of competing tensions had led to decreased motivation, commitment and perceived effectiveness.

- Professional Life Phase (24–30 Years) Challenges to Sustaining Motivation

Teachers faced more intensive challenges to sustaining their motivation in the profession. On the basis of their levels of motivation, two sub-groups were identified.

Sub-group a) teachers with strong sense of motivation and commitment to continue self-efficacy in their profession.

Sub-group b) teachers holding on but losing motivation, which lead to a sense of detachment and early retirement.

- Professional Life Phase (+ 31) Sustaining/Declining Motivation, Ability to Cope with Change, Looking to Retire

Sub-group a) maintaining commitment

Sub-group b) teachers whose motivation had declined, and who look to retire and exit the profession.

According to this model, the commitment of teachers in late professional life phases, though remaining high for many teachers, is more likely to decline than those in middle and early years. Similarly, Huberman (1989) suggested a five stages model of teachers' professional development summarized in the following table.

**Table 2.4:** Teacher's Professional Life Cycle: Successive Theme. Huberman (1989a)

<b>Years</b>	<b>Dominants themes</b>
1 – 3	Career Entry: Survival and discovery
4 – 6	A period of stabilization: teachers make a commitment to teaching as a career
7 – 18	A period of experimentation (activism) yet others see it as self-doubt and Re-assessment. Many teachers leave the profession at this stage as their frustration reaches its peak.
19 – 30	A period of Serenity (relational distance) Conservation
31 – 40	Disengagement: for some teachers it is a time for serenity, for others a time of bitterness

A more detailed model is that presented by Berliner (1994, pp. 164-167) and which is succinctly summarized by Andrews (2007) and reproduced in the following table.

**Table 2.5:** Berliner's Five-stage Model of Teacher Tevelopment (based on Berliner, 1994, cited in Andrews, 2007, p. 120).

<p><b>Stage 1: Novice level</b> [all student teachers and 1st-year teachers] •</p>	<p>Needs context-free rules/procedures about teaching</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Operates rationally, but fairly inflexibly, in following such rules/procedures</li> <li>• Starts to learn the objective facts and features of situations and to gain Experience</li> </ul>
<p><b>Stage 2: Advanced beginner level</b> [many 2ndyear and 3rd-year teachers]</p>	<p>Experience begins to be melded with the verbal knowledge acquired in Stage 1</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Starts to acquire episodic and case knowledge, and to recognize similarities across contexts</li> <li>• Still unsure of self and of what to do when experience / case knowledge is lacking</li> <li>• May still have little sense of what is important in a specific situation</li> </ul>
<p><b>Stage 3: Competent level</b> [many 3rd-year and 4thyear teachers + more experienced teachers]</p>	<p>Personally in control of events going on around him/her</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Makes conscious choices about what to do</li> <li>• Has rational goals and is able to set priorities, decide on goals and choose sensible means for achieving those goals</li> <li>• When teaching, is able to determine what is or is not important</li> <li>• Still not very fast, fluid or flexible in behavior</li> </ul>
<p><b>Stage 4: Proficient level</b> [a modest number of teachers, from around 5th year of teaching onwards]</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Intuition and know-how become prominent</li> <li>• Is able to view situations holistically and to recognize similarities between events</li> <li>• Can therefore predict events more precisely</li> <li>• Is able to bring case knowledge to bear on a problem</li> <li>• Still analytic and deliberative in deciding what to do</li> </ul>
<p><b>Stage 5: Expert Level</b> [a small number of teachers, after at least 5 years]</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Has an intuitive grasp of situations.</li> <li>• Seems to sense in non-analytic and non-deliberative ways how to respond appropriately in classroom situations.</li> <li>• With routine, repetitive tasks, acts fluidly, effortlessly and without 5 years] consciously choosing what to do or to attend to.</li> <li>• When a problem arises, and with non-routine tasks, is able to bring deliberate, analytic processes to bear.</li> <li>• Is willing and able to reflect on and learn from experience.</li> </ul>

Clearly, the different stages of teachers' professional development have been well documented and studied in detail, as can be seen by the number of models that describe the process. In addition to the models listed above Dreyfus and Dreyfus (1986) also presented a model describing the stages that teachers traverse as they mature from being novice teachers to becoming experts. It is important to emphasize that these models are only useful to a certain extent, as each individual teacher new to the profession enters with different characteristics and may be presented with different opportunities within the first few years of working (Villegas-Reimers, 2003). Therefore, as the individual differences among teachers are various, these models are limited to only represent the majority.

## **2.9 Teacher Training and Teachers' Attitudes**

Research indicates that teachers' attitudes and beliefs are generally static and persevering (Nespor, 1987; Pajares, 1992), and therefore are hard to challenge. However, it is claimed that training programs can play a role in "re-shaping" these attitudes, although, at the same time, it is also argued that generally teachers tend to leave their training programs with the same attitudes they brought with them (Raths, 2001; Pajares, 1993). Raths (2001) argues that candidate-teachers bring with them an array of attitudes about teaching to their training. According to Raths (2001), the priority to teacher educators, is thus to bring these attitudes to light and to attempt to challenge them early during training so as to maximize the learning of new practices. According to Ballone and Czerniak (2001), "teacher belief constructs should be considered carefully when planning teacher development programs in order to successfully implement reform recommendations' (p. 22). However and on the other hand, Nespor (1987) purports that teacher training programs should not expect teachers to abandon their attitudes and beliefs, but should try to replace them gradually with more relevant ones acquired through experience in a different context. In this respect, Prawat (1992), indicates that in order for teachers to change their attitudes, they usually go through three stages: a) they must come to the conclusion that their attitudes are inappropriate, b) they must find opportunities to discover new knowledge, and c) they must find ways to link their new attitudes with their old ones.

In order to make teacher training programs successful, it is suggested that they should promote reflective practice (Richards and Lockhart, 1994). In this context, it is claimed that reflective practice could possibly get teachers to reflect about their attitudes, and thus, to compare these attitudes with new forms of knowledge towards challenging these attitudes and replacing them with more appropriate knowledge (Richards and Lockhart, 1994). Newstead (1999) explains that “researchers agree that significant change in teachers’ practices cannot be achieved without the opportunity for teachers’ reflection” (p. 1). Rueda and Garcia (1994) also claimed that there are “many studies supporting the idea that if teachers are given the opportunity to reflect on their teaching practices, they not only get better at reflection but they also change as well” (p. 16). In a similar vein, Flores (2001) points out that teachers’ critical reflection leads to a change of teaching practice. She further maintains that critical reflection can empower teachers and this can even lead them to challenge the current situation.

In addition, Fives (2003) noted that teachers who undergo reflective practice in their teacher training tend to report high levels of self-efficacy attitudes. Reflective practice is particularly important in second and foreign language teaching (Richards and Lockhart, 1994) especially that it has also been noticed that teachers tended to leave their training programs with the same attitudes about language learning and teaching that they had when they entered their courses (Farrell and Lim, 2005; Richards et al., 2001; Karavas-Doukas, 1996; Newstead, 1999). Moreover, it has been suggested that reflective practice in training programs need to be conducted within a socio-constructivist approach (Spanneberg, 2001; Richards et al., 2001; Flores, 2001), where “the emphasis is on the teacher as learner, a person who will experience teaching and learning situations and give personal meaning to those experiences through reflection” (Spanneberg, 2001, p. 1).

Among the strategies proposed in teacher training and development within a socio-constructivist approach, Richards et al. (2001), for example, recommend that “reflection is possible through many means including narratives, discussion, review of student feedback, viewing videotapes of their teaching as well as other modes of reflection” (p. 12). They also indicate that teachers can check the degree to which their attitudes are changing through diaries, journal writing and case studies. Furthermore, Richards et al. point out that “opportunities to share experiences of positive change can provide a valuable source of input for in-service courses and teacher education activities” (p. 12). Through a study conducted by

Ballone and Czerniak (2001), they recommended some substantial rules on how to incorporate reflective practice in teacher training programs. They indicated that:

...teacher training experiences should include enough opportunities to  
1) collaborate with colleagues who are implementing the same strategies, 2) visit classrooms that use multiple instructional strategies and focus on student learning styles, 3) observe student and teacher success, 4) develop and/or pilot instructional materials, 5) practice using these strategies with colleagues in order to receive feedback, 6) participate in and present activities that foster learning styles at workshops and in-service programs (ibid, p.22)

Nevertheless, it is worth noting that for these activities to be possible, an appropriate provision of resources and support from administration and curriculum-makers are essential (Rueda and Garcia, 1994; Ballone and Czerniak, 2001; Newstead, 1999).

## **2.10 English Language Teaching in Algeria**

In the light of intensive modern research and ongoing globalization, a number of reforms have been introduced to prepare students to take part in the growth of the country. The Algerian educational framework has witnessed a shift regarding its curriculum development and teaching methodologies. In 2003, EFL teaching methodology adopted a new approach, namely the Competency-Based Approach (CBA) to answer the 21<sup>st</sup> century requirements and to cope with this global age. The aim of this approach is to provide students with the knowledge and skills which enable them to recognize and solve complex problems. It is a specialized and systematic method of organizing skill-specific instructions. In this respect, Kouwenhoven (2003, p. 36) presents a comprehensive definition of competency, according to him:

it is the capability to choose and use an integrated combination of knowledge, skills and abilities with the intention to realize a task in a certain context, while personal characteristics such as motivation, self-confidence and will power are part of that context, and competence, is the capacity to accomplish up to a standard the key occupational tasks that characterize a profession.

In an attempt to explain competency development, Schneckenberg and Wildt (2006) provided a ladder process to attain competency. According to them, the process of

competency achievement is complex as it requires the development of necessary skills, knowledge and attitudes to carry out specific tasks successfully. The process begins with the perception of information which leads to collecting knowledge by learners. If this knowledge is adequately applied in a certain context, it enables the learner to do a certain task provided that he has a positive attitude and is motivated enough to do it. Competence then can be achieved if the task is adequate to the required level. On the way to competency achievement, the learner can become proficient to do that task through much experience to reach a superior level of performance.

### 2.10.1 Secondary School Level

At the secondary level, students are introduced to grammar, four skills, vocabulary, pronunciation, language forms and functions in addition to phonology. The program is believed to provide activities to stimulate and develop learners' competencies. Among the major goals of this newly adopted system is to make both the teacher and student come to a fruitful interaction. The table below illustrates the textbooks within the three years of secondary education:

**Table 2.6:** English Textbooks at Secondary School

<b>Year of study</b>	<b>Textbook</b>	<b>N of hours / week</b>
Secondary education Year 1	At the crossroads	3hours
Secondary education Year 2	Getting through	3hours
Secondary education Year 3	New prospects	3hours

The new program uses different teaching materials and interactive activities, like portfolios, self-assessment, proverbs and sayings accompanied with pictures and illustrations. In addition, the textbooks pay considerable attention to interactive tasks and activities that have the goal of fostering the learners' abilities of listening for details, developing awareness to specific features in English pronunciation and paying attention to discourse markers. These tasks should be performed in pairs or in small groups.

Despite the fact that the competency-based approach reflects rich opportunities for teachers and students, a number of weaknesses have been identified by teachers and other stakeholders in the field. Bouabdesselam (2001), for example, noted that

The English syllabus in secondary education in Algeria is narrowly defined and restricted to a collection of functions that are randomly selected. However, the major lack of harmony between the various official documents is over the degree of specificity of overall objectives: instructions in the English syllabus are not in harmony with those in new lines and in pedagogical instruction (p. 103)

The ultimate goal of most English language courses is to help learners develop a general command of English for use outside the classroom. However, in the Algerian context, factors like overcrowded classes and time constraints make this goal seem difficult if not possible to achieve.

### **2.10.2 University Level (the L.M.D.)**

Algeria, like many other countries around the world, has adopted and experienced the policy and principles of the Bologna Process, which was launched in 1999 by the ministers of Education and University leaders of 29 European countries. On score of joining this process, the Algerian higher educational system in 2003 has adopted the L.M.D. principles. The L.M.D. system is composed of the Licence degree, the equivalent of the BA (Bachelor Degree) for three years (six semesters) and then a Master degree for two years (four semesters) and finally, the Doctorate degree after the completion of research for at least three years and defending a thesis. The application of the L.M.D. in Algeria system is regarded as a move towards the ongoing process of globalization as “this Anglo-Saxon program has proved its success and it has more or less been adopted by most European countries” (Miliani, 2010, p. 71).

## **2.11 Teacher Training and Development in Algeria**

### **2.11.1 The Old Teacher Training System**

Prior to 2000, there used to be two different tracks of teacher training in Algeria. These tracks were run by two different bodies: the Ministry of National Education, at the Institutes

of Education (ITE) for primary and middle school teachers and the Ministry of Higher Education and Research, at the college, for high school teachers (PES). The Licence diploma in English (B.A.) in Algerian universities initially lasted three years to meet the urgent need for Algerian teachers, but then was extended to four years in 1988. The licence course aimed at preparing prospective teachers of high schools. They have not been specifically trained to be teachers; however, they were expected to have acquired content knowledge about the English language, its culture and some pedagogical knowledge.

Institutes of education' (ITE) training were different from college education in various ways. First, ITE schools main mission was to recruit prospective teachers from among Baccalaureate holders. However, since the courses were for the preparation of middle and primary school teachers (Ministry of Education, 1992), the entrance to the course did not necessarily require having a Baccalaureate certificate, provided that candidates passed an entrance exam. Second, ITE courses were a combination of theory and practice where candidates studied for two years a core curriculum made up of TEFL, linguistics, phonology of English, grammar, Oral Expression, and Written Expression. In the second semester of the second year, prospective teachers underwent training period with normal classes. They were assigned to different schools where they not only attended classes with experienced, senior teachers, but also they were required to demonstrate skills in teaching. However, college courses were mostly theoretical. That's why ITE educated teachers often criticize college educated teachers for their lack of knowledge and expertise in English teaching. Third, the courses used to last one year, then they were extended to two years, and after that to three years; before the ITE institutions were officially closed down in 1999.

### **2.11.2 The New Teacher Training System**

The new teacher training system came within the national government's policy to prepare and develop teachers according to the principles underlying the educational system reforms, and to meet the new demands and challenges of the new curriculum. The new teacher training system emphasized quality over quantity compared with the old training system which emphasized quantity over quality. All teachers for all school levels, secondary, middle and primary are now trained at the National School of Teachers (ENS) run in partnership with the Ministry of Education and the Ministry of Higher Education. Generally, candidates who hold the baccalaureate and who choose to become teachers enroll in a one-year preparation course before they are directed to their specialist track according to the grades they obtain in the

preparation course. Thus, there are those who study four years to become middle and primary school teachers and those who study five years to become secondary school teachers.

This teacher training starts first in classroom where student teachers (prospective teachers) learn different subjects related to teaching. In such educational institutions, students of English are taught subjects with the goal of helping them master the language as a whole, design courses, establish goals and learning outcomes in lessons, raise their awareness about the importance of effective warm-ups in lessons, develop competence and mastery of knowledge in subject matter areas, and learn the different methods and strategies used in teaching. In addition, there is some kind of real life training that takes place in the graduation year within the context of middle or high schools where student teachers practice what they have learnt through teaching young learners. This training takes place within a given school where student teachers are followed and monitored by a mentor teacher to guide them. This type of educational institutions, which are directed to form and prepare future Algerian teachers, contribute to some extent in training student-teachers and help them get ready for the teaching profession.

### **2.11.3 The University Graduate Teacher Route Program**

In the Algerian educational context, universities do not usually provide students with, or involve them in, any teacher training and professional development programs. This is mainly due to the fact that Algerian universities do not even have such educational programs in the first place. Future student-teachers and novice teachers take the whole burden to form themselves as teachers, but, eventually, they find themselves stuck with difficult challenges once engaged in the teaching profession. This is not only due to their lack of necessary readiness, experience and skills in teaching but also to their lack of competence in the subject-matter and the teaching assessment skills which can drive so many novice teachers to lose confidence in themselves and even hate and complain about the teaching profession, but they just keep struggling because they have no other solution for remedy. Some might even see teaching as a valuable source for financial support in the first place and they cannot abandon it whatever conditions and circumstances they might be in.

To meet the shortage of teachers, especially in rural areas, the Ministry of Education sometimes organizes recruitment examinations for candidates who hold a degree in English and who wish to enter the teaching profession. The examination involves a written exam and

an interview, where candidates are tested for their language competence and personality. The candidates who are successful are immediately offered teaching positions without prior adequate training. However, they are provided by a number of seminars where they get extra courses and supervised by veteran teachers (mentors) and their appropriate inspector for a one-year probationary period. These teachers are supposed to learn to teach on-the-job. After their probationary period is successful, the teachers get their full qualified status.

#### **2.11.4 In-service Training and Professional Development**

In all teaching profession levels, there is always a need for quality teachers to ensure quality teaching and learning. Modern society which is being formed due to a collision of new values and technologies, new geopolitical relations, new life styles and communication requires brand new ideas. Therefore, re-formulations of educational goals in both developed and developing countries has become a necessity. In this respect, both novice and experienced teachers might be in need of continuing professional development training provided by the school, university, or any other independent or collaborating agency, to help them build and improve themselves in their respective fields of specialization, and this will, in turn, help them influence their classroom teaching performances. Therefore, teachers' training and professional development programs should be central aspects in teachers' development and career improvement.

The Ministry of Education has run in-service courses and seminars to meet the demands of the new curriculum. This involved the organization of training days and seminars with inspectors and local officials from the different Directorates of Education. Some continuous professional development courses have also been organized for primary and middle school teachers to ensure they gain appropriate qualifications to meet the demands of the new curriculum. However, there does not seem to be any continuous professional development program for secondary school teachers.

There are some teacher training and professional development programs which are prepared and organized by some independent and private agencies. For improving the teaching of English as a foreign language in Algeria, the British Council in Algeria, for example, organizes annually some interesting events intended at gathering the Algerian teachers and informing them about new methods, strategies and techniques in the field of teaching English as a foreign language. As well as some practical and up-to-date insights that

might help them in their learning and teaching. Even though such practices can help Algerian teachers gain more knowledge and share expertise with colleagues, they still remain limited, not to say non-effective. This is a flaw that handicaps language teaching is the absence of a coherent, nationally accepted framework on how to teach. Consequently, there is a strong urge for positive and beneficial change to take place where the Ministry of Education and the Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research should devote a considerable amount of efforts and resources to prepare adequate teacher training and professional development programs. Through these programs, teachers should be prepared and equipped with the necessary skills and competencies before they engage in teaching in order to ensure effective teaching and high quality learning.

## **2.12 Conclusion**

The professional development of teachers is a lifelong process that starts at pre-service teacher training and ends at retirement. This lifelong process is divided into three stages, namely pre-service, induction and in-service training. Pre-service training consists of a blend of theoretical knowledge about teaching and a field-based practice experience that enable teachers to acquire the basic knowledge (both content and pedagogy), skills and attitudes before entering the profession. The induction phase involves systematic guidance and support provided by mentor teachers to ensure a smooth transition and acculturation of novice teachers into the teaching profession. In-service training, in the other hand, is a continuing process that aims to refresh, update and improve the competence of serving teachers or provide them with orientation for implementing new curricula reforms. However, it was seen in the last part of this chapter that some of these ideals are far from being realized in the Algerian context. Thus, what is required is continuous reflection and evaluation of teacher training programs if we are to achieve improvement and change in the Algerian education.

## **Chapter Three: Classroom Management**

### **3.1 Introduction**

Classroom management is considered as the most challenging task faced by novice teachers and is one of the most important practices for teachers to master. Novice teachers are often evaluated based on their management of the classroom. They are expected to manifest a high degree of professional competence and therefore to be able to manage their classes in such a way that students derive the maximum benefit from their schooling. Mastery of classroom management skills appears then to be crucial to create a conducive environment where effective teaching and learning can flourish. This chapter attempts to provide a better understanding of classroom management, it explores some approaches models and strategies of classroom management. In addition, it stresses the importance of classroom management for novice teachers and how it can affect students' motivation and teacher efficacy.

### **3.2 Definitions of Classroom Management**

The definitions of classroom management vary depending on which of its aspects one focuses on, the philosophical preferences and the operational approaches adopted. For example, the working definition used in a National Society for the Study of Education Yearbook on the topic (Duke, 1979) indicated that classroom management refers to “the provisions and procedures necessary to establish and maintain an environment in which instruction and learning can occur” (p. 12). While Doyle (1986) summarized it as “the actions and strategies teachers use to solve the problem of order in classrooms” (p. 397). More recently, Brophy (2006) indicated that classroom management is a multidimensional construct consisting of teacher and student-driven behaviors, ranging from organizing the physical layout of the classroom to fostering classroom community and positive teacher-student relationships. All these definitions indicated that classroom management can be defined as a

collection of teaching strategies taken by the teacher to establish order, engage students, or elicit their cooperation.

Although there are particular methodological and theoretical orientations that distinguish one area of study from another, there is a consensus among many researchers that classroom management is a complex construct that requires a sophisticated and multifaceted examination (Fries & Cochran-Smith, 2006). This rising tendency to conceptualize classroom management broadly resulted in a more expansive definition of the concept to include a variety of teacher actions: establishing and maintaining order in an environment conducive to academic instruction, developing positive relationships with students, fostering the emotional and social development as well as addressing problematic behavior (Evertson & Weinstein, 2006; Woolfolk Hoy & Weinstein, 2006). Similarly, Jones (1996) emphasized the comprehensive nature of classroom management by identifying five main features:

- 1- Understanding of current research and theory in classroom management and students' psychological and learning needs.
- 2- The creation of positive teacher-student and peer relationships.
- 3- The use of instructional methods that facilitate optimal learning by responding to the academic needs of individual students and the classroom group.
- 4- The use of organizational and group management methods that maximize on-task behavior.
- 5- The ability to use a range of counseling and behavioral methods to assist students who demonstrate persistent or serious behavior problems. (p. 507)

This comprehensive view of classroom management encompasses establishing and maintaining order, developing positive relationships with students, responding to the needs of individual students, designing effective instruction and handling the discipline of individual students effectively. However, Jones's third feature, the use of instructional methods to facilitate optimal learning, makes classroom management difficult to distinguish from the process of teaching in general.

The above definitions that describe what is and what constitutes classroom management seem extensive and cross over several disciplines (education, psychology, sociology). This makes it difficult to synthesize the literature on classroom management and to outline a single trajectory for how this area of study developed, or to examine it as a distinct field of inquiry (Evertson & Weinstein, 2006).

### 3.3 The Importance of Classroom Management

Teaching is a very complex task as it has a lot of dimensions and challenges. Among these challenges that teachers, novice and experienced alike, face is classroom management. This is evidenced by teachers being more likely to request professional development in this area than any other (Townsend, 2011). Underwood (1987) states that “being a fluent, accurate English speaker is a great help, but this alone does not make you into a successful teacher” (p. 7). Therefore, Wragg (2003) states that “there are certain skills that teachers possess that are of paramount importance and class management is one of those areas” (p. 2). Webster-Stratton, Reinke, Herman and Newcomer (2011) study results revealed that teachers’ number one requirement was training and support in managing difficult behavior in their classrooms. According to Webster-Stratton, Reid and Toolmiller (2008), “teachers with poor classroom management skills have higher overall levels of classroom aggression, peer rejection and exclusion, which in turn compound the development of individual children’s social and conduct problems.” (p. 472). Thus, in order to teach successfully, teachers must have control over their classrooms because as Marzano (2003) indicated “effective teaching and learning cannot take place in a poorly managed class” (p. 6). Teaching without establishing control can then affect negatively the quality of instruction and the learning process.

According to Wragg (2003), “For many years researchers and teachers themselves have tried to find the secrets of successful teaching...Without the ability to manage a group effectively, any other qualities teachers have may be neutralized” (p. 12). This means that successful classroom management is one of the most important strategies that lead to successful language classes. Zukas and Malcolm (2007) discussed some perspectives related to teaching excellence and the role of the teacher as a disciplinary actor; they claim that discipline is integral to pedagogy, as they are inseparable. Tassell (2004) points out that administrators are satisfied when the teacher never sends a student to the social worker or the office and they consider this as proof that the teacher is in control of the classroom and doing a good job. Classroom management is then seen by many stakeholders as a measure of a teacher’s success. This was supported by Weinstein (2007) who pointed out that classroom management serves two main purposes, to establish and sustain an orderly environment so that learning can be effective and to enhance students' social and emotional growth. In the following table, she summarized seven guiding assumptions about classroom management:

**Table 3.1:** Weinstein's (2007) Guiding Assumptions about Classroom management (p. 6)

1	Successful classroom management fosters self-discipline and personal responsibility.
2	Most problems of disorder in classrooms can be avoided if teachers foster positive student-teacher relationships, implement engaging instruction, and use good preventive management strategies.
3	The way teachers think about management strongly influences what they do. Teachers who view classroom management as a process of guiding and structuring classroom events tend to be more effective than teachers who stress their disciplinary role or who see classroom management as a product of personal charm.
4	The need for order must not supersede the need for meaningful instruction.
5	The tasks of classroom management vary across different classroom situations.
6	Managing today's diverse classrooms requires the knowledge, skills and predispositions to work with students from diverse racial, ethnic, language, and social class background. In other words, teachers must become "culturally responsive classroom managers".
7	Becoming an effective classroom manager requires reflection, hard work and time.

The above table clearly demonstrates that classroom management covers many important aspects that are essential to the creation of an effective learning environment. In addition, it indicates that there is a close relationship between classroom management and culture. Crookes (2003) discussed the relation between classroom management and culture in which he pointed out that "some aspects of classroom management may be quite culture-dependent" (p. 141). Thus, teachers may find a need to reevaluate their skills once they start to deal with groups of different levels of motivation and cultural backgrounds (Crooks, 2003). Nunan and Lamb (1996) reported that management problems may happen when "culture norms and values are at play, of which the teacher may simply be unaware" (p. 112). Teachers, therefore, need a thorough understanding of students' culture as this culture may affect students' behavior in the language classroom.

Classroom management can be considered fundamental to successful teaching and learning. If the environment is not conducive to learning the very nature of teaching is lost. This was supported by Gordon (2001) who discussed the rationale for a management system where he pointed out that classroom management is essential for four reasons. First, "Little or

no learning can occur in a classroom bereft of effective management and discipline” (p. 18). Second, it helps to teach students self-control and responsibility. Third, liability issues can appear if there is no control. Fourth, “Successful classroom management can set the stage for optimal learning, as well as reduce stress on teachers” (p. 18). In other words, the primary purpose of classroom management is maximizing learning, while the secondary purpose is minimizing misconduct that is disruptive to learning. Hence, it can be said that classroom management is a means to the all-important end goal of facilitating learning.

Successful teachers are often effective managers because effective teaching and learning cannot take place in a poorly managed classroom. When students are disorderly and disrespectful, and no apparent procedures and rules guide behavior, chaos becomes the norm. In such situation, both teachers and students suffer. Therefore, maintaining order and discipline in the classroom is vital as this will assure that the students will focus more on the instructional tasks leaving a small room for disruptive behaviors to take place. But a well-managed classroom does not just appear out of nowhere. It takes a good deal of effort to create and the person who is most responsible for creating it is the teacher.

### **3.4 Classroom Management and Novice Teachers**

Effective classroom management is an important factor in fostering positive outcomes among students (Jennings & Greenberg, 2009; Strong et al., 2011). In addition, “skillful classroom management makes good intellectual work possible” (Le Page et al., 2005, p. 327). Therefore, it can be assumed that learning about classroom management is a prominent feature of many foreign language teacher training programs and a common learning expectation among novice teachers. However, managing a classroom is still a daunting task for novice teachers. They often discuss the inadequacies of their classroom management training (Duck, 2007; Ladd, 2000; Stoughton, 2007). Hence, in the absence of adequate training, novice teachers keep struggling to develop the complex set of necessary classroom management competencies (Green, 2006; Kagan, 1992; Melnick & Meister, 2008). Fuller (1969) has pointed out that

...beginning teachers are concerned about class control, about their own content adequacy, about the situations in which they teach and about evaluations by their supervisors, by their pupils and of their pupils by themselves. (p.210).

Classroom management is, thus, seen to be a serious problem especially for novice teachers as they focus to protect themselves. Veenman (1984) also studied the problems of novice teachers, in the literature, of different countries. He reported that:

...classroom discipline was the most seriously perceived problem area of beginning teachers. Of course not all beginning teachers experienced problems with classroom discipline. The percentage of beginning teachers with discipline problems varied greatly. (p. 153).

Classroom management is not only a challenge for the novice teacher but also a concern of the teaching profession as a whole. Jones and Jones (1998) reported that teachers' concern associated with students' behavior problems in the school has increased. They reported that:

In 1991, 44 percent of teachers nationwide reported that student misbehaviour interfered substantially with their teaching.... The same study showed that 19 percent of teachers' reported being verbally abused by a student in the previous four weeks and 28 percent of the teachers viewed physical conflicts among student as a serious or moderate problem in their school. (Mansfield, Alexander and Farris, 1991; cited in Jones and Jones, 1998; p.5).

Although most education stakeholders emphasize that pre-service instruction in classroom management should impact novice teachers' level of preparedness and sense of confidence once in the classroom, Labaree (2004) claims that "prospective teachers learn about teaching from a sixteen- or seventeen-year apprenticeship of observation as students, which provides them with a powerful attachment to an image of teaching that several years in a teacher preparation program can do little to change (p. 176). Lortie explains this concept further:

The student's learning about teaching, gained from a limited vantage point and relying heavily on imagination, is not like that of an apprentice and does not represent acquisition of the occupation's technical knowledge. It is more a matter of imitation, which, being generalized across individuals, becomes tradition. It is a potentially powerful influence which transcends generations, but the conditions of transfer do not favor informed criticism, attention to specifics, or explicit rules of assessment (p. 63).

This "apprenticeship of observation" posits that teachers base much of their developing pedagogical knowledge on their own previous experience as students and the modeling provided for them by their teachers. Allen (2009) found that pre-service teachers often preferred to use "tried and true" strategies that they themselves had witnessed as young learners. This prior knowledge can be "a more influential factor on the thinking and practice of pre-service teachers than education courses or programs" (Watzke, 2007, p. 65). Nevertheless, it is vital to acknowledge the tension that often arises among novice teachers between what they think they know about how to handle a classroom and what they are explicitly taught during their teacher preparation coursework and field experiences (Wright, 2005). In other words, to make a difference in the level of pedagogical knowledge our novice teachers gain throughout their preparation, teacher training programs are urged to fight against what prospective or novice teachers may believe are appropriate classroom management strategies from their own time spent as students in a school setting.

**Table 3.2:** Underwood's (1987) Suggestions to Teachers for Effective Classroom Management (p.35)

N°	Suggestions
1	Address every student by name and encourage the rest of the class to do so too.
2	Always be polite to your students and expect them to be polite to each other as well as to you. (This includes arriving on time and apologizing for lateness.)
3	Make sure that you do not show favoritism towards particular students.
4	Plan clearly what you are going to do in each lesson, but do not stick so rigidly to it that you disallow even valid interruptions.
5	Tell the students what you want to achieve in the lesson and then, at the end, say how successful you think you have been.
6	Include every student in some way during each lesson if possible and do not let one or two students monopolize the class.
7	Provide opportunities for your students to talk and listen to each other rather than all communication being between you and them.
8	Say what you mean and mean what you say. If, for example, you have told the class to look at the next unit before the next lesson if they have time, do not complain if some students have not done so. But if you say "This homework must be done by Monday," and some students do not do it, then you must be firm and express your displeasure. As far as purposeful class is concerned, the firmness of your disapproval is an important part of your relationship with the group.
9	Do the things which you have told the students you will do. (e.g. "I'll bring it and show it to you at our next lesson.") If you are bad at remembering, keep a notebook in which to write reminders to yourself.
10	Be consistent in how you deal with your students. If you have said that certain behaviour is not acceptable (e.g. eating in class), then you must enforce the 'rules'. Simple but firm insistence is best- 'Carlos, please don't eat in class; it's unpleasant for the rest of the class.' Sometimes you will have to be sterner with misbehavers but if you treat all students alike, your firm stand will not spoil your relationship with the group.

### 3.5 Classroom Management and Motivation

There is a close relationship between motivation and classroom management. According to Dornyei (2005), classroom management is crucial in developing and supporting the motivation of the individual. This was also supported by Alzieni (2008) who indicated that teachers who are good managers can create environments of motivation to arouse students' interests, guide them to behave well, and encourage them to learn effectively. In a similar vein, Erwin (2004) points out that "one of a manager's most important concerns is the motivation of workers, or for our purposes, students" (p. 6). Thus, effective classroom management is obviously linked to teachers' ability to motivate students and gain their respect and cooperation in the classroom. Erwin (2004) further indicated that unmotivated students do poor work, learn very little, and often behave in disruptive and irresponsible ways while motivated students behave responsibly, do quality work, and learn well. Therefore, effective teachers hold the potential to influence their students' classroom behavior and engagement in learning activities.

Motivation is a broad concept that cannot be easily defined. Researchers often discuss this term from different perspectives. From a behavioristic perspective, motivation is seen as the anticipation of reward, while in cognitive terms, motivation places more emphasis on the individuals' decisions. It is defined as the choices people make as to what experiences or objectives they will approach or avoid and the degree of effort they will exert in that respect. A constructivist view of motivation places even further emphasis on social context as well as individual personal choices (brown, 2000, cited in Alzieni, 2008). Simply, motivation can be defined as an inner desire to do something.

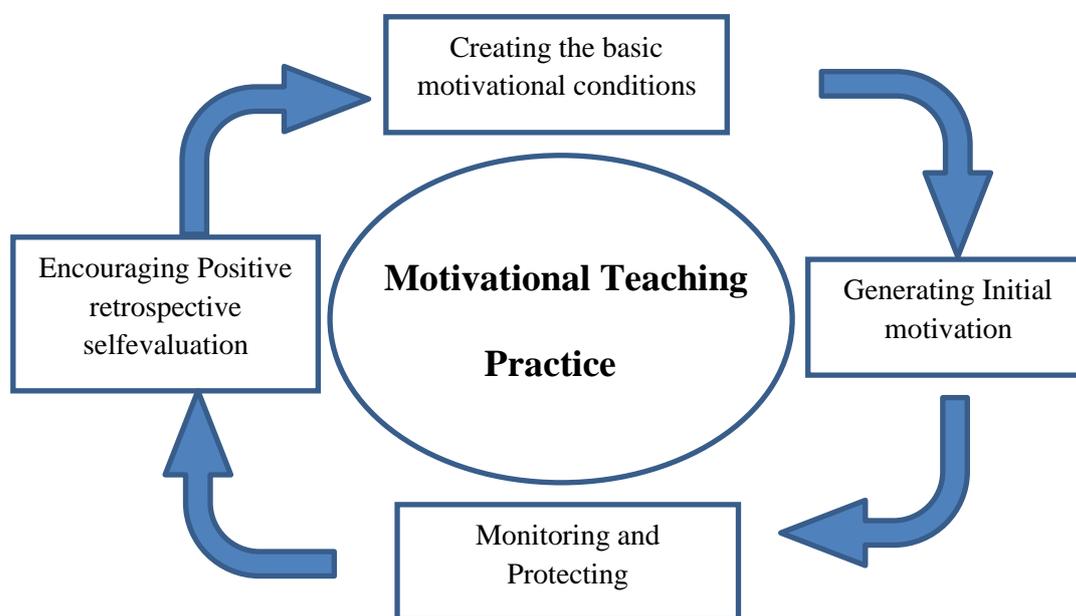
There are two types of motivation, intrinsic and extrinsic. Intrinsic motivation refers to the internal desire to do an activity for its own sake without any external reward. Research studies have found that intrinsic motivation is often associated with high educational achievement and enjoyment by students. Rudolph (2006) asserts, "Our goal as educators is to foster an intrinsic motivation for lifelong learning in our students" (p. 22). On the other hand, extrinsic motivation refers to that behavior which is driven by external rewards like money or good grades. Traditionally, extrinsic motivation has been used to motivate employees and students.

These rewards can be tangible like grades, payment and promotion, or intangible such as praise and public commendation.

Many research studies claim that motivation is changeable and can be enhanced. Weinstein (2007), for example, indicated that “if motivation is an innate or unchangeable characteristic, then we don’t have to spend time and energy figuring out ways to motivate students” (p. 186).

She further added that “teachers must redouble their efforts to create a classroom context that fosters students' involvement and interest” (p. 187). In addition, Gordon (2001) suggested that “Helping students meet their own needs is of utmost importance to enhance their learning opportunities and to maintain our own longevity in the classroom” (p. 18). In other words, students are most likely to be competent if they can work to achieve their own personal goals while at the same time, working to achieve the goals and objectives inherent in the demands of classroom life.

The role of the teacher in engaging students in learning is immensely complex in that it concerns almost all aspects of the classroom environment. Dörnyei (2005) suggested four strategies that teachers can use for an effective motivational teaching. These strategies can be demonstrated in the following figure (see figure 1).



**Figure 3.1:** Components of Motivational L2 Teaching Practice (Dörnyei, 2005, p. 112)

The first strategy of creating the basic motivational conditions has some techniques such as appropriate teacher behaviors, a pleasant and supportive classroom atmosphere, and a cohesive learner group with appropriate group norms (Alzieni, 2008). This is empirically

evident that teachers' behavior, classroom activities they use, and the teaching methods they adopt can be sources of motivation for language learners (Oxford, 1998). The second strategy is generating initial motivation where there is a chance to enhance students' second language related values and attitudes to increase their expectancy of success, goal orientation, and to create realistic learner belief about promoting self-motivation. Maintaining and protecting motivation is the third strategy. It includes making learning stimulating and enjoyable, presenting tasks in a motivating way, setting specific learner goals, and allowing learners to maintain a positive social image. While the last strategy, encouraging positive retrospective self-evaluation, includes promoting motivational attributions, providing motivational feedback, increasing learner satisfaction, and offering rewards and grades in a motivating manner (Alzieni, 2008).

### **3.6 Classroom Management Strategies**

Teachers need to have a mixture of abilities, strategies, and talents to deal with their classes successfully. Rimm-Kaufman and Sawyer (2004) pointed out that "teaching is an intensely psychological process and ... teachers' ability to maintain a productive classroom environment, motivate students, and make decisions depend on their personal abilities" (p. 322). In this respect, Brophy and Evertson (1976) indicated that the determinant of an effective classroom manager is that

...they kept their students actively engaged in productive classroom work most of the time, thus minimizing the amount of trouble that they had to deal with. They were more successful because they reduced the frequency of trouble, not because they were more skilled at dealing with trouble when it appeared." (p. 52).

Brophy (1983) also states that

the effective managers are successful not so much because they are more effective in responding to problems of inattention or disruption, but because they are more effective in preventing such problems from arising in the first place. (p. 33).

According to the above definitions, we can deduce that there are two key strategies to maintain order and discipline in the classroom. These strategies can be proactive or reactive which means "preventing behavioral problems from occurring and reacting to behavioral

problems that have occurred” (Anderson, 1991, p. 45). In a similar vein, Emmer (1994) conceptualizes teacher managerial behavior under the two strategies: preventive and reactive.

### **3.7 Preventive Management Strategies**

In an effort to foster academic achievement while promoting positive student behavior, there has been an increased interest in preventive (proactive) classroom management strategies grounded in social and emotional learning (SEL; Adams, 2013; Jennings & Greenberg, 2009). Preventive strategies are positive in nature. This is supported by Gettinger (1988) who pointed out that preventive classroom management is:

.fundamentally a process of establishing order in classrooms rather than responding to problems of disruptive or off task behaviour. Proactive methods are aimed at establishing and maintaining a system for productive classroom behavior rather than spotting and punishing individuals' misbehavior. (p.240).

In other words, preventive classroom management strategies emphasize the process of improving students' task engagement levels which will help reduce their interest in inappropriate and irrelevant activities. Kounin (1970) stated that “successful classrooms were defined as those having a high prevalence of work involvement and a low amount of misbehavior in learning settings.” (p. 4). In addition, Evertson and Harris (2003) claimed that “every minute spent in proactive classroom management, time actually spent teaching rules and procedures at the beginning of the year, pays off every day for the rest of the year” (p. 205). It can be said then that prevention-oriented approach to classroom management is more effective than a corrective or reactive approach. Therefore, it is wise for teachers to put much effort in setting up a proactive classroom management at the beginning of the school year since this will ultimately save time in the long run.

Kounin (1970) pursued classroom management issues in subsequent studies. In the process, he described the characteristics of successful classroom teachers with five basic concepts: withitness, overlapping, smoothness, group alerting and Challenge and variety in assignments.

- **Withitness:** this term is defined “...as a teacher’s communicating to the children by her actual behavior that she knows what the children are doing or has the proverbial eyes in back of her head.” (pp. 80-81). This characteristic emphasizes the anticipation of misbehavior and being aware of what is happening in all parts of the room by continuously scanning the classroom.
- **Overlapping:** This refers to “...what the teacher does when she has two matters to deal with at the same time.” (p.85). in other words, doing more than one thing at a time. For example, keeping eye contact while continuing the lesson without interruption in order to restore students’ attention.
- **Smoothness and momentum during lessons:** this characteristic refers to teaching well-prepared and briskly paced lessons. This means the management of activity movement, such as initiating, sustaining and terminating several activities in the classroom (Kounin, 1970).
- **Group alerting:** this refers to the “...degree to which a teacher attempts to involve non-reciting children in the recitation task, maintain their attention, and keep them ‘on their toes’ or alerted.” (Kounin, 1970, p. 1 17). In other words, teachers can use presentation and questioning techniques that keep the group alert and accountable, such as waiting and looking around before calling on someone to answer a question, avoiding predictability in choice of respondent (Brophy, 2011)
- **Challenge and variety in assignments:** Encouraging engagement in seatwork by providing varied assignments pitched at the optimal level of difficulty (Brophy, 2011).

Reactive measures without adequate prevention can significantly increase the amount of time a teacher spends to solve discipline issues (Brophy & Good, 2000). Therefore, the secret to management success is preventing students in the first place from becoming disruptive by maintaining the momentum of classroom activities and defeating potential problems before they could escalate. This will ultimately save time for teachers to maximize student attention and task engagement during activities.

According to Doyle (1985), Kounin's major contribution is that

...a teachers' success in classroom management, defined in terms of high levels of student involvement and low levels of disruption, depended on his or her ability to monitor and guide a complex classroom system. To accomplish this task, the successful managers were aware of what was happening in classrooms and were able to handle two or more simultaneous events, to sustain a group focus, and to keep the action moving along smoothly. (Doyle, 1985; p.31).

Kounin's (1970) major contribution to classroom management opened the door a number of studies related to preventive behavior strategies. Evertson and Anderson (1980) stressed the role of preventive behavior strategies indicating the fact that establishing classroom rules at the beginning of the school year is a major dimension to prevent misbehavior. They pointed out that "...beginnings of year activities are especially important in determining the level of pupil co-operation during the remainder of the year" (p.220). This means that teachers, especially novices, need to be careful and firm with the class at the beginning of the school year until students learn how to behave appropriately. According to Evertson and Anderson (1980), among the main characteristics of effective teachers are "...they monitored students carefully and when disruptive behavior occurred they stopped it promptly" (p.225). They added that:

...the more effective teacher managers clearly established themselves as the classroom leaders. They worked on rules and procedures until the children learned them.... By the end of the first three weeks, these classes were ready for the rest of the year. (p.225).

In other words, effective classroom management begins with advance planning and preparation at the beginning of the school year. Teachers should plan and implement routines the first day of school in order to begin the year effectively with less inappropriate behavior and low off task rates. Evertson (1989) emphasized that "...solving managerial and organizational problems at the beginning of the year is essential in laying groundwork for quality learning opportunities for students." (p.90). This was also supported by Gettinger (1988) who indicated that:

...the beginning of the year is a critical time for establishing effective classroom management. What teachers do to establish a productive classroom climate and to orient students in the first few days of school is a predictor of long term classroom management and teaching success.... (p. 235).

Establishing a set of classroom rules the first weeks of the school year is one of the most important components of preventive behavior management strategies. McGinnis, Frederic and Edwards (1995) state that, "...schools require rules to function efficiently and effectively. Proactive classroom management strategies rely on the establishment of classroom rules as a means of preventing problem behavior." (p.220). classroom rules have been defined by different researchers as: "behavioral standards, norms and behavioral expectations to describe the agreements teachers and students make regarding the types of behaviors that help a classroom be a safe community of support." (Jones & Jones, 1998, p. 241). While Boostrom (1991) defined them as "do's and don'ts of classroom life. All those guidelines for action and for the evaluation of action that the teacher expresses or implies through word or deed." (p. 194).

According to the above definitions, classroom rules are guidelines designed to clearly communicate the desired behaviors to students and identify replacement behaviors for existing problems. The extent to which students know the rules and how to follow the rules is positively correlated with appropriate behavior (Rosenberg, 1986). In another hand, Doyle (1990) suggests that the rule making process is not only making a list of directives, but teachers should understand what they are trying to orchestrate in each phase of the lesson. in addition, Boostrom (1991) claimed that roughly four types of rules exist in the classroom. These are "...rules about non-academic procedures, how to do classroom work, ...relationships with others in the classroom, and rules embedded in the subject matter." (p. 194). Therefore, in order to achieve a predefined purpose, the teaching process should be managed by specific rules. Without these rules or guidelines it would be difficult to survive in the classroom and also difficult to orchestrate several classroom activities at the same time without any distraction.

McGinnis et al. (1995) argue that "students should be involved in the creation of rules. At this point, communication between teacher and student is of utmost importance." (p. 222). This means that building good relationship with students is necessary. Weinstein (2007)

maintains that “when students perceive their teachers to be supportive and caring, they are more likely to engage in cooperative, responsible behavior and adhere to classroom rules and norms” (p. 7). She added that “classroom management is fundamentally about interpersonal relationships, about connecting with students, conveying a sense of caring, and building community” (p. xix). In other words, instead of imposing rules on students, teachers should involve them in the rule making process. Giving students the chance to help make classroom rules is a great way for them to understand what is acceptable and is not. They may feel more involved and inclined to follow rules that they themselves have laid out without it feeling like they are being forced into behaving well.

The role of students in the rule making process is of crucial importance. Docking (1993) argues that “...rules can be profitably negotiated rather than just explained.” (p. 172). He also states that students’ “... sense of security depends on a clear understanding of what is to count as appropriate and inappropriate behavior....” (p. 172). Thus, effective classroom management requires maintaining positive teacher-student relationships where rules are explained, discussed and negotiated to ensure a peaceful and smooth teaching-learning process. In this respect, Sanford, Emmer and Clements (1983) clarify effective teachers’ characteristics with regard to rules. They pointed out that:

effective classroom managers carefully taught students how to follow classroom procedures and rules. They explained, discussed, rationales, demonstrated, had students rehearse or practice, gave accurate feedback, and reviewed or re-taught as needed. (p. 57).

To sum up, classroom rules appear to play a crucial role in the smooth management of the classroom. Therefore, teachers should brainstorm classroom rules with students at the beginning of the school year so that students know what is expected of them and in the same time feel responsible for following them. This is an important step that teachers, especially novices, should take because it makes students part of the behavioral process and they will be more inclined to follow the rules they helped create.

### 3.8 Reactive Management Strategies

Although the prevention-oriented approach to classroom management is more effective than the corrective or reactive one, in several circumstances, teachers find themselves obliged to intervene in order to end students' disruption and maintain smooth teaching and learning processes.

In this respect, Doyle (1986) stated that this is one of the essential roles and responsibilities that teachers should undertake in the classroom to keep order and maximize learning. However, Emmer (1994) considered that teacher's use reactive behavior management strategies, show fluctuation from less time or effort, such as eye contact and facial expression, to verbal intervention which is more time consuming. Similarly, Doyle (1986) maintains that interventions:

...call attention to potentially disruptive behavior and they initiate a program of action that ironically can pull the class further away from the primary vector and weaken its function in holding order in place.  
(p. 421).

In other words, teachers' intervention to end misbehavior can affect the learning environment. In this respect, Kounin (1970) used the concept of 'ripple effect' to explain teachers' intervention side effect. He maintains that "how a teacher's method of handling the misbehavior of one child influences other children who are audiences to the event but not themselves targets." (p.2). Therefore, creating a relaxing classroom environment is one of the most important points that lead to successful classroom management. Weinstein and Mignano (1997) examined teachers' intervention strategies to end pupils' misbehavior. These strategies are divided into three categories: non-verbal interventions, verbal interventions and ignoring the misbehavior. The description of these strategies and their advantages are shown in the following table:

**Table 3.3:** Dealing with Minor Misbehavior (Weinstein and Mignano, 1997, p. 105)

Strategy	Advantages
1. Non-verbal interventions: Facial expressions Eye contact Hand signals Proximity	Allow you to prompt appropriate behavior without disrupting lesson. Encourage students to assume responsibility for changing behavior
2. Verbal interventions: Direct command Stating student's name Rule reminder Calling on child to participate Incorporating child's name into Use of gentle humor I-message	Straightforward Brief, unobtrusive Reinforces desired behavior Gets student back on task without even citing the misbehavior; maintains flow of lesson Prompts a smile along with appropriate behavior Minimizes negative evaluations and preserves relationships Points out consequences of behavior Promotes students' autonomy and responsibility for actions
3. Ignoring the misbehavior	Unobtrusive; protects the flow of the lesson

Weinstein and Mignano (1997) stated that “non-verbal interventions not only allow you to deal with these misbehaviors, they enable you to protect and continue your lesson.” (p. 106). In other words, non-verbal intervention strategies help teachers avoiding the distraction of students’ concentration while handling misbehavior. Weinstein and Mignano (1997) state that non-verbal interventions, such as whispering, staring into space, calling out, wandering around the classroom and passing notes, are very suitable especially for mild misbehavior. Therefore, if a teacher is required to intervene in order to end misbehavior non-verbal strategies are the best. Among the non-verbal interventions used by teachers, proximity, eye contact and touch are the most effective ones. In this regard, Wheldall et al. (1986) stated that

in a sense non-verbal factors such as touch, eye contact and proximity are an emotional bridge between verbal behavior and physical action. Empty praise is meaningless but accompanied by proximity, eye contact and/or touch it re-evokes its association with primary reinforces such as creature contact (hugs, kisses, etc.) (similarly, continual empty nagging reprimands can safely be ignored, but if the teacher comes near, glares and /or touches, the threat of physical punishment is clearly evoked.) Touch would seem to be a particularly powerful variable in this respect and deserves further analysis and experimentation to refine its use as a reinforcer in classroom management. (p. 216).

Weinstein and Mignano (1997) indicated that if the misbehavior is not very serious, using non-directive verbal intervention by simply calling a pupil's name is generally enough to get pupils back on task. However, when non-verbal interventions to end misbehavior are insufficient, verbal intervention can then be used as a way of dealing with misbehavior. This means that the strategies chosen should depend on the severity of students' misbehavior. This was supported by Rosen et al. (1990) who added that

...(1) verbal responses are more popular because teachers perceive them to be more effective; (2) verbal responses require the least amount of time and effort to be implement; (3) at least with regard to inappropriate behavior, teachers may not feel comfortable with concrete measures such as punishment or response costs or they are simply not assertive enough to impose concrete consequences; and (4) use of concrete consequences may be reserved as a backup for some teachers when verbal response don't work. (p. 268).

When pupils show further disruption, punishments becomes necessary and required because sometimes 'actions speak louder than words'. Burden (1995) defined punishment as an "...act of imposing a penalty with the intention of suppressing undesirable behavior." (p. 303). Usually, teachers' punishments take the form of detention, time-out or loss of privileges. This latter is known as 'response cost'. According to Docking (1996), the aim of this technique is:

...to prompt offenders to reflect whether the illegitimate enjoyment derived from misbehaving is worth the cost of losing opportunities which can be legitimately enjoyed. The technique is therefore technically known as ‘response cost’. (p. 85).

Although punishment techniques can be seen to be solving managerial confrontation, they usually result in decreased opportunities to develop healthy student-teacher relationships, decreased learning experiences for individual students as well as the entire class, in addition to the failure to provide a positive, safe and stimulating environment where pupils can learn and develop. Therefore, today’s teachers need to remember that flexibility is necessary to meet the differential behavior needs of diverse students.

Another investigation was done by Harrop and Williams (1992) who studied teachers’ usage of punishments in school. Teachers and students were given 10 types of punishments. Students were required to evaluate the effectiveness of punishments, while teachers were asked to evaluate the usage of punishments. The results are demonstrated in the following table table 3.4

**Table 3.4:** Pupils and Teachers Perception of Punishments (Harrop & Williams, 1992, p.213)

Mean order of effectiveness as ranked by pupils	Mean order of usage as ranked by teachers
1. Parents informed about naughty behavior	1. Being told off in front of the class
2. Being stopped from going on a school trip	2. Parents informed about naughty behavior
3. Being sent to see the head teacher	3. Being told off in private
4. Being told off in front of the class	4. Teacher explaining what is wrong with your
5. Teacher explaining what is wrong with your	behavior in private
behavior in front of the class	5. Teacher explaining what is wrong with your
6. Teacher explaining what is wrong with your	behavior in front of the class
behavior in private	6. Being sent to see the head teacher
7. Taking unfinished work home	7. Kept in at playtime
8. Being told off in private	8. Being moved to another seat in the classroom
9. Kept in at playtime	9. Being stopped from going on a school trip
10. Being moved to another seat in the classroom	10. Taking unfinished work home

The above table shows that there is a slight difference between teachers’ and students’ perceptions regarding the effectiveness of punishment techniques. Rosen et al. (1990) found

that most school teachers prefer to use verbal behavior management techniques, rather than concrete consequences. They claimed that:

verbal procedures may be more attractive to teachers than concrete procedures for a number of reasons. One possibility is that teachers truly believe that verbal responses are more effective than concrete ones. Another possible reason is that carrying out concrete consequences is perceived by teachers as taking more time and effort than making a quick verbal response. (Rosen et al., 1990, p. 263).

### **3.9 Classroom Management Approaches and Models**

The body of literature on classroom management crosses over several disciplines (education, sociology, psychology, anthropology). Therefore, scholars categorize different classroom management approaches based on the different aspects of classroom management. Wolfgang and Glickman (1986) proposed a model of classroom interaction and discipline which is demonstrated in the following table (see Table 3.5). Their model in which classroom management strategies are classified as interventionist, non-interventionist, or interactionalist illustrates a continuum.

According to this model, interventionist teachers -at one end of this continuum- believe that students learn appropriate behaviors when this latter is reinforced by teachers' rewards and punishments. Therefore, they contend that teachers need to exercise a high degree of control over classroom activities. In the middle, interactionalist teachers believe that students learn appropriate behaviors when encountering the outside world of objects and people. Consequently, interactionalists indicate that teachers and students should share responsibility for classroom management. At the other end of this continuum, non-interventionists teachers believe that students have an inner drive that needs to find its expression in the real world. As a result, non-interventionists propose that students should be allowed to exercise significant influence in the classroom while teachers should be less involved in adjusting students' behaviors.

**Table 3.5:** Classroom Management Models (Wolfgang & Glickman 1986, p. 16)

<b>Interventionist</b>	<b>Interactionalist</b>	<b>Non-interventionist</b>
Teacher has primary responsibility for control	Student and teacher share responsibility for control	Students have primary responsibility for control
Teacher develops the rules	Teacher develops the rules with some	Students develop the rules with teacher guidance
Primary focus in on behavior	Initial focus in on behavior, followed by thoughts and feelings	Primary focus is on thoughts and feelings
Minor emphasis on individual differences in students	Moderate emphasis on individual differences in students	Major emphasis on individual differences in students
Teacher moves quickly to contro behavior	Teacher allows some time for students to control behavior, but teacher protects right of the group	Teacher allows time for students to control behavior
Types of interventions are rewards, punishments, token economy	Types of interventions are consequences and class meetings	Types of interventions are non-verbal cues and individual conferences

Like Wolfgang and Glickman (1986), considering the degree of teacher control as an organizer, Burden (1995, p. 30) grouped the different classroom management approaches under three main headings:

1. The Intervening Model which consists of high control approaches includes Behavior Modification, Assertive Discipline, Positive Discipline, and Behaviorism and Punishment
2. The Interacting Model which are medium-control approaches include Logical Consequences, Cooperative Discipline, Positive Classroom Discipline, Non-coercive Discipline, Discipline with Dignity, and Judicious Discipline.
3. The Guiding Model which can also be called as low-control approaches include Congruent Communication, Group Management, Discipline as Self-Control, Teaching with Love and Logic, Inner Discipline and from Discipline to Community.

Burden (1995) indicated that the most useful organizer for classroom management is the degree of control that teacher exerts on students and the classroom as a whole. Therefore, Levin, Nolan, Kerr, & Elliot (2005), in their turn, describe three main theories of classroom

management as teacher-directed, collaborative, and student-directed. This latter believes that students have the primary responsibility for controlling their behaviors. However, in a teacher-directed classroom management, the teacher assumes primary responsibility of controlling students' behavior. As for Collaborative management, it is believed that the control of student behavior is the joint responsibility of both teachers and students. This latter allows students to become effective decision – makers by internalizing rules and guidelines for behavior. Levin et al. (2005) describe the models as three points on a continuum that move from student – directed toward teacher- directed practices. The points may be thought of as the beliefs that teachers hold to subscribe to a particular method, or a combination of methods. The aforementioned theories are outlined in the following table.

**Table 3.6:** Classroom Management Models (Levin, et al. 2005).

<b>Question</b>	<b>Student-Directed</b>	<b>Collaborative</b>	<b>Teacher Directed</b>
Primary responsibility for management	Student	Joint	Teacher
Goal of management	Caring community focus and self-direction	Respectful relationships, academic focus	Well-organized, efficient, academic focus
Time spent on management	Valuable and productive	Valuable for individual but not for group	Wasted time
Relationships within management system	Caring personal Relationships	Respect for each other	Non- interference with each other's rights
Teacher power bases	Referent, expert	Expert, legitimate	Reward! coercive

When speaking about classroom management, a number of issues need to be considered. For example, we need to consider the issue of classroom management from the standpoint of reducing discipline problems and dealing with misbehavior ,as well as examining the interaction pattern that exists in the classroom and to note the extent and the means of teachers' control and direction of all the activities undertaken in the classroom.

Another study about classroom management was undertaken by Lippitt and White (1958, as cited in Kasinath, 2001) who examined the leadership styles of youth leaders,

highlighting a threefold typology: Authoritarian, Democratic, and laissez- faire. The main characteristics of these three leadership styles are presented in table (3.7).

**Table 3.7:** Threefold Typology of Classroom Management (Lippitt and White, 1958, cited in Kasinath, 2001, p. 30)

<b>Authoritarian</b>	<b>Democratic</b>	<b>Laissez-faire</b>
1. All determination of policy by leader.	1. All policies a matter of group discussion and decision encourage and assist by leader.	1. Complete freedom of group or individual decision, with a minimum of leader participation.
2. Techniques and activity steps dictate by the authority, one at a time, so that future steps are always uncertain to a large degree.	2. Activity perspective gain during discussion period. General steps to group goal sketch, and, where technical advice is needed, the leader suggests two or more alternative procedures from which choice could be made.	2. Various material supplies by the leader, who make it clear that he could supply information when asked. Leader takes no other part in work discussion.
3. The leader usually dictates the particular task and work companion of each member.	3. The members are free to work with whomever they chose, and the division of task is left up to the group.	3. Complete non participation of the leader.
4. The dominator tends to be personal in his praise and criticism of the work of each member, remaining aloof from active group- participation except when demonstrating.	4. The leader is objective or fact minded in his praise and criticism and try to be a regular group member in sprit without dong too much of the work.	4. Infrequent spontaneous comments on member activities unless questioned and no attempt to appraise or regulate the course of events.

Traditional classrooms are usually described as teacher-centered classrooms that are affected by the principles of the behaviorist approach. Students are often viewed as the recipients of knowledge and the teacher has the full control over them and the subject matter. The behavioral model requires strong intrusion and management techniques on the part of the

teacher (Garrett, 2005). Teacher is the dominant person in the classroom and has the responsibility of all ongoing issues in the classroom; from students' motivation to misbehaviors. Behaviorism essentially forces external controls over the student to shape his or her behaviors in a desirable way (Lerner, 2003). Therefore, teachers exert control over students and leave no room for their intervention.

Traditionally, student behavior management has heavily depended on behaviorism theory, which mainly focuses on modifying individual behavior to lead the student to build positive behavior in the classroom using rewards and punishments as reinforcement. Teacher's job is to mediate the environment where possible, and by incorporating a reward and punishment approach to redirect the student's behavior when needed. From the perspective of behaviorism, teachers can easily reach the conclusion that student misbehaviors can be decreased by rewards or punishments. However, in these teacher-centered classrooms students are passive learners and compliance is valued rather than initiative (Freiberg, 1999). Thus, some scholars have criticized this approach because of the passive role of students.

Many educators contend that the fundamental deficiency in behaviorism lies in the lack of learners' initiative within the learning process (Freiberg, 1999). This gives birth to student-centered classroom management approaches. This latter places the learner at the center of classroom management models. Everston and Neal (2006) point out that beneficial classroom management can be achieved by shifting its emphasis from controlling students' behavior to creating learning centered classrooms that foster students' engagement, autonomy, and sense of community by giving them progressively more responsibility under the teacher's careful guidance.

Since educators recently have been affected by the principles of cognitive theory and constructivism which emphasize the importance of learners' construction of knowledge, today's classrooms are more student-centered (learning-centered). Constructivist teachers encourage and accept student autonomy, allow student responses to drive lessons, shift instructional strategies, and alter content (Brooks & Brooks, 1993). Metcalf (1999) suggests the "solution focused approach" (p. 5) in which the teacher does not solve the problems for students. Instead, the teacher lets the students' competencies guide them to solutions. She points out that "this approach lends itself to a more collaborative relationship that often results in a student feeling as if the teacher is on his/her side" (p. 5). Metcalf (1999) suggested some

examples to demonstrate the difference between the solution-focused approach and the behavior-modification approach. These examples can be demonstrated in the following table:

**Table 3.8:** Behavior-Modification Approach and a Solution-Focused Approach

	<b>Behavior-Modification Approach</b>	<b>Solution-Focused Approach</b>
<b>High School Students</b>	“Sue, I know you are a good student and I enjoy having you in my class. However, your homework grades are low but your tests are passing. You must bring up your homework grade to pass this semester”	“Sue, your test grades are excellent. I notice in my grade book that you turned in more homework assignments the first six weeks of this semester. What were you doing then that helped you to turn in the assignments?  What were we doing in class that helped you to complete them?”

The solution-focused approach; therefore, guides students to have collaborative relationships with their teachers. This environment would encourage self-discipline and reinforce individual choice and responsibility. In addition, it helps create a collaborative relationship between teachers and students which will often result in students feeling as if their teachers are on their side. Similar to Metcalf, Rogers and Freiberg (1994) summarized the differences between student-centered and teacher-centered to classroom management based on the locus of control in the classroom:

**Table 3.9:** Discipline Comparison in Teacher-Centered and in Person-Centered Classrooms, (Rogers & Freiberg 1994, p. 240)

Teacher-centered	Person-centered
Teacher is the sole leader	Leadership is shared
Management is a form of oversight	Management is a form of guidance
Teacher takes responsibility for all of the paperwork and organization	Students are facilitators for the operations of the classroom
Discipline comes from the teacher	Discipline comes from the self
A few students are the teacher's helpers	All students have the opportunity to become an integral part of the management of the classroom
Teacher makes the rules and posts them for all students	Rules are developed by the teacher and students in the form of a constitution or compact
Consequences are fixed for all students	Consequences reflect individual differences
Rewards are mostly extrinsic	Rewards are mostly intrinsic
Students are allowed limited responsibilities	Students share in classroom responsibilities
Few members of the community enter the classroom	Partnerships are formed with business and community groups to enrich and broaden the learning opportunities for students

In today's classrooms, it would be difficult to say that a teacher has just student-centered approach or teacher-centered one. However, the above comparison between the two approaches is very useful to discover which orientation is dominant on the teacher's classroom management approach. Although teachers' approaches to classroom management can differ, what should be emphasized is that classrooms need to be a safe and welcoming place that provides the necessary academic, as well as emotional and social supports that students require for a successful learning.

Leinhardt (1992) maintains that interactive instructional approaches bring about crucial changes in the dynamics of the classroom. While teachers' role changes from a controller of all aspects of the learning process to a facilitator and a resource person who coach, give feedback and provide the needed assistance, students' role changes from passive recipient of

knowledge to active participant in the construction of knowledge (Brophy, 1999; Larrivee, 1999). This shift in teachers' and students' roles and classroom environments necessitate a change in classroom management techniques. The main objective of classroom management in student-centered classrooms is to allow teachers to actively engage students in learning, encourage self-regulation, and build community (Evertson & Neal, 2006). In other words, teachers decrease their control over students and the learning environment in order to create a democratic learning community where students feel themselves safe and improve their social skills.

According to McCaslin and Good (1992), classroom management can and should be one vehicle for the enhancement of student self-understanding, self-evaluation, and the internalization of self-control. This means that classroom management should not orient students towards passivity as this will be an impediment for achievement of the learning outcomes. However, certain basic classroom management principles such as clarifying what students are expected to do at the beginning of the school year, and careful planning of activities before the lesson, appear to apply across all potential instructional approaches (Brophy, 1999). According to social constructivists, students' personal identity is developed when classrooms are organized as places where students have a sense of ownership and where they feel they belong. Savage (1999) indicated that feelings of ownership and personal identity are enhanced by allowing students to participate in the decision-making of the grouping of desks, the use of classroom space, and room decorations.

In her discussions about humanist-inspired approaches, Gunn (2003) pointed out that "Lozanov believed that students could learn language faster and more effectively if they were in a relaxed, comfortable environment, which would allow them to overcome their fears and self-imposed barriers to learning" (p. 29). This means that humanists are more concerned with the fullest growth of the individual in the areas of fulfillment, self-worth, and autonomy. In this respect, Brooks & Brooks (1993) indicated that constructivist teachers encourage and accept student autonomy, allow student responses to drive lessons, shift instructional strategies, and alter content.

Herron (1983) points out that "proponents of humanistic foreign language education have argued that studying a foreign language in a warm, supportive environment and applying student-centered techniques can mobilize a student's self-awareness as well as refine thinking and develop linguistic skills" (p. 535). This means that students' learning is most effective in

student-centered classrooms where students are encouraged to develop their own meaning. Webb, Metha, and Jordan (2007) added that “the progressivist teacher would foster a classroom environment that practices democracy and emphasizes citizenship” (p. 79). In other words, the classroom atmosphere should reflect democratic and cooperative learning environment with less emphasis on control and more focus on community building. Such environment would encourage self-discipline and reinforce individual choice and responsibility.

### **3.10 Teacher Efficacy and Classroom Management**

Woolfolk, Rosoff, and Hoy (1990) indicate that teachers’ sense of efficacy appears to be related to teacher approaches to classroom management. Brauwers and Tomic (2000) define perceived teacher self-efficacy in classroom management as teachers’ beliefs in their abilities and capabilities to organize and execute courses of action required to maintain classroom order. Emmer and Hickman (1991) suggested that high teacher efficacy in classroom management predicted preferences for certain teacher strategies to manage situations, such as: encouraging students to expand more effort, providing praise as well as helping students develop goals to become successful.

Brouwers and Tomic (2000) proposed that people who have doubts in their abilities in particular domain of activity are quick to consider such activities as threats, which they prefer to avoid. Novice teachers who doubted their abilities to maintain classroom order could not avoid this key factor. Teachers who lack confidence in their classroom management preparedness are confronted by their incompetence every day. In the same time, they understand the importance of competence if they are going to perform well and help their students achieve their educational goals (Brouwers & Tomic, 2000). This type of conflict can lead to distress and impact instructional and behavioral strategies that teachers use to establish and maintain order in their classrooms.

### **3.11 Class Over-crowdedness**

Overcrowded classes are an on-going concern and challenge for teachers. Most Algerian classrooms seem overcrowded both in urban and rural areas and across grades and school stages (i.e., primary, middle and high schools). As a general rule, an average of forty students

per class is recorded in most secondary schools across the region of Biskra. Over crowdedness represents a real challenge for novice teachers as they need to organize their courses around a project that requires students to work in groups. As a result, teachers spend most of their time trying to settle disputes, sooth feelings and bring calm to the classroom. This takes away time from learning and impacts on the teacher's lesson. According to Onwu and Stoffels (2005), overcrowded classes give rise to a number of constraints that impacts teachers, these are:

- Lack of physical space for movement around the classroom
- Diminished opportunities for learners to participate actively in the learning process
- The impersonalizing of teaching
- Excessive workload for teachers
- Limited opportunities to meet individual learner needs for self-activity, inquiry, motivation, discipline, safety and socialization.

Overcrowded classrooms affect the time teachers give to individual students as well as the classroom dynamics. According to Mtika (2010), large classes leave teachers with only one choice of using convenient teaching methods that require students to remain passive recipients of knowledge during lessons. This situation limits teacher-student interaction which is a critical component for the teaching and learning process. It is through teacher-student interaction that teachers can actually assess and determine learners' needs and the difficulties they face. Besides, in this situation, discipline problems will be posed and individualization of language teaching will be difficult if not impossible. Overcrowded classes cannot be managed or controlled and teachers' efforts to organize them will always doom to failure and demotivation as put by Harmer (1991, p. 5) "classrooms that are badly lit and overcrowded can be excessively demotivating". As a result of overcrowding in classrooms, the quality of education is thus lowered and the learning environment is negatively affected.

Overcrowded classrooms not only affect learners' performance but also teachers' as well. Herzallah (2011) noted that teachers in Northern Gaza believed that overcrowded classrooms are one of the most voiced professional development obstacles. Teachers can develop as they gain teaching experience; however working in overcrowded classrooms can hinder teachers from achieving their goals in becoming effective teachers. In addition, teaching in overcrowded classrooms can be overwhelming, stressful and frustrating and this can increase the likelihood of teachers' burnout and attrition.

### **3.12 Conclusion**

The need to place emphasis on the importance of novice teachers possessing effective classroom management skills and deploying these skills as daily routine practice of their professional life in the 21<sup>st</sup> century cannot be greater at this time. Through this chapter, we attempted to provide a detailed explanation of classroom management to help better understand this concept then we tried to provide an overview of the available approaches, models and strategies of classroom management that novice teachers should be trained on. In addition, we stressed the importance of classroom management for novice teachers and how it can affect students' motivation and teacher efficacy. It was also argued that classroom management has challenged novice teachers since schools began and will likely to continue to be a central concern in the future as well. Therefore, it is time for teacher training programs to focus on classroom management so that novice teachers are prepared to be both effective instructors and effective managers. This will make the first years of teaching a better and more rewarding experience for both teachers and students.

## **Chapter Four: Research Methodology**

### **4.1 Introduction**

The present thesis is a qualitative study which aims to explore the attitudes of novice teachers of English about their teacher training. Therefore, this chapter presents the different steps that were undertaken towards investigating this phenomenon. First, the chapter provides a comprehensive introduction to research, its different types and its objectives. Then it highlights the methodology that underpinned the study. Next, it determines the nature of case study. It discusses the population and sampling strategies. This is followed by a section that deals with triangulation, discusses the methods used for data collection and describes the data collection procedures. After that, it describes the process of data analysis. Finally, it highlights issues of bias and ethics.

### **4.2 Research Introduction**

Research can be defined as a systematic work undertaken to search for knowledge. It entails the collection, organization and analysis of information using a suitable scientific methodology to increase the understanding of a particular topic or issue. According to Rajasekar *et al.* (2006, p.1) research is defined as: “a logical and systematic search for new and useful information on a particular topic. It is an investigation of finding solutions to scientific and social problems through objective and systematic analysis”. This definition stresses the systematicity and the objectivity of research. Goddard & Melville (2007) state that:

Research is not just a process of gathering information, as is sometimes suggested. Rather, it is about answering unanswered questions or creating that which does not currently exist. In many ways, research can be seen as a process of expanding the boundaries of our ignorance. (p. 1)

Furthermore, Randall (2015) corroborates that:

“Scientific research involves going beyond the well-tested ideas and theories that form the core of scientific knowledge. During the time scientists are working things out, some results will be right, and others will be wrong. Over time, the right results will emerge”.

Based on the above definitions of research, we can conclude that research is a process that involves a series of organized actions to discover answers to questions and establish facts and principles. But to qualify as research, the process should fulfill certain characteristics. Gupta and Gupta (2011, pp. 7-8) have listed out the following characteristics of research:

- ◆ Controlled;
- ◆ Rigorous ;
- ◆ Systematic;
- ◆ Valid and verifiable;
- ◆ Critical ;
- ◆ Empirical;
- ◆ Objectivity;
- ◆ Generalizability;
- ◆ Free from personal bias;
- ◆ Reproducible (replicable).

During the course of this chapter, we would like to communicate to stakeholders and other potential readers our intention to provide a work whose findings are trustworthy. Basically, research methodology which is rigorous about scientific procedures provides feasible results and interpretation. In addition, systematicity is a major feature for a sound research methodology.

### **4.3 Types of Research**

Research methodologists broadly classified research into quantitative and qualitative. These two constructs are also known as positivist/experimental and descriptive/interpretive. Basically, the type of research is determined by the nature of the subject matter under investigation. Differently stated, it is the scope and drive of the researched topic that determine whether the researcher should undertake an empirical research to test the significance of his/her hypothesis or a simple study that relies on the description and interpretation of the subject matter. The researcher should establish a paradigm that allows him/her best find answers to the research questions.

#### **4.3.1 Quantitative Research**

Quantitative research as its label indicates, is concerned with the measurement and production of quantities or amounts. Thus quantitative research is “applicable to those phenomena that can be expressed in quantity” (Gupta & Gupta, 2011). Therefore, when conducting a quantitative research, the researcher’s major concern is to yield accurate measurements of the topic he/she investigates. Besides, this kind of research favors experimentation with the view of coming up with positive amount measurements. Bowling (2002) points out that:

The experiment is a situation in which the independent variable (also known as the exposure, the intervention, the experimental or predictor variable) is carefully manipulated by the investigator under known, tightly defined and controlled conditions, or by natural occurrence. At its most basic, the experiment consists of an experimental group which is exposed to the intervention under investigation and a control group which is not exposed. The experimental and control groups should be equivalent, and investigated systematically under conditions that are identical (apart from the exposure of the experimental group), in order to minimize variation between them. (p. 216)

To conclude, quantitative research which investigates general trends across population and focuses on numerical data is widely used in exact sciences like mathematics and physics. It is only recently that it has been adopted in social sciences (sociology, psychology and anthropology) and cognitive sciences (linguistics and neuro-sciences). Our research which investigates novice teachers' attitudes does not undertake to conduct a quantitative research as it is argued that researching teachers' attitudes and perceptions are not easily amenable to quantitative measurement, and therefore it is suggested that a qualitative approach would be more appropriate to study this construct (Pajares, 1992). This study also took this stance to justify the choice of a qualitative approach.

### 4.3.2 Qualitative Research

In comparison with quantitative research, qualitative research is rather popular in social sciences. It is non-numerical, descriptive and applies reasoning. According to Hancock (2007, p. 7), qualitative research is concerned with “developing explanations of social phenomena” which occur naturally and without attempting to manipulate the situation under study. Qualitative research attempts to provide deep insights about social phenomena. Hancock *et al.* (2007, p.1) maintains that “Qualitative research attempts to broaden and/or deepen our understanding of how things came to be the way they are in our social world”. In addition, qualitative research is designed to find out people' attitudes or opinions i.e., how they feel or what they think about a particular subject.

Mack *et al.* (2005, p. 1) listed out five features which appear to characterize qualitative research, the latter:

- seeks answers to a question;
- Uses systematically a predefined set of procedures to answer the question
- collects evidence;
- produces results that are not determined in advance;
- produces results that can be applied beyond the immediate boundaries of the study.

The present study adheres to qualitative research methodology in that:

- It does not involve an explicit experimentation
- The ultimate goal is to provide descriptions, interpretations and analysis rather than quantified data.

#### 4.4 Quantitative versus Qualitative

Even though it may seem naïve to delineate the differences between quantitative and qualitative research so definitively, it is helpful to understand the nature of each type with respect to the current research. The table below, which is drawn by Mack et al. (2005, p.3) in their article *Qualitative Research Methods: a Data Collector's Field Guide*, outlines the features characterizing each philosophy under investigation.

**Table 4.1:** Comparison of Quantitative and Qualitative Research Approaches (Mack et al.2005, p.3)

	<b>Quantitative</b>	<b>Qualitative</b>
<b>General framework</b>	Seek to confirm hypotheses about Phenomena Instruments use more rigid style of eliciting and categorizing responses to questions Use highly structured methods such as questionnaires, surveys, and structured observation	Seek to explore phenomena Instruments use more flexible, iterative style of eliciting and categorizing responses to questions Use semi-structured methods such as in-depth interviews, focus groups, and participant observation
<b>Analytical objective</b>	To quantify variation To predict causal relationships To describe characteristics of a Population	To describe variation To describe and explain relationships To describe individual experiences To describe group norms
<b>Format question</b>	Closed-ended	Open-ended
<b>Data format</b>	Numerical (obtained by assigning numerical values to responses)	Textual (obtained from audiotapes, videotapes, and field notes)
<b>Flexibility in study design</b>	Study design is stable from beginning to end Participant responses do not influence or determine how and which questions researchers ask next Study design is subject to statistical assumptions and conditions	Some aspects of the study are flexible (for example, the addition, exclusion, or wording of particular interview questions) Participant responses affect how and which questions researchers ask next Study design is iterative, that is, data collection and research questions are adjusted according to what is learned

Unlike quantitative research, qualitative research is fairly flexible in that participants receive the same question items and it is the researcher's mission to provide meaningful comparison of the answers. Mack et al. (2005) have drawn a comprehensive evaluation frame for the two approaches that extend from analytical objectives to flexibility criteria. Moreover, Marvasti (2004, p. 12) adapted Bamberger (1999) comparison of quantitative and qualitative methods and outlines other completing criteria that distinguish the two research perspectives from a sociological point of view in which he considers the selection of research participants, data collection, data analysis, and the role of conceptual framework.

**Table 4.2:** Qualitative and Quantitative Methods (Marvasti, 2004, p.12)

<b>Research activity</b>	<b>Quantitative</b>	<b>Qualitative</b>
Selection of research Participants	Random sampling	Theoretical or purposive Sampling
Data collection	Pre-coded surveys or other formulaic techniques	Direct, fluid, observational Techniques
Data analysis	Statistical analysis aimed at highlighting universal cause and effect relationships	Analysis focused on context-specific meanings and social practices
The role of conceptual Framework	Separates theory from Methods	Views theory and methods as inseparable

The distinction between quantitative and qualitative approaches has often dominated discourse on research; however, it should not be thought of them as philosophical or methodological opposites. Rather, they are different ways of doing research with the common goal of exploring and generating knowledge. It is argued that the relationship of qualitative and quantitative can best be seen as complementary rather than competitive (Nunan, 1992; Wiliam, 1999; Evans, 2000). Thus, no one methodology is superior to the other, rather they complete each other.

## 4.5 Research Objectives

The primary focus of research studies is usually expressed in terms of aims and objectives. Goddard & Melville (2007, p.3) corroborate that “Good research is ‘systematic’ in that it is planned, organized and has a specific goal”. Research has at least four objectives: to gain an understanding and awareness of the subject matter under investigation, provide accurate description of the topic, answer the research questions and test the research hypotheses.

The objectives of the present study can be summarized as follows:

- It aims to add theory on novice teachers’ attitudes through an exploration of EFL novice teachers’ attitudes in Algeria.
- It aims to draw out implications for EFL teacher training and development in Algeria.
- It aims to provide a medium through which EFL novice teachers in Algeria can express their needs, concerns and challenges and share their experiences with other communities of teaching in Algeria and worldwide.
- It aims to sensitize stakeholders to the need to improve the teaching quality through effective teacher training programs.

## 4.6 The Nature of Research Methodology

Research methodology refers to the various ways and procedures used to collect data about a particular subject. According to Robson (1997), research methodology is defined as the procedural framework within which the research is conducted. Nachmias and Nachmias (1996), refer to research methodology as a system of explicit rules and principles which research is based upon and against which claims for knowledge are evaluated. Accordingly, research methodology indicates the multiple steps adopted by the researcher alongside the logic behind incorporating them for accomplishing particular objectives.

Research methodology and research method are two terms that represent a source of confusion for most researchers because they are often treated synonymously, even though they do not mean the same in academia. Therefore, understanding the difference between methodology and method is of paramount importance. Simply put, research methods are the

practical tools and techniques used to collect data, whereas research methodology is the general principles behind research. Rajasekaret *al.* (2006, p.2) pointed out the main differences between the two in the following table:

**Table 4.3:** The Nature of Research Methodology and Research Method (Rajasekaret al. (2006, p.2))

Research methodology	Research method
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ A systematic way to solve a problem.</li> <li>▪ A science of studying how research is to be carried out.</li> <li>▪ The study of methods by which knowledge is gained.</li> <li>▪ Its aim is to give the work plan of research.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ The various procedures, schemes, algorithms, etc. used in research.</li> <li>▪ They are essentially planned, scientific and value-neutral.</li> <li>▪ They include theoretical procedures, experimental studies, numerical schemes, statistical approaches, etc.</li> <li>▪ Help us collect samples, data and find a solution to a problem.</li> <li>▪ They accept only those explanations which can be verified by experiments.</li> </ul>

Based on the above table, we can conclude that the research methodology encompasses the research method. In other words, the scope of research methodology is wider than that of the method and thus one methodology may have more than one research method.

The present study can be seen as positioned in the “exploratory-interpretive” research. This latter is defined as the ‘one which utilizes a non-experimental method, yields qualitative data, and provides an interpretive analysis of the data’ (Nunan, 1992: 4). The choice of a qualitative paradigm has enabled the researcher to answer the research questions from a different perspective and to explore the phenomenon of teachers’ attitudes in more in-depth, a phenomenon known to be hidden and intangible. In other words, our choice of paradigm was primarily triggered by the nature of the phenomenon under investigation, which is the participants’ attitudes toward their teacher training.

## 4.7 The Nature of Case Study

The literature overflows with various definitions of the term ‘case study’. According to Abdelman et al. (1977), case study is an umbrella term covering a number of research methods having in common the decision to focus on inquiring around an instance. Goode and Hatt (1952, p. 331) echo that “the case study is a way of organizing social data so as to preserve the unitary character of the social object being studied”. Moreover, Creswell (1994) maintains that in case studies, the researcher explores a single entity or phenomenon bounded by time activity and collects detailed information by using a variety of data gathering procedures during a sustained time period. This means that a case study refers to one single situation that comes under investigation with the view of discovering the underlying reasons for a more complex phenomenon.

The term ‘case study’ has been used in different ways (Blaikie, 2003; Boumar and Atkinson, 1995). Some scholars use the term to refer to exploratory studies in which no hypotheses are tested, while others use it to refer to studies where hypotheses are rigorously tested (Boumar & Atkinson, 1992). Smith (1998) stated that the task of a case study is to shed light on the dark aspects of a phenomenon and to collect in-depth information that is difficult to gather through broad surveys. To conclude, case studies analyze a phenomenon that is known to be overlapping and complex. Therefore, they are particularly useful in explaining how or what is going on in a local context and in generating plausible hypotheses for later quantitative work or improvements in data collection instruments.

Case studies are especially useful in situations where contextual conditions of the phenomenon being studied are critical and where the researcher has little control over the events. Hitchcock & Hughes (1995) consider that case studies have several hallmarks:

- They are concerned with a rich and vivid description of events relevant to the case.
- They provide a chronological narrative of events relevant to the case.
- They blend a description of events with the analysis of them.
- They focus on individual actors or groups of actors, and seek to understand their perceptions of events.
- They highlight specific events that are relevant to the case.
- The researcher is integrally involved in the case.
- An attempt is made to portray the richness of the case in writing up the report. (Cited in Cohen *et al.*, p.253)

There are various types of case studies. Yin (1984) notes three types based on the outcome of each type. These are exploratory, explanatory and descriptive. The table below summarizes these types alongside their outcomes:

**Table 4.4:** Case Study Types (Yin cited in Cohen et al. 2007, p.245.)

<b>Case Study Types</b>	<b>Outcomes</b>
Exploratory	A pilot to other studies or research questions
Explanatory	Testing theories
Descriptive	Providing narratives accounts

In addition to the above types, McDonough and McDonough (1997) add interpretive and evaluative case studies. The former type aims to interpret the data by developing concepts, supporting or challenging assumptions while the latter goes further to judge the phenomena found in the data.

Given the qualitative stance adopted in this research and the nature of the research questions, we believe that an exploratory-interpretive case study approach is the most appropriate research strategy for this study because of its advantages in revealing in detail the unique perceptions, attitudes and concerns of individual participants in a real-world situation which would have been lost in quantitative or experimental strategies. Merriam (1998) states that in qualitative case studies, researchers use concepts, models and theories as a frame of reference. Therefore, findings were discussed in relation to existing knowledge with the aim of demonstrating how the present study has contributed to expanding the knowledge base. According to the literature, teachers are often not aware of their attitudes (Kagan, 1992). Hence, the parameters of the present study are confined to probing teachers' personal theories, beliefs and perceptions, as well as giving interpretations to their attitudes.

## **4.8 Population and Sampling**

During the planning stage, researchers need to decide on the population and sample in order to conduct his/her experiment or survey. By definition, a population represents the whole community of people who are the subjects of interest, while a sample is a segment or a sub-group of this population on which the researcher undertakes to examine. Dörnyei (2003) defines these two constructs in the following terms:

Broadly speaking, the sample is the group of people whom researchers actually examine and the population is the group of people whom the survey is about. For example, the population in a study might be EFL learners in Taiwanese secondary schools and the actual sample might involve three Taiwanese secondary classes. That is, the target population of a study consists of all the people to whom the survey's findings are to be applied or generalized. (pp.70-71)

The basic idea of sampling is that by selecting a portion of a population, conclusions can be drawn about the entire population. In other words, sampling targets to build generalizations out of the results obtained of a limited sample rather than working with the whole population. Ross (2005) says:

Sampling in educational research is generally conducted in order to permit the detailed study of part, rather than the whole, of a population. The information derived from the resulting sample is customarily employed to develop useful generalizations about the population. (p. 1)

Working with the whole population would be very difficult and impractical. In addition, it is effort and time consuming and may mislead the researcher to achieve the expected results. Sampling is less costly and would require less time if compared with testing the whole population. Therefore, Sapsford & Jupp (2006) stressed that working with a selected sample is more beneficial as it helps to “save time, save effort and obtain consistent and unbiased estimates of the population status” (p. 26). This means that wisely selected population and sample add to the accuracy and credibility of the research findings.

The strategy adopted for sampling the participants in this research depended on the study circumstances. Considering the context and the qualitative nature of this study, a non-probabilistic sampling based on convenience was chosen. In particular, a ‘purposive convenience’ sampling strategy (Flick, 1998; Punch, 1998; Kumar, 1996) was adopted for sampling the population. This sampling strategy can be defined as the one “where advantage is taken of cases, events, situations or informants, which are close at hand” (Punch, p. 193). In addition, the researcher used the ‘snowball sampling’ in some cases. According to Kumar

(1996), a snowball sampling is a non-random sampling strategy where existing study participants are asked to identify and select other people among their acquaintances to become part of the sample. Thus, I invited my colleagues to participate in the research and also asked them to introduce the study to other teachers they knew.

The target population of the current study is high school novice teachers of English in the Wilaya of Biskra. The rationale for this selection of this section of teachers is premised by the fact that they teach English to young learners and prepare them for continuation of academic pursuits or for entry into the world of work. Moreover, they are graduates of a five year diploma training program after the LMD reform with a maximum of three years teaching experience. Hence, we have an optimistic hope that the findings of this research will be useful to highlight novice teachers' attitudes about the adequacy of their training and to inform future training practice. Our population is estimated at 208 EFL novice teachers (three years maximum of teaching experience) where a total of 70 novice teachers from various secondary schools in the region of Biskra participated in this study. In addition, we conducted semi-structured individual interviews with three participants from the sample. In this respect, it is worth noting that the intention of the researcher is to maximize the quality and accuracy of the data generated. Thus, it is believed that attention must be paid to the quality of data rather than quantity alone.

## 4.9 Triangulation

One of the major concerns of educational research is to provide valid and reliable results. On score of that, researchers recommended to use more than one approach as a means of dealing with this problem in a study. This process is called triangulation. According to Cohen *et al.* (2000, p. 112) "Triangulation maybe defined as the use of two or more methods of data collection in the study of some aspect of human behavior". In other words, triangulation refers to the use of more than one method of research with the view of attaining accurate and trustworthy outcomes and interpretations.

There are various types of triangulation. Denzin (1985, cited in wragg, 1994, p. 113) distinguishes four different types. Those are laid out below:

- 1- Investigator (also referred to as researcher) triangulation where various researchers crosscheck each other's data.
- 2- Data triangulation

- 3- Theory triangulation which involves the analysis and comparison of different theories relating to the research problem.
- 4- Methodological triangulation whereby different methods are used on the same object of study.

The current research makes use of the fourth type namely, methodological triangulation using a questionnaire and interview. It is noteworthy that these tools are designed to complete each other. According to Mathison (1988, p. 14), “the flaws of one method are often the strengths of another and by combining methods, observers can achieve the best of each while overcoming their unique differences”. This means that methodological triangulation strategy allows the researcher to add to the validity and reliability of research findings.

## **4.10 Data Collection Tools**

Research uses different tools of data collection to gather the required information that would help the researcher interpret as accurately as possible the phenomenon under investigation, attain different objective, and answer the research questions. For systematic reasons, this section deals with a detailed description of the data collection tools used in this study namely, a questionnaire and interviews.

### **4.10.1 Questionnaire**

Basically, questionnaires are the most popular tool for research due to the fact that they are easy to design, administer and analyze. According to Gillham (2000, p. 1), “the great popularity of questionnaires is that they provide a quick fix for research methodology, no single method has been so much abused”. He further added that “questionnaires are just one of a range of ways of getting information from people, usually by posing direct or indirect questions” (Gillham, 2000, p. 2). Differently stated, questionnaires are research tools consisting of a series of questions that target a particular population for the purpose of gathering information. In the academia, Dörnyei and Taguchi (2009) pointed out:

The typical questionnaire is highly structured data collection instrument, with most items either asking about very specific pieces of information (e.g., one's address or food preference) or giving various response options for the respondent to choose from, for example, by ticking a box. (p. 9)

In the present study, novice teachers' questionnaire consists of three sections. The first section contains (6) question items that cover particular information concerning novice teachers' gender, pre-teaching study institute, their choice of becoming teachers, the variety of English they use and their willingness to teach. The second section includes (31) question items categorized in two divisions. The first division covers novice teachers' opinions regarding their teacher training, their training components, the quality of teacher trainers, areas of strengths and weaknesses in their teacher training program and the potential solutions to improve teacher preparation. However, the second division which is composed of (17) question items, seeks to examine novice teachers' opinions regarding their teaching performance, their attitudes regarding their inspectors, colleagues, teaching materials, and classroom management challenges. Finally, section three includes one question seeking novice teachers' comments and suggestions as far as the questionnaire and the topic under investigation is concerned.

According to *Dörnyei* (2003), within non-postal surveys, two types of questionnaire administration can be distinguished namely, one-to-one administration and group administration. The former can be defined as the type that:

refers to a situation when someone delivers the questionnaire by hand to the designated person and arranges the completed form to be picked up later (e. g., handing out questionnaires to colleagues at work). This is a much more personal form of administration than mail surveys and therefore the chances for the questionnaires to be returned are significantly better. The personal contact also allows the questionnaire administrator to create rapport with the respondent, to explain the purpose of the enquiry, and to encourage cooperation. *Dörnyei* (2003, p. 81),

While the latter, i.e., group administration is defined as:

the most common method of having questionnaires completed. One reason for this is that the typical targets of the surveys are language learners studying within institutional contexts, and it is often possible to arrange to administer the instrument to them while they are assembled together, for example, as part of a lesson or slotted between certain other organized activities. The other reason for the popularity of this administration format is that it can overcome some of the problems just mentioned with regard to postal surveys or one to-one administration. Groups of students are typically 'captive groups' in the sense that a response rate of nearly 100% can be achieved with them, and because a few questionnaire administrators can collect a very large number of questionnaires, it is easier to make sure that all of them are adequately trained for the job.

In the present study, novice teachers' questionnaire was conducted in one-to-one administration method. This method allowed us to create rapport with the participants, explain the purpose, objectives, the instructions and the structure of the questionnaire. We have made it our goal to avoid intimidating the informants of our questionnaire. First, we have tried to make them feel at ease and comfortable as we chose to administer the questionnaire after their teaching hours. Second, we gave them sufficient time to respond to the questionnaire and we assured them that the information collected will be confidential.

#### **4.10.1.1 Rationale for Using Questionnaire**

As far as the objectives of our study are concerned, we believe that the use of the questionnaire as a data collection tool is helpful in obtaining the necessary data. Despite the fact that there are limitations to the qualitative data that questionnaires are capable of collecting, they have numerous advantages. First, questionnaires are useful for gathering original data about people' experiences, behavior, social interactions, attitudes and opinions and awareness of events (McLafferty, 2010). Second, they are one of the most practical research instruments in that they can be effort and cost effective, enabling extensive research. According to Gillham (2000):

The main attraction of questionnaires is their unprecedented efficiency in terms of (a) researcher time, (b) researcher effort, and (c) financial resources. By administering a questionnaire to a group of people, one can collect a huge amount of information in less than an hour, and the personal investment required will be a fraction of what would have been needed for, say, interviewing the same number of people. (Cited in Dörnyei, 2003, p. 9).

Third, they are flexible in that they can be combined with other complementary, more intensive tools of qualitative research like interviews to yield more in-depth information (Mee, 2007). Moreover, questionnaires allow the participants the privacy and time to consider and develop their responses to critical questions. Showing these strengths, questionnaires can be both practical and powerful research tools.

#### **4.10.1.2 Piloting the Questionnaire**

Based on what has been mentioned in the previous section, we conclude that every academic research calls for a pilot study to save the researcher serious flaws and to ensure the maximum of credibility. Accordingly, in the present study we judged essential to pilot test the novice teachers' questionnaire. Once finished designing the questionnaire, it was tested or piloted on a small target group prior to the data collection. Oppenheim (1992, p. 47) argues "if you don't have the resources to pilot test your questionnaire, don't do the study" and "every aspect of a survey has to be tried out before hand to make sure it works as intended". These trials are important because they allow us to collect feedback about how the instrument works, highlight things like ambiguous questions and signs that the instructions were not understood. Based on this information, alternations were made to fine tune the final version of the questionnaire.

The questionnaire used in this study has been initially piloted by 15 novice teachers similar to the target sample the instrument has been designed for. The questionnaire has been piloted to determine the suitability (accessibility) of the questions before distributing it. Some questions have been reformulated, mainly those dealing with teacher training and teaching practice. Before administering the final version of the questionnaire, it was modified based on previous feedback from some novice teachers among the target population. In addition,

piloting aimed to identify ambiguous questions and ensure these could be reviewed. Furthermore, piloting was conducted to ensure that the instructions given by the researcher to the informants in the main study would be comprehensible. A final benefit of piloting was to ensure that the questions would be fully understood by the participants in the study.

#### **4.10.1.3 Outcomes from the Pilot Study of the Questionnaire**

- Some of the participants in the pilot study had some inquiries because they did not understand certain sentences and statements (section 2: Q 3, Q11, Q16). Therefore the researcher had to rewrite the sentences to make them clearer.
- There were some written notes about the language of the questionnaire as well as other oral comments from some of the participants.
- Minor changes were made to the questionnaire on the basis of the pilot study. The reason for revising these sentences is to simplify them so that they would be understood by the novice teachers. The most important of these were changes to section 2: Qs (4, 6, 10, 18)

#### **4.10.2 Interviews**

Although interviews and everyday conversations may seem similar on the surface, they are completely different. Dyer (1995) asserts that “an interview is not an ordinary, everyday conversation”(pp. 56-8) as it is a constructed rather than naturally occurring conversation. Dyer (1995) outlined the differences between casual conversations and interviews as follows:

in contrast to an everyday conversation, [the interview] has a specific purpose, it is often question-based, with the questions being asked by the interviewer; the interviewer alone may express ignorance (and not the interviewee), and the responses must be as explicit and often as detailed as possible. The interview is a constructed rather than naturally occurring situation, and this renders it different from an everyday conversation; therefore the researcher has an obligation to set up, and abide by, the different ‘rules of the game’ in an interview.

Based on this juxtaposition between everyday conversations and interviews, we draw table (4.5) to point out some of the differences between the two:

**Table 4.5:** Differences between Interviews and Everyday Conversations

Everyday Conversations	Interviews
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Unstructured</li> <li>• Occurring naturally</li> <li>• Spontaneous (unplanned)</li> <li>• Open dialogue</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Structured</li> <li>• Specific purpose</li> <li>• Planned (question-based)</li> <li>• Explicit and detailed responses</li> </ul>

Generally speaking, interviews are understood as a face-to-face interaction which sets the aim to gather raw data in one sitting session. According to Cohen et al. (2007), interviews are widely used instruments for data collection. They involve enacting or discussing people's knowledge of cultural forms in the form of questions and answers (Baker & Johnson, 1898). So basically, interviews involve gathering the participant interviewees' responses as accurately as possible with the view of eliciting the required data that serve the research needs and purposes.

#### 4.10.2.1 Rationale for Using Interviews

In fact, the interview method is one of the most employed methods in qualitative research (McKay, 2006; Arksey and Knight, 1999). In interviews, Shono (2006) notes, participants are empowered and the voices of the other are clearly heard. Besides, Richey and Klein (2007) corroborate that data from interviews "allow the researcher to get a clear understanding of events, to determine why they occurred, and to gather data from interviewees about their thoughts and beliefs" (p. 113). In their turn, Cohen and Manion (1994) for example pointed out that there are three characteristics that make the interview method a good technique to use in educational research. These characteristics are:

Firstly, it may be used as the principal means of gathering information having direct bearing on the research objectives. Secondly, it may be used to test hypotheses or to suggest new ones; or used as an explanatory device to help identify variables and relationships. And thirdly, the interview may be used in conjunction with other methods in a research undertaking. (pp. 272 - 273)

In addition, Kumar (1996), maintains that using interviews is beneficial in that they can be used for “complex and sensitive situations [and they can be useful]...to obtain in-depth information by probing” (p. 115). In particular regard to this research, interviews were useful in probing the participants’ attitudes. This concurs with what researchers posit. Partington, (2001) for instance points out that the interview method helps the researcher depict the “emic” side of participants, such as “their perceptions, attitudes and values, matters which are difficult to obtain by alternative methods” (p.1)

#### **4.10.2.2 Types of Interviews**

The number of interview types given in the literature is a matter of the sources one reads. If we give a chronological overview of the development of interview types, we start with Patton (1980) who outlined four types of interviews alongside their characteristics, strengths and weaknesses. The table (4.6) below displays those types as well as the merits and demerits of each type.

**Table 4.6:** Strengths and Weaknesses of Different Types of Interviews (Patton .1980 cited in Cohen et al. 2007, p.353)

<b>Type of Interview</b>	<b>Characteristics</b>	<b>Strengths</b>	<b>Weaknesses</b>
Informal conversational interview	Questions emerge from the immediate context and are asked in the natural course of things; there is no predetermination of question topics or wording.	Increases the salience and relevance of questions; interviews are built on and emerge from observations; the interview can be matched to individuals and circumstances.	Different information collected from different people with different questions. Less systematic and comprehensive if certain questions don't arise 'naturally'. Data organization and analysis can be quite difficult.
Interview guide approach	Topics and issues to be covered are specified in advance, in outline form; interviewer decides sequence and wording of questions in the course of the interview.	The outline increases the comprehensiveness of the data and makes data collection somewhat systematic for each respondent. Logical gaps in data can be anticipated and closed. Interviews remain fairly conversational and situational.	Important and salient topics may be inadvertently omitted. Interviewer flexibility in sequencing and wording questions can result in substantially different responses, thus reducing the comparability of responses.
Standardized open-ended interviews	The exact wording and sequence of questions are determined in advance. All interviewees are asked the same basic questions in the same order.	Respondents answer the same questions, thus increasing comparability of responses; data are complete for each person on the topics addressed in the interview. Reduces interviewer effects and bias when several interviewers are used. Permits decision makers to see and review the instrumentation used in the evaluation. Facilitates organization and analysis of the data.	Little flexibility in relating the interview to particular individuals and circumstances; standardized wording of questions may constrain and limit naturalness and relevance of questions and answers.
Closed quantitative interviews	Questions and response categories are determined in advance. Responses are fixed; respondent chooses from among these fixed responses.	Data analysis is simple; responses can be directly compared and easily aggregated; many short questions can be asked in a short time.	Respondents must fit their experiences and feelings into the researcher's categories; may be perceived as impersonal, irrelevant, and mechanistic. Can distort what respondents really mean or experienced by so completely limiting their response choices.

After Patton (1980) classification of interviews, Lincoln and Guba (1985) add structured interviews. Later, Oppenheim (1992) adds exploratory interviews. Bogdan and Biklen (1992) mention semi-structured interviews. While in 1993, Le Compte and Preissle (1993) highlighted six types of interviews which are: standardized interviews, in-depth interviews, ethnographic interviews, elite interviews, life history interviews, and finally focus groups interviews.

#### **4.10.2.3 Semi-structured Individual Interview**

In this study, the researcher has opted for semi-structured individual interviews. The semi-structured interview, also called interview guided approach or in-depth interview, is the most common qualitative data gathering tool during which “the interviewer has a general idea of where he or she wants the interview to go, and what should come out of it, but does not enter the interview with a list of predetermined questions” (Nunan, 1992, p. 149). The advantage of using semi-structured interview lies in its flexibility as it allows the researcher to stay alert to the focus of the study and at the same time be open minded to encounter spontaneous and new ideas that will emerge during the interview (Silverman, 2006). This interview was used to supplement the findings and to provide an in-depth insight into the questionnaire results. In addition, this interview serves as a tool to present to the reader the experiences of these beginning teachers in enough detail and depth that those who read this study will relate to that experience, learn how it is developed, and deepen their understanding of the participants’ experiences (Seidman, 2006). Moreover, Wallace (1998, p. 124) argues that these techniques are classified as ‘introspective’ since they involve informants reporting on themselves, their lives, their beliefs, their interactions and so on and can be used to elicit factual data. This is also stressed by Cohen *et al.* (2005) who maintains that semi-structured interviews compared to structured interviews can yield richer data.

The semi-structured interview used in this study was digitally recorded. This gave the researcher the advantage to go beyond the interview in that even non-verbal communication could be observed and analyzed. This is supported by Blaxter *et al.* (2006) who maintains that:

The use of an audio or digital recorder means that you need only to concentrate on the process of the interview. You can focus your attention on the interviewee; give appropriate eye contact and non-verbal communication. You will have a verbatim record of the whole interview. (p. 172)

In addition, recording the interview allows the researcher to “preserve the actual language that is used, providing an objective record of what was said that can later be analyzed.”(McKay, 2006, p. 55). In other words, recording the participants’ answers ensures that no detail is lost and this allows the researcher to manually transcribe and analyze the data gathered later in time.

#### **4.10.2.4 Interview Wording and Schedule**

The quality of interviews depends on the wording and types of questions used. It is argued that the researcher may fail to obtain accurate data if the questions are not asked in an acceptable manner or if the wording used does not motivate the respondents to give appropriate answers (Judd et al., 1991). Therefore, we tried to keep the wording of each question equally appropriate to each participant in order to probe their attitudes which are known to be abstract and complex. In this regard, Judd et al. (1991, p. 231) corroborate that:

Questions about attitudes are probably the most difficult type to write, for a number of reasons...First, there is always the possibility that respondents may not have an attitude because they never thought about the issue until the interviewer asked about it...Second, attitudes are often complex and multidimensional. A person may not have a single overall attitude toward abortion but may favor it in some circumstances and reject it in others or favor it on medical grounds but disapprove of it on moral grounds. Third, attitudes have a dimension of intensity. People who have the same attitudes (e.g., opposing legal abortion) may differ widely in intensity, with some viewing the issue as relatively trivial and others feeling very strongly, actively writing letters, attending demonstrations, and so on...The result of all these factors is that expressed attitudes are dependent on details of question wording, question sequence, and interviewer effects to a greater extent than are responses involving facts, for instance. (p. 231)

The novice teachers' interview comprises factual and opinion questions. These questions are open-ended in nature as they are most convenient to obtain descriptive data and "allow the respondent to answer in a relatively unconstrained way" (Judd et al., 1991, p. 239). Regarding the questions wording, we stuck to brief, simple and direct questions and avoided worded, complex and ambiguous questions following Judd et al. (1991) guidelines on how to construct appropriate interview questions. They stressed that

- The questions should be simple and short to make it easy for the respondent to answer.
- The questions should be open and provide alternatives when dealing with ambiguous terms.
- Unwarranted assumptions should be avoided.
- The terminology used should be simple, unambiguous and unbiased.

Based on the suggestions made by Lichtman (2006), Shono (2006) and Richards (2003), an interview schedule was prepared which included some guiding questions to be discussed in the interview (see Appendix 02). The interview schedule was divided into three sections: the first section covered the agreement of the participant to take part in the interview and an explanation of the study's aims and objectives, the second section comprised questions to gather some background information about the participants and the third section included possible questions to probe the participants' attitudes. However, during the process, the door was left open for any new questions that might come to mind as the discussion proceeded with the interviewees. Subsequently, to test the interview questions pertaining to its language and wording, the first interview with the first novice teacher was used as a pilot interview to check the extent to which the interview questions were clear and understood by the participants, and whether the interview techniques employed were appropriate and minimized bias. The feedback received was very constructive and allowed the researcher to make some adjustments in that the wording of the questions was simplified into more appropriate sentences and better techniques were used to manage the subsequent interviews.

#### **4.10.2.5 Conducting Interviews**

Appointments were arranged with the novice teachers who agreed to take part in the interview on dates and places they conveniently chose. Generally, the interviews were held in their schools in an attempt to make the participants feel at ease in place they are familiar with. Regarding the language used, we gave the participants the freedom to decide which language to use in order to express their opinions and points of view clearly without any linguistic barrier. However, all the participants preferred to use English as they did not know the Arabic equivalent of certain terms and expressed that they would feel at ease if they used English, only a few words in Arabic were used. At the beginning of each session, the researcher ensures to: thank the participants for accepting to be interviewed, explain the aims and objectives of the study, and obtain the participants' agreement to digitally record their answers. Then the discussion proceeds where we made sure to put the participants at ease by interacting with them and smiling at them. However, both too much and too little rapport was avoided as this can be detrimental to data quality (Belli et al., 2001).

#### **4.11 Data Analysis**

After the process of data collection, researchers start the procedures of data analysis. In qualitative research, data analysis is defined as a systematic process to analyze the collected data. In other words, data analysis refers to “the process of categorization, description, and synthesis” (Wiersma, 1991, p. 8). Similarly, Bogdan and Biklen (2003) define qualitative data analysis as the process of “working with the data, organizing it, breaking it into manageable units, synthesizing it, and searching for patterns”. Huberman and Miles (1994) pointed out three steps to analyze data in qualitative research. Those steps are data reduction, data display, and conclusion drawing/verification. Most scholars argue that these steps are not mutually exclusive and separated from other aspects of research. In fact, collecting, analyzing and writing the research data are interrelated parts that do not follow clear distinct progressive stages. Instead, they occur simultaneously and inform each other. As Coffey and Atkinson (1996) put it:

The process of analysis should not be seen as a distinct stage of research; rather, it is a reflexive activity that should inform data collection, writing, further data collection, and so forth. Analysis is not, then, the last phase of the research process. It should be seen as part of the research design and of the data collection. The research process, of which analysis is one aspect, is a cyclical one. (p. 6)

Typically, research projects generate more data than what will be used in the final write up. Therefore, as a first step in data analysis, the researcher needs to reduce the collected data. The process of data reduction involves selecting, identifying and classifying the data in search for patterns, concepts and themes that are relevant to the study. The goal here is to create descriptive categories that provide a preliminary framework for analysis. Most scholars advocate that reducing data to seek meaning should start as the research begins and continues throughout data collection. This means that it is infused throughout the research process.

A step beyond data reduction is data display. According to Huberman and Miles (1994), displaying the research data provides an organized, compressed assembly of information that allows conclusion drawing. Huberman and Miles's (1994) state that data display involves the use of textual representations of data for the purpose of selecting segments that best illustrate concepts of interest (Marvasti, 2004). Typically, this includes the careful reading and rereading of data transcriptions as well as highlighting important passages as representations of particular concepts. The objective is to gradually transform the raw data into a recognizable conceptual scheme (Marvasti, 2004). Data display can take the form of texts, tables, diagrams or charts that provide a new way of arranging and thinking about the data. At this level, additional, higher order themes or categories can be emerged from the data that go beyond those first discovered during the initial process of data reduction.

The third step in data analysis is conclusion drawing and verification. It describes the process of drawing broad but substantiated interpretations from displayed data. As Huberman and Miles note, this step involves 'drawing meaning from displayed data' (1994: 429). The Beginning conclusion remains temporary and undergoes changes if there is no strong evidence that supports on the next step in data collection. However, if the beginning conclusion is supported by valid evidence, the conclusion is credible (Sugiono, 2008). Initial conclusions can be verified through reference to the existing field notes.

In this study, the raw data collected in the field work was edited, categorized and transformed into meaningful and presentable information. The completed questionnaire was edited and the responses were coded to facilitate data input. In order to analyze the data and consequently answer the research questions, the collected data was summarized using statistical graphs such as, bar charts and histograms. The main reason for such analysis is to obtain a clear picture of how the data is distributed and make it easy to understand and interpret. As for the qualitative data, including those of the interviews, the data was transcribed, coded, labeled and categorized. Simple coding was used for interviews. It included the use of 'F' and 'M' for female and male, 'NT' for novice teacher, 'I' for interview and numbers (1-3) for interviewees. The next step was the writing up of the findings supported by evidence from the data. We built a consistent discussion based on the researchers' own interpretations of the data and supported by quotes from the data. In this respect, every effort was made to present the participants' opinions, views and perceptions in a faithful and appropriate way. The categories developed were then used to provide interpretations to the findings in light of theory on teacher training and language teaching in order to provide possible answers to the research questions.

## **4.12 Issues of Bias and Ethics**

### **4.12.1 Bias**

Bias is a major concern in any qualitative research. Even though qualitative researchers generally aim for impartiality, there always seems to be some elements of bias present before, during or after the data gathering process. Peirce (1995) argues that qualitative research cannot in any way be free of bias especially as the researcher is part of the research process itself. Therefore, it is necessary for the researcher to acknowledge his/her bias (Street, 1993). The bias which is referred to in this context is the one defined by Hammersley and Gomm (1997) as a:

...particular source of systematic error: that deriving from a conscious or unconscious tendency on the part of a researcher to produce data, and/or to interpret them, in a way that inclines towards erroneous conclusions which are in line with his or her commitments. (p. 1)

Bias can then result either from a conscious or unconscious tendency on the part of the researcher to collect or interpret the research data in a way that favors his or her beliefs. Hammersley (2000) argues that if the bias is unmotivated, the resulting bias can be neglected. Nevertheless, it is still important to outline potential sources of bias in order to enable greater evaluation of the research findings and conclusion. Hence, it is argued that researchers are required to outline the limitations of their studies and account for potential sources of bias (Street, 1993). In this respect, Peers and ethics' committee feedback is an essential part of designing research studies as it provides valuable practical guidance in developing strong research.

#### **4.12.2 Ethics**

In studies involving human participants, this latter is the researcher's primary focus and concern when it comes to ethical responsibilities. Reviewing the ethical responsibilities allows the researcher to consider in what ways the participants contribute, benefit from or be harmed by the planned research. In the process of conducting this research, issues of ethics, which were summarized from Judd et al. (1991), have been respected and honored to the best of our knowledge and abilities, as explained next:

1. All efforts were made to maintain an ethic of respect and trust towards all the participants.
2. All the respondents were treated equally and were given a high level of attention for every point they made during the research.
3. The respondents were allowed to communicate freely, without any intrusion or fear, and they were urged to respond the way they felt comfortable with.
4. We have made all efforts to use a discourse that aimed at minimizing any influence on the participants' thoughts and feelings.
5. Every effort has been made to ensure the anonymity of participants and confidentiality of data.
6. Simple, short and direct statements were used to avoid any ambiguity or confusion.
7. Finally, the respondents were invited to express their concluding appraisals of the questionnaire and interview and provide suggestions.

### **4.13 Conclusion**

This chapter undertook to discuss the methodology that underpinned this research work. It presented the different steps undertaken in the process of exploring novice teachers' attitudes and opinions regarding their teacher training. First, the chapter gave an overview of research and argued that this study is positioned in the qualitative research type. Then, it determined the nature of case study. After that, it discussed the strategies used to sample the participants. Next, the chapter discussed the methods of data collection. It was seen that the study used a questionnaire and semi-structured individual interview as methods of data collection. The rationale for using questionnaires and interviews was explained, and the two methods were described and justified. After that, the chapter discussed the data analysis procedure. Finally, the chapter discussed issues of bias, and ethics.

## **Chapter Five: Field Work & Data Presentation**

### **5.1 Introduction**

This chapter deals with the most important part of this research work which is the investigation of novice teachers' attitudes towards their teacher training. This will eventually report qualitatively as well as quantitatively the data that have been collected and compiled through the questionnaires and interviews. The teachers' questionnaire is a self-completion questionnaire composed of 30 items which has been completed by high school novice teachers of English from different schools in the region of Biskra. Moreover, semi-structured interviews have been organized with 3 high school novice teachers with the view of elucidating crucial points that cannot be gathered through questionnaires (e.g. body language, teachers' in-class practices). In designing the questionnaire as well as the interview sessions, we have strived to respect research ethics; simple and direct statements have been used all the more to avoid offending or disempowering the respondents.

### **5.2 Novice Teachers' Questionnaire**

#### **5.2.1 Description of the Questionnaire**

The questionnaire used in this research is simple and straight forward to be understood by everyone. The novice teachers' questionnaire is composed of (38) items, grouped into (3) main categories. Long questionnaires have been avoided since they can be counterproductive. Most researchers agree that anything that is more than 4-6 pages long and requires over half an hour to complete can be considered too much of an imposition (Dörnyei, 2003, p.18). The questionnaire is a mixture of both closed-ended and open-ended questions. In closed-ended questions, options are offered and answers are pre-determined. In open-ended questions, the participants are allowed to answer in open text. According to Dörnyei (2003), this type of "open responses can offer graphic examples, illustrative quotes and can also lead us to identify issues not previously anticipated" (p. 47). In addition, we sometimes need open-

ended questions for the simple reason that we do not know the range of possible responses and therefore cannot provide pre-prepared answer categories.

### **5.2.2 Objectives of the Questionnaire**

Teachers' questionnaire is constructed, piloted, re-administered, analyzed and reported with the view of establishing paradigms and patterns. Along the same line, the questionnaire and interview have been conducted to search for the attitudinal pattern of the high school novice teachers of English. In addition, the questionnaire basically aims to answer the questions that we have formulated previously at the introductory chapter. Based on these considerations, we have constructed a questionnaire and organized semi-structured interviews with the target population whose readiness to cooperate can be described as encouraging.

### **5.2.3 Structure of the Questionnaire**

The current questionnaire is structured in such a way as it reflects the aims of this PhD dissertation. The questionnaire consisted of 38 questions in total grouped under three (3) sections, the first section contains (6) questions and covered general non-identifying information about the participants' gender, pre-teaching study institute, preferred teaching skill, English variety used, and length of time teaching. The second section contains (31) questions categorized in two divisions. The first one is used mainly to gain an understanding of novice teachers' attitudes and perceptions regarding their teacher training, their level of preparedness for classroom teaching, their most and least valued training courses, and the deficiencies of their teacher training. However, the second division which contains (17) question items investigates novice teachers' attitudes regarding their teaching context presenting their experiences with school staff members as well as the difficulties and challenges entailed in this profession as novice teachers. The last section which contains only one question was devoted to novice teachers' suggestions and solutions for the betterment of future teacher training programs.

### **5.2.4 The Sample**

Novice teachers are the best source from which the guided research questions can be answered. They are considered the "key participants in the situation whose knowledge and

opinions may provide important insights regarding the research questions” (Hancock & Algozzine, 2011, p.44). A sample of the population of EFL novice teachers with a maximum of three years teaching experience was used to observe the central phenomenon, as mentioned by Creswell (2012), and to collect the necessary data. A total of 70 EFL novice teachers from various secondary schools in the region of Biskra participated in this study. The participants were given two weeks to give back the questionnaire according to their requests because of work pressure. All of them participated positively (100%) providing the researcher with useful information.

### **5.2.5 Questionnaire Analysis**

As stated previously, this questionnaire contains thirty eight (38) questions grouped under three sections eliciting the necessary data for the analysis of this research.

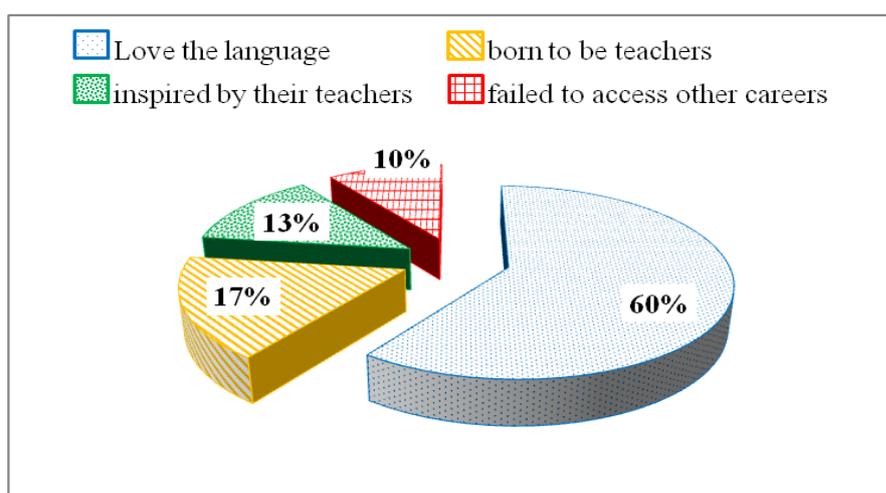
## Section One: General Information

**Table 0.1:** Participants Characteristics

		N	%
Gender	Female	42	60
	Male	28	40
Pre-teachings study institute	University	60	85,71
	ENS	10	14,29
The variety of English used	RP	64	91,43
	American English	0	0
	A combination	6	8,57

The targeted population of the questionnaire has been primarily secondary school novice teachers. It is not surprising to disclose that the female participants comprised the majority (60%) while male participants comprised the minority (40%). This certainly reflects not only the evolution of female status in the academic world, but also their choice for foreign languages and mainly English. The questionnaire outcomes report that (85.71%) of the novice teachers attended the university while (14.29%) of them attended the ENS College. As for the in-service years all of the participants have less than 3 years of teaching experience. All of them are non-native speakers of English. While the majority of the participants (91.43%) report to use Received Pronunciation, (8.57%) of them prefer to use a combination of both RP and American English as it can be observed from the above table.

### Q5: Why did you decide to become a teacher?



**Figure 5.1:** Novice Teachers' Choice of Teaching Profession

Teaching is a nation-building profession and novice teachers' career motivations are worth knowing. The novice teachers in this study gave different answers to why they chose to pursue a teaching career. (60%) of the participants (mostly females) reported that they decided to become teachers of English because they love the language and they enjoy working with children. Other participants (17%) think that imparting knowledge to youngsters is what they were born for, believing that they would be able to make a difference in their lives. Another percentage of respondents (13%) chose the teaching profession after being inspired by their previous middle and high school teachers of English. Only (10%) of novice teachers chose teaching after failing to access more lucrative careers such as medicine or engineering. These findings reveal that novice teachers' decision to undertake the teaching profession was driven by either intrinsic, altruistic and to a lesser extent extrinsic motivations. Research on characteristics of novice teachers motivation to teach suggested that intrinsic and altruistic motivations were crucial for satisfying and enduring career in the classroom in developed countries (Brookhart & Freeman, 1992; Kyriacou & Coulthard, 2000; Karavas, 2010).

#### Q6: How do you describe your willingness to teach English?

- Very weak
- Weak
- Uncertain strong
- very strong

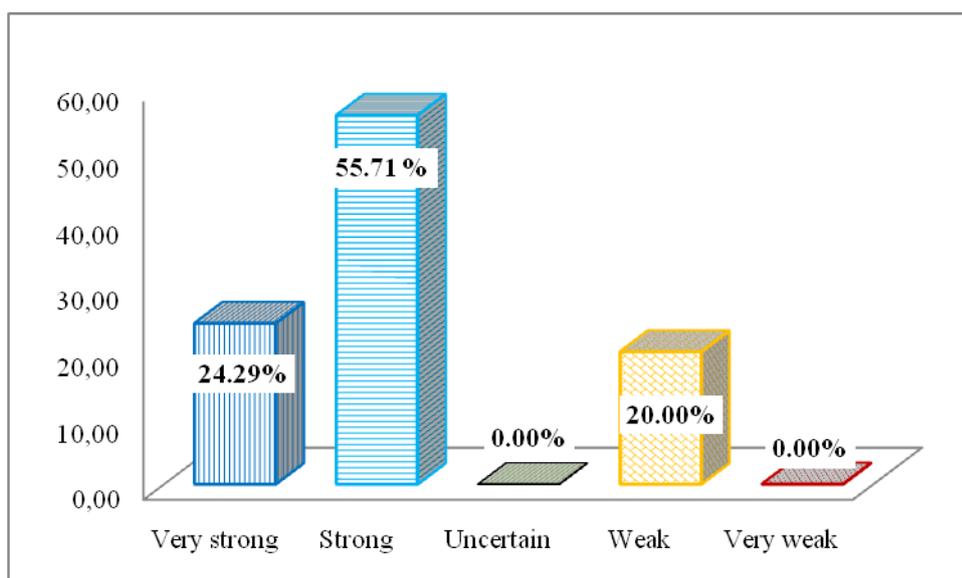


Figure 5.2: Willingness to Teach English

The purpose behind this question is to identify novice teachers' willingness and commitment to teach English. The results indicate that the majority of the participants (55.71%) have a strong willingness to teach English. (24.29%) of the participants reported a very strong willingness, while (20%) of the respondents revealed a weak willingness. Novice teachers who have a strong willingness to teach English gave the following reasons:

- It is a passion
- It is a gift
- It is an interesting language
- English gives students access to information and technology.
- It is prestigious because English is the international language and it plays a major role in many domains like medicine and engineering.

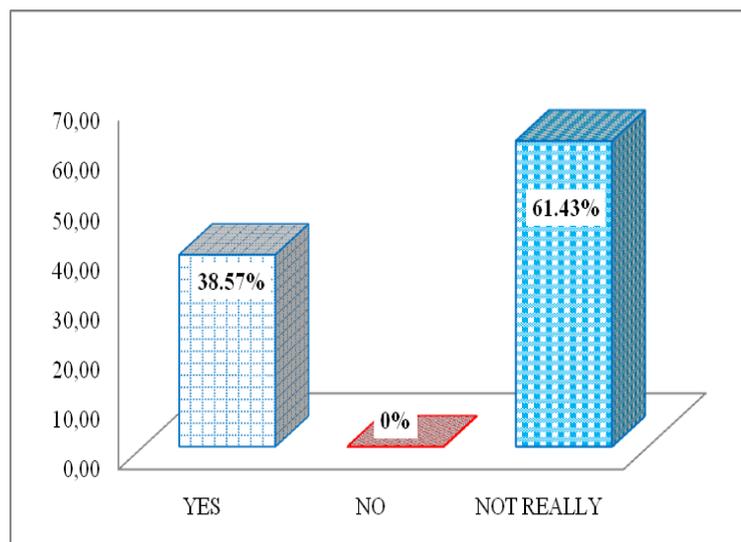
Novice teachers who conveyed to have a weak willingness to teach English attributed this latter to their difficult working conditions and students' disruptive behaviors. Asor (2001) described teachers' willingness to teach as a significant factor essential to ensure success in the work place. In our case, the majority of participants reported their strong willingness to teach English and this reflects their enthusiasm to do their best to ensure quality teaching.

## **Section Two: Novice Teachers' Attitudinal Aspects**

### **Division A: Teacher Training Program**

**Q1: Have you received any teacher training prior to beginning your teaching career?**

- Yes
- No
- Not really
- Please explain your answer.

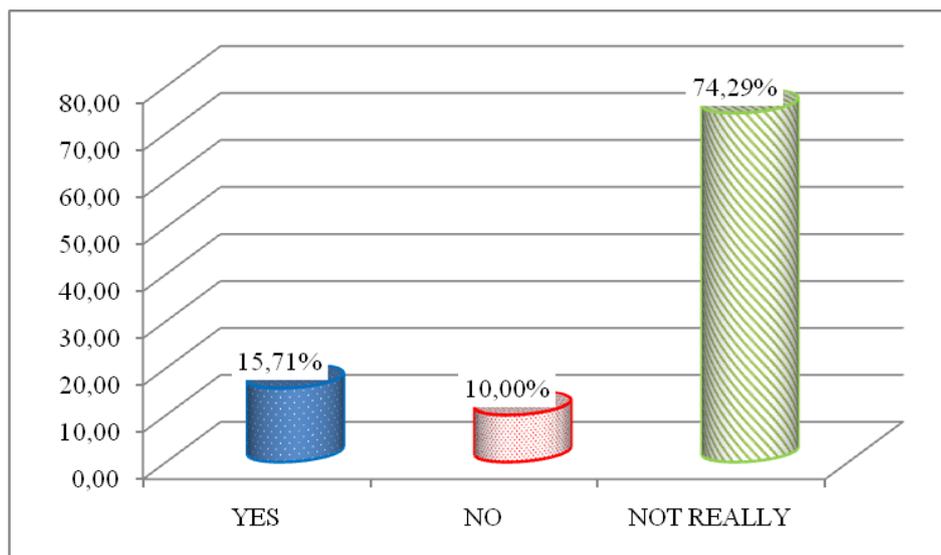


**Figure 5.3:** Teacher Training Prior to Teaching Career

When asked whether they have received any teacher training prior to beginning their teaching career, the majority of informants (61.43%) answered saying that they did not really receive any adequate training during their studies at university. The participants indicated that their universities did not offer adequate training for teachers as part of teacher qualification. This means they were accepted to enter the teaching profession, primarily, on the basis of their degrees with inadequate qualification and preparation. Only (38.57%) of the informants reported enrolling in adequate teacher training program. They indicated that part of their training took place during their last year at College as a requirement to obtain their degree. The training took place in secondary schools and lasted only for a short period of time (one to three months). It was intended through this short period of time to introduce student teachers to the classroom environment and help them familiarize with different aspects like classroom management, lesson planning and instructional delivery methods.

**Q2: Do you feel that your teacher training program prepared you for your first years of teaching?**

- Yes
- No
- not really
- Please explain your answer.



**Figure 5.4:** Novice Teachers Attitudes toward Teacher Training Program

Novice teachers were asked if their teacher training prepared them for their first years of teaching. This question item attempts to test beginning teachers' perceptions and evaluation of their teacher training. The results demonstrate that the participants in their majority (74.29%) believe that their teacher training did not really prepare them for the real classroom teaching. In other words, the majority of informants are dissatisfied with their teacher preparation. One participant commented,

I believe that my teacher training program did not really prepare me for the things I experienced when I entered the classroom as a novice teacher. It was hard for me to get used. I didn't know how to put all the theories we learnt into practice. So I wish that training programs can give new teachers a better preparation to succeed in what they are going to experience in the classroom

Another participant explained:

I can't say it [teacher training] didn't help me at all. But I was not prepared for the type of things I was going to face and how exactly I was supposed to deal with certain things in the classroom. I found that what we have been taught and learned was not helpful. I think more could be done in this area. It can be effective to watch teachers and talk to them about their experiences.

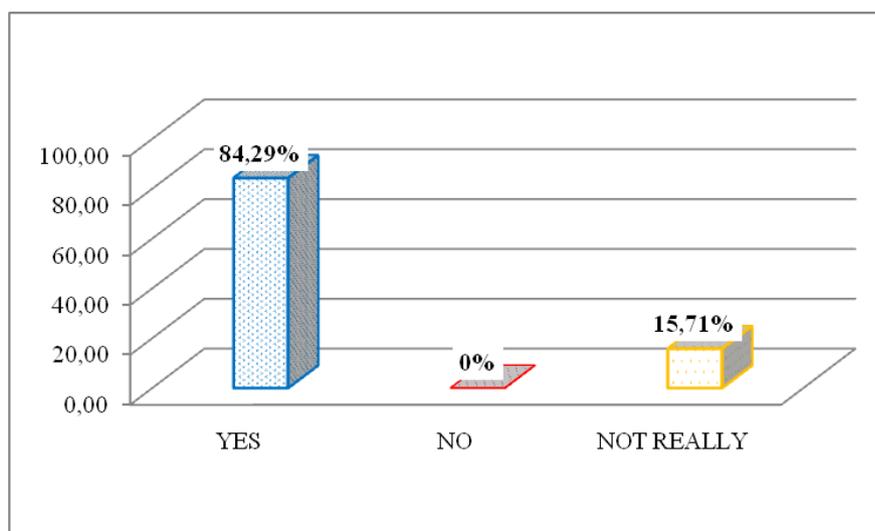
The majority of participants believed that the theoretical knowledge taught in their teacher training programs was most of the time irrelevant, and they were unable to integrate it

into practice to address the variations of students in the classroom and hence they felt that nothing can replace actual classroom teaching experience. A few participants (15.71%) stated that teacher training did not prepare them at all and attributed their pedagogical learning to their personality, experiences and close friends. Only a tiny minority estimated at (10%) believe that their teacher training did an acceptable job preparing them for the classroom. The analysis of the informants' answers leads us as a researcher to conclude that EFL novice teachers value the knowledge they received in their teacher training programs and they would have suffered even more without it. However, their teacher training failed to adequately prepare beginning teachers for the realities of today's classrooms. Overall, we can say that EFL novice teachers in this study perceive their teacher training in unfavorable light and nurture negative attitudes toward it.

### Q3: Teacher training is necessary before entering the teaching profession

- Yes
- no
- not really

-Please justify your answer.



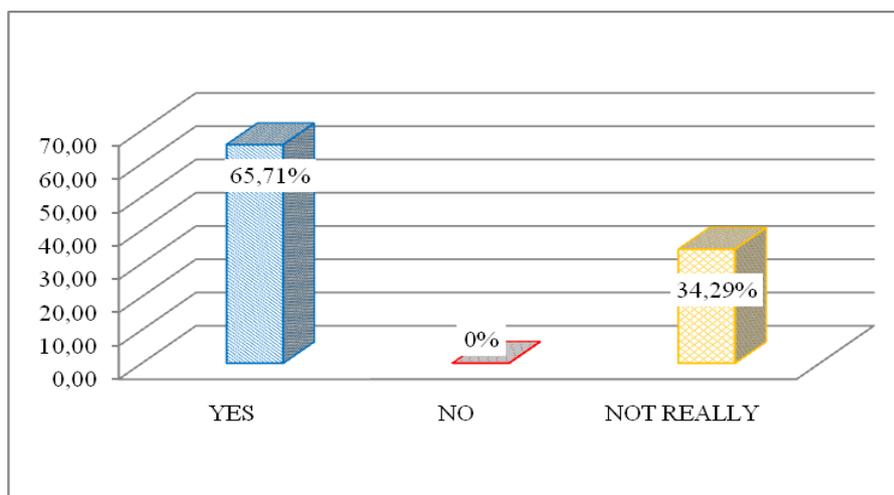
**Figure 5.5:** The necessity of Pre-service Training

As shown in (Figure 5.5), the results depicts that almost all of the informants (84.29%) consider pre-service teacher training necessary before entering the teaching profession. They found that the lack of pre-service training is one of the factors hindering the improvement of

English because most teachers are not aware of the different learning theories and theoretical backgrounds of the previous approaches used in teaching English. The participants indicated that they consider pre-service teacher training as an opportunity to improve their theoretical knowledge about teaching and allows them to acquire the necessary teaching skills and competencies. This is in line with Hasan (2003) who claims that pre-service teacher training may uplift student-teachers competence and skills especially in encountering classroom problems. By attending the course, they will be equipped by educational strategies, philosophical thoughts, psychological approaches, teaching methods, and instructional techniques. Yet, a minority of participants (15.71%) does not consider pre-service training to be necessary for teachers because they do not see any potential benefits from training before starting to teach. This proves that “the effectiveness of language teaching is heavily dependent on the nature and quality of the training that teachers undergo before entering their profession” (Strevens, 1977, p.21).

**Q4: did your teacher training contribute to your teaching practices? If yes how?**

- Yes
- No
- not really



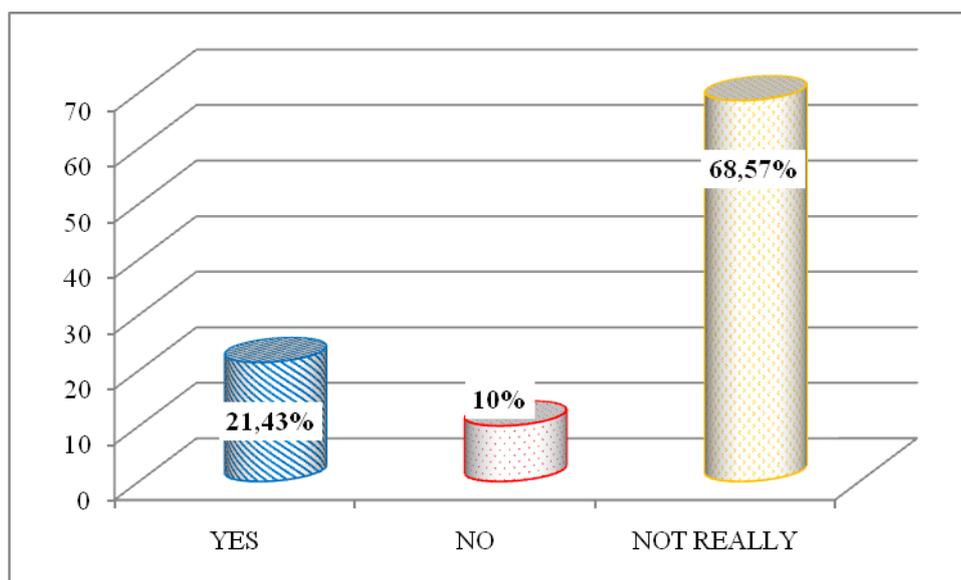
**Figure 5.6:** The Contribution of Training Program to Novice Teachers' Practices

The answers given by the informants revealed that the majority of the participants (65.71%) admitted that the teacher training they received was not beneficial and very lacking. Only (34.29%) of the informants answered positively reporting that their teacher training was

relevant to their current teaching practices. They argued that it mostly contributed to raising their awareness about some methods and techniques of teaching, giving instruction and dealing with students as well as managing their anxiety and confidence. Research data suggest that with no assessment guidelines or policy for teacher training programs, teacher preparation is lower and school-level indicators of learning achievement will be lower (Coggshall et al., 2012).

**Q5: Do you feel your teacher training program prepared you for effective classroom management?**

- Yes
- no
- not really



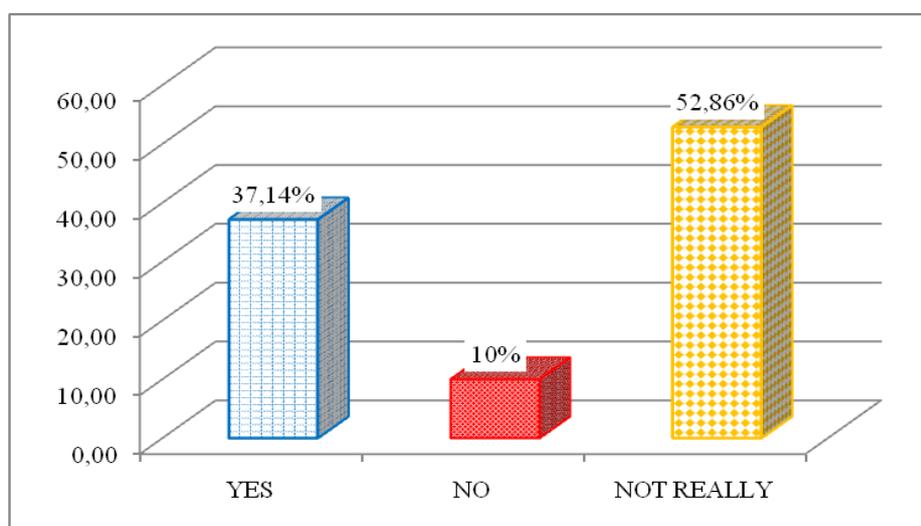
**Figure 5.7:** Novice Teachers' Preparedness for Classroom Management

The informants were asked whether their teacher training prepared them for effective classroom management. (68.57%) of them believe that their teacher training do not really prepare them for effective classroom management. To this high figure, another percentage of teachers estimated at (21.43%) sustain that teacher training do not prepare them to handle classroom management effectively. While only (10%) of the surveyed high school novice teachers of English think that teacher training did prepare them for effective classroom management. These results prove that novice teachers are still struggling to handle classroom management situations. Despite the fact that the rules learned in university courses and books guided the novice teachers, such prescribed rules did not always work for them, mainly

because these situations – specifically relating to classroom management – often require different responses.

**Q6: Do you think your teacher training prepared you to plan and prepare lessons effectively?**

- Yes
- No
- not really

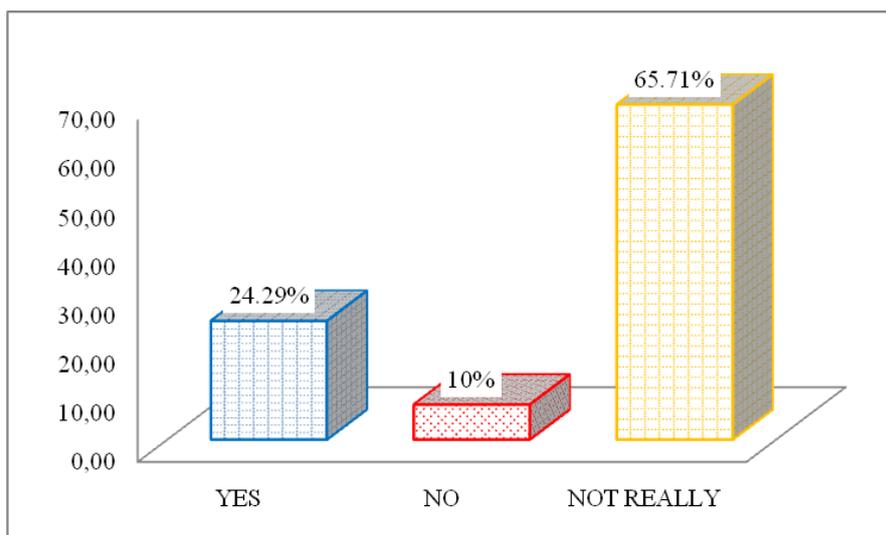


**Figure 5.8:** Novice Teachers' Preparedness for Lesson Planning.

Lesson planning and preparation are considered to have a vital role in teaching practice. Planning involves knowing what and how to teach, while preparation is concerned with getting and designing the teaching materials. Therefore, it is difficult for teachers to perform their role without substantial planning. The informants in this study were asked whether their teacher training prepared them to plan lessons effectively. The majority (52.86%) believe that their teacher training did not really prepare them to effectively plan and prepare lessons. While another percentage of teachers estimated at (37.14%) sustain that teacher training prepared them to plan and prepare lessons effectively. Only a minority of the surveyed high school novice teachers of English (10%) think that their teacher training did not prepare them at all to plan and prepare lessons effectively. These results reveal that high school novice teachers of English are still struggling to plan and prepare lessons. This means that novice teachers are in need for more detailed training to establish the wider understanding and expertise needed to plan and prepare lessons.

**Q7: Do you think your teacher training program prepared you for effective classroom assessment and grading?**

- Yes
- No
- Not really

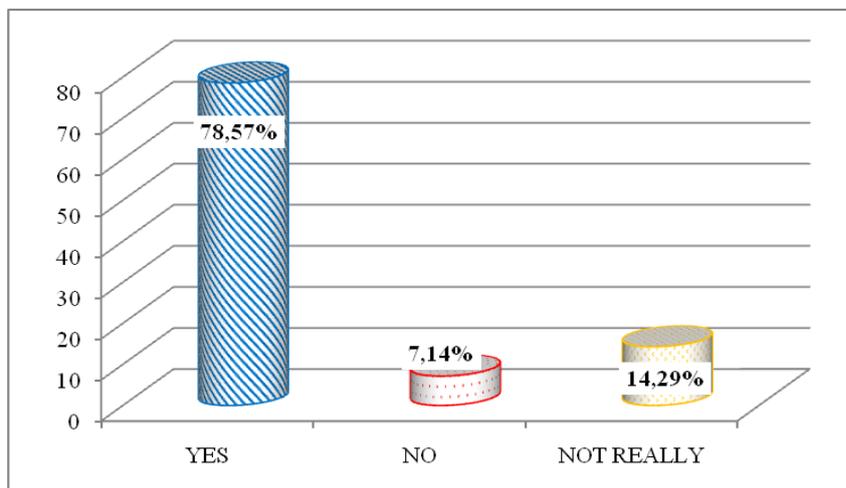


**Figure 5.9:** Novice Teachers' Preparedness for Assessment and Grading.

Assessment and grading is a major responsibility of classroom teachers. Guskey (2004) argues that teacher educators should make every effort to ensure that assessment and grading practices are clear, explicit, and objective as possible. The surveyed novice teachers in this study were asked whether their teacher training prepared them for classroom grading and assessment. (65.71%) of them believe that their teacher training did not really prepare them in assessment and grading methods. However, (24.29%) of the participants think that their teacher training did not prepare them at all to assess students' learning or assign grades. Only a minority of the surveyed high school novice teachers of English (10%) maintain that teacher training prepared them in assessment and grading methods. These results imply that novice teachers are inadequately trained in the areas of assessment and grading and they still have difficulties assessing and assigning grades objectively. These findings support the results of Guskey (2004) which maintained that novice teachers have limited knowledge and training in assessment and grading practices since teacher training courses placed little emphasis on developing appropriate measures of assessment and factors to consider when assigning grades.

**Q8: Do you think teacher training programs need to provide more practice than theory?**

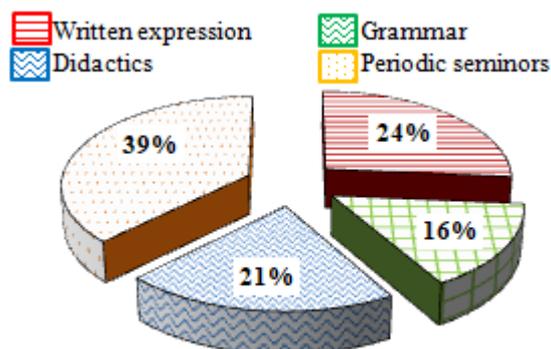
- Yes
- No
- Not really



**Figure 5.10:** Novice Teachers' Attitudes toward Training Programs that Provide more Practice than Theory.

Secondary school novice teachers of English appear to favor training programs that provide more practice than theory. The majority of the participant teachers (78,57%) declare in favor for training programs that offer more practice than theory. Only a very tiny minority (7,14%) refuses training programs that encourage theory over practice. Apparently, high school novice teachers of English are desperately in need for training programs that provide them with practical solutions to their everyday challenges. Widdowson (2003, p. 1) confirms that “there is a good deal of distrust of theory among English language teachers. They tend to see it as remote from their actual experience, an attempt to mystify common-sense by unnecessary abstraction”. This proves that novice teachers struggle to understand the teaching theories which lead them to prefer programs that target less theoretical teaching aspects. However, Widdowson (2012, p. 3) corroborates that “all pedagogic practice presupposes theory of one kind or another”. Therefore, novice teachers need to be made aware that theory is as important as practice in language teaching.

**Q9: Which components of your teacher training are effective for your classroom teaching? Please explain.**



**Figure 5.11:** Teacher Training Components that are effective for Novice Teachers.

Through data analysis, four categories or themes were determined that illustrated the courses that helped prepare novice teachers for the EFL classroom, namely the courses of grammar, writing, and didactics (TEFL) as part of their pre-service training and the periodic seminars which were conducted during their probationary period (see figure 5.11). The findings disclose that (16%) of the respondents believe that grammar courses were helpful while (24%) of the respondents believe that written expression courses were most helpful in preparing them for the classroom. Novice teachers reported that these classes helped them better understand grammar and the writing process and through this understanding, they were able to teach specific grammar rules and apply structure to the teaching of composition. One participant stated: “I enjoyed my teacher’s writing class; I think I can understand now some of the challenges students face when writing and I can be more empathetic. I wish I had more time to focus on writing, but it seems like everything is rushed in the classroom”. Another participant also had a similar response: “I believe that grammar and writing courses were very helpful in preparing me to teach grammar and writing. During my pre-service training, my professor provided us with valuable resources which prepared me for the classroom pressures”

The third category of courses that helped prepare novice teachers for the EFL classroom was didactics (TEFL). This category appears to be sustained by (21%) of the surveyed novice teachers who confirmed their appreciation for the TEFL courses offered in their pre-service training. They also asserted that they still use the materials they were presented in the Master’s teacher education program. One novice teacher stated: “The best class was the TEFL class. If you know how and what you are teaching and are comfortable with the material, then you will be more confident. This is important because pupils can tell when you get excited

about the lesson”. Another participant had a similar response: “I enjoyed some classes but I think that didactics (TEFL) class was the most valuable because it introduced me to the concepts of lessons and working with standards. I am still using many of the materials and ideas from this class”. While another novice teacher made the following comment:

I think the TEFL class ended up being the most useful course because our professor emphasized on how to connect to the students’ prior knowledge and experiences before starting a unit or lesson; if students are not hooked from the beginning it’s hard to keep their attention for the next coming weeks...

Finally, the majority of the informants estimated at (39%) believe that the periodic seminars conducted once they started teaching were very helpful as they were more practical than university courses. However, there were some comments stated that no courses can prepare teachers for the classroom. Only experiences in actual classrooms can prepare teachers adequately to teach. One of the surveyed novice teachers asserted that she felt very overwhelmed in her first year of teaching that she forgot much of what she learned during the teacher education program. She commented the following:

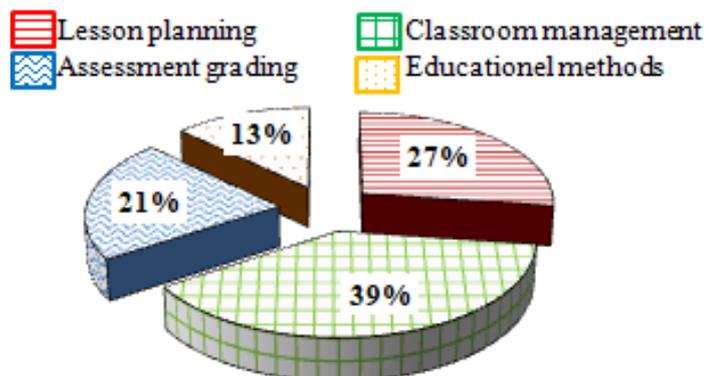
I think no course can completely prepare future teachers for the classroom. I don’t mean that they are not useful but those courses only serve as basis for the teaching process. I felt sometimes that I’m lost and I forgot the ideas and instructions and I can’t apply the theories and approaches that I was taught in the teacher education program. That’s why I think that teaching in a real classroom under the inspector guidance is the best way to prepare novice teachers

In a study conducted by Featherstone (1992), he indicated that only after a year or two of classroom experience, novice teachers can better use the theories and techniques learned in their pre-service teacher education program. He added that “the voices of teacher educators sometimes echo forward into these first years of teaching; the novice sometimes rehears, with a new ear, propositions which have seemed to make little impact on them at the time they were offered” (pp. 17-18). In other words, novice teachers are in need of at least two years of supervised classroom experience in order to have the opportunity and time to be more reflective not only about what they remember from their teacher education, but also about the

ways in which the theories and approaches learned during their preparation begins to make sense in the context of their new classrooms.

**Q10: What areas of teacher training would you have liked to receive more training in?**

**Please explain why?**



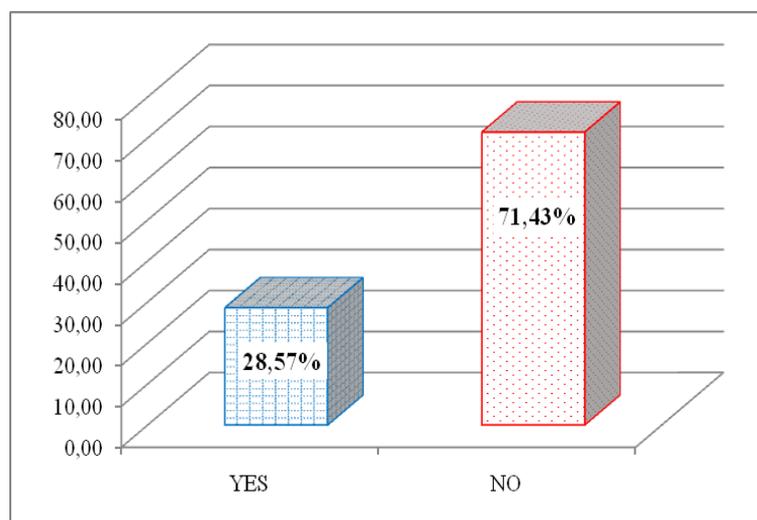
**Figure 5.12:** Areas of Teacher Training in which Novice Teachers Need Extra Training.

In this question item, the informants were asked which areas they would have like to receive more training or instruction in during their teacher training program. Many novice teachers listed multiple areas or subjects in their courses. The vast majority of respondents (39%) indicated that they would have enjoyed more classroom management classes. They explained that they would have liked to receive more instruction in dealing with problem children, more experience with student motivation and management, and management techniques geared towards high school settings. One of the informants further added that he was only required to take one semester in classroom management and it was very broad and didn't inform him very well on the whole process so had to do lots of study on his own time. The second category of informants estimated at (27%) wished for more instruction and training in the planning and implementation of lessons. Another percentage of the novice teachers (21%) discussed their desire for a deeper understanding of the assessment and grading process before starting teaching. They have asserted that they have never been introduced to methods of constructing tests even in the periodic seminars. While, (13%) of the participants mentioned their desire for more training about other educational methods.

**Q11: During your first year of teaching, did you participate in a supportive induction program?**

- Yes
- No

If yes, please describe your experience.

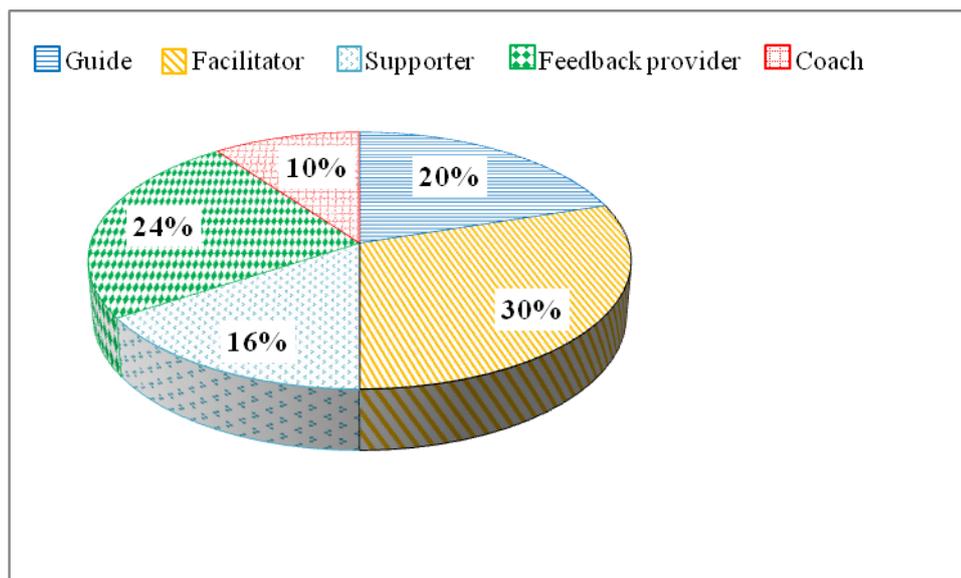


**Figure 5.13:** Novice Teachers' Participation in Induction Programs

The novice teachers were asked whether they have participated in a formal induction program during their first year of teaching. The answers were either “yes” or “no”. Results indicate that (71.43%) of the participants did not participate in a supportive induction program. However, (28.57%) indicated that they participated in a supportive induction program where they were assigned to experienced teachers as trainers to support and guide them particularly in terms of preparing lessons, working with students and adapting to the school environment. However, they complained about the level of support provided describing it as poor and insufficient. These results revealed that almost all novice teachers are employed without a satisfactory completion of a formal induction program even though this phase is considered the most intensive since teachers are new not only to teaching but also to the school, its routines, procedures and personnel.

**Q12: As a general rule, a mentor teacher is:**

- A guide
- A facilitator
- A supporter
- A feedback provider
- A coach

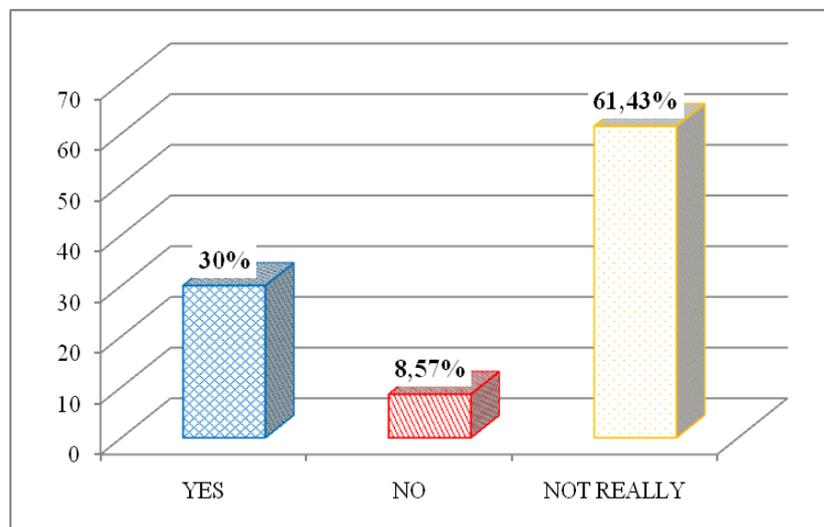


**Figure 5.14:** The Role of a Mentor Teacher.

The role of the mentor teacher is pivotal to the development of novice teacher during practicum (Zeichner, 2010; Ambrosetti & Dekkers, 2010; Hudson, 2007). Just as the teacher can make a difference to students' development, the mentor teacher can make the difference to novice teachers' development (Hudson, 2004; Glickman & Bey, 1990). Mentor teachers are recognized of their practical knowledge of the teaching profession which complements student teachers' theoretical knowledge that they have acquired from university courses. The secondary school novice teachers of English appear to be aware of the importance of the mentor teachers. Therefore, the findings of this investigation disclose that (30%) of the respondents believe that the role of a mentor teacher is to facilitate learners' development, (24%) of them think that the mentor's role is to give constructive feedback and create a climate that promotes conditions necessary for learning to take place. However, (20%) of the surveyed novice teachers think of the mentor teacher as a guide that help them make the transition from school to career. Only a minority estimated at (10%) of the respondents believe the mentor teacher to be a coach who is aware of his learners' needs and able to meet them.

**Q13: Do you qualify your mentor teacher as highly qualified and motivated?**

- Yes
- No
- not really



**Figure 5.15:** Novice Teachers' Attitudes toward the Quality of Mentor Teachers

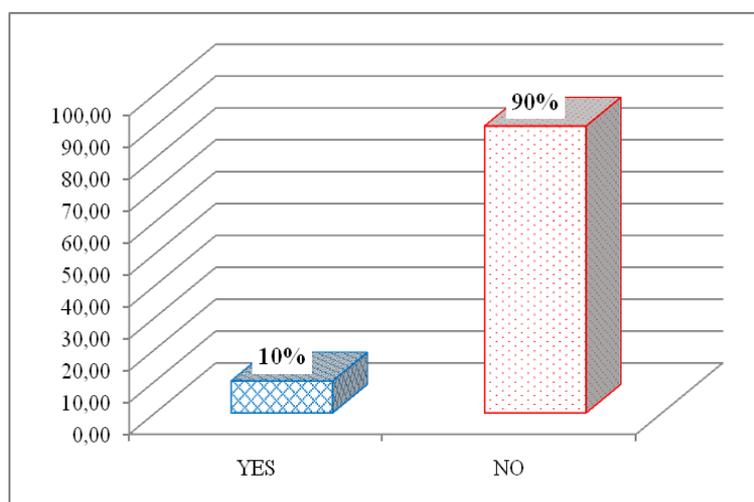
This question item appears to be of considerable interest as it tests EFL novice teachers' attitudes toward their mentor teachers. Mentoring, as defined by Barrera et al. (2010), is when a senior teacher provides guidance, advice, and emotional support to a junior or novice teacher in a relationship lasting over a lengthy period of time. The results obtained suggest that the majority of the sampled teachers (61.43%) seems to have ambivalent attitudes as they report that their mentor teachers are not really highly qualified. While 8.57% of the respondents think that their trainers are not at all qualified. The other 30% of them perceive their mentor teachers as highly qualified. However, some respondents reported the need for support, guidance and to be heard and accepted despite their weaknesses and mistakes. These results indicate that novice teachers developed reserved attitudes toward their teacher mentors who appear to be very strict and intimidating. Worthy (2005) indicated that "novice teachers are often expected to perform effectively and assume full teaching responsibilities right from the first day on the job" (cited in Mann and Tang, 2012, p. 473). Therefore, Howe (2006) emphasizes on assisting novice teachers by informing and teaching rather than assessing them especially during their informative years of teaching. This calls the need for quality preparation and careful selection of mentors (Hobson, Ashby, Malderez, & Tomlinson, 2009). In addition, teacher mentors need to be aware that training teachers is a lengthy process wherein they establish a supportive and reflective mentoring relationship rather than a

mechanistic and evaluative one in order to contribute to novices' development process. Through quality mentoring, novice teachers can develop a repertoire of problem-solving strategies for dealing with the practicalities and complexities associated with contextual school and teaching situations (Le Maistre & Paré, 2010).

**Q14: Have you enrolled in any kind of professional development program?**

- Yes
- No

If no, why?



**Figure 5.16:** Novice Teachers' Enrollment in Professional Development

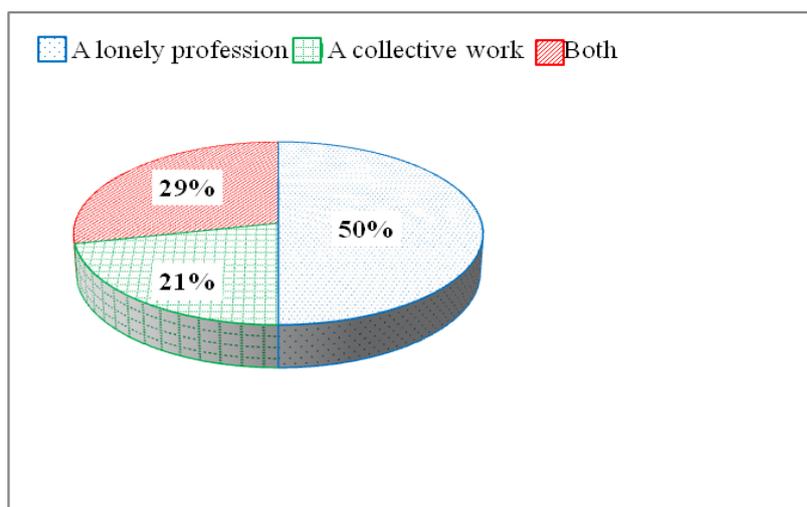
The results revealed that nearly all the participants (90%) did not participate in any professional development during their teaching career. Some of them claimed that they were not informed about any professional development activities while others stated that the universities and educational institutions within their region do not offer training or professional development. Only a minority estimated at (10%) reported their participation in workshops and seminars related to EFL teaching and learning. However, these participants complained about the short period of time devoted to the workshops which is typically one to two days in length at the most. Some further revealed that the workshops were not practical so they dropped the idea of future participation. These results indicate that some novice teachers willingly participate, some can hardly access the opportunity for various reasons, and others are not keen about the in-service training and professional development. According to Steffy (2000), novice teachers look for professional development opportunities mainly for the sake

of achieving tenure or salary increases. This means that the pursuit of self-improvement is often absent in novice teachers. Therefore, it is suggested that novice teachers work collaboratively with expert teachers or guides. This way, novices are more likely to successfully transition into the role of a veteran teacher who actively pursues leadership opportunities to improve his or her own teaching (Galman, 2009). However, it is worth mentioning that once teachers start to engage in teaching in the school settings, they will be provided with limited opportunities to participate in in-service training due to a plethora of daily responsibilities at school.

## Division B: Teaching and Teaching Context

### Q1: Teaching seems to be:

- A lonely profession
- A collective profession
- Both



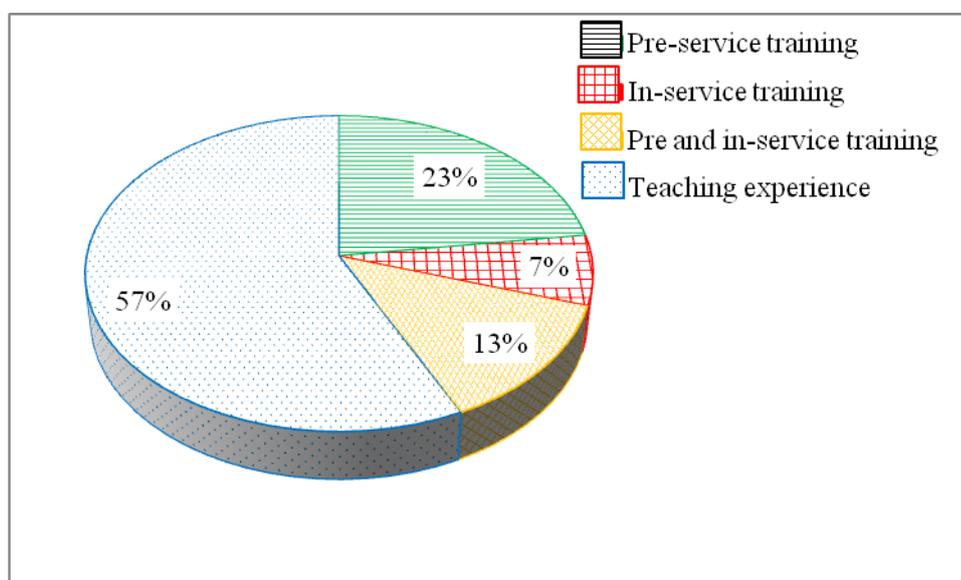
**Figure 5.17:** Teachers' Attitudes toward the Teaching Profession

This question item was asked to inquire about novice teachers' attitudes toward teaching and cooperation with their teacher colleagues. Lesson preparation is usually carried out by individual teachers which makes teaching a lonely profession (Burnaford et al., 2001; Nieto, 2003). However, sharing experience and counseling sessions makes teaching a team work as well. According to Tang (2012), the collective work is considered to be an essential mechanism for deepening novice teachers' content knowledge and developing their teaching abilities. The results of the current questionnaire suggest that the majority of the surveyed teachers (50%) perceive teaching as a lonely profession as each individual teacher works

alone; whereas 29% of them think that teaching is both a lonely and collective work. Only 21% of the participants believe that teaching is a collective work where teachers work together. These results indicate that novice teachers of English feel isolated and unsupported with a growing dissatisfaction for teaching as a career.

**Q2: Your teaching style is the result of:**

- Pre-service training
- In-service training
- Pre-service and in-service training
- Teaching experience



**Figure 5.18:** Novice Teachers' Teaching Style

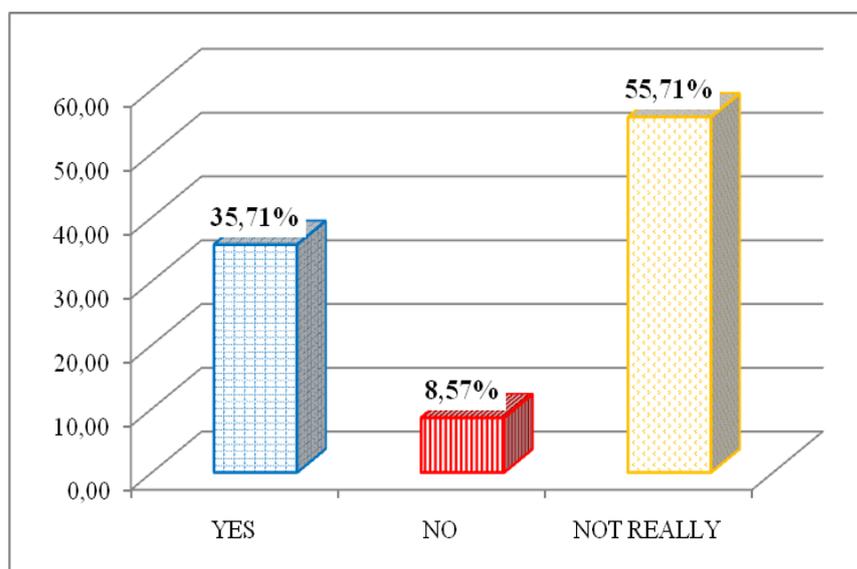
Usually teachers teach the way they were taught and as they gain teaching experience, their teaching styles may change to become more diverse or more focused (Pollock, J. E., 2007). Teaching style by definition refers to the teacher's preferred techniques to carry out the learning and teaching activities. Peterson (1979) defines teaching styles as "how teachers utilize space in the classroom, their choices of instructional activities and materials, and their choice of student grouping" (cited in Lunenberg & Ornstein, 2012, p. 448). The results obtained unveil that (23%) of the surveyed novice teachers of English believe that their teaching style comes from pre-service training programs. Only a very tiny minority (7%) believe that in-service training programs are the source for the development of their teaching

styles. However, the majority of the respondents (57%) claim that their teaching style derives from their teaching experience. According to Clark and Latshaw (2012), teachers' teaching styles change not only to suit the discipline they teach, but also the objectives of the course and students' needs. It is therefore essential that teachers consider the what and how of teaching, that is, the context, environment and students' learning styles in order to adapt their teaching styles to reach to all students in the class.

**Q3: Are you satisfied with your current teaching performance?**

- Yes
- No
- Not really

Please explain your answer.

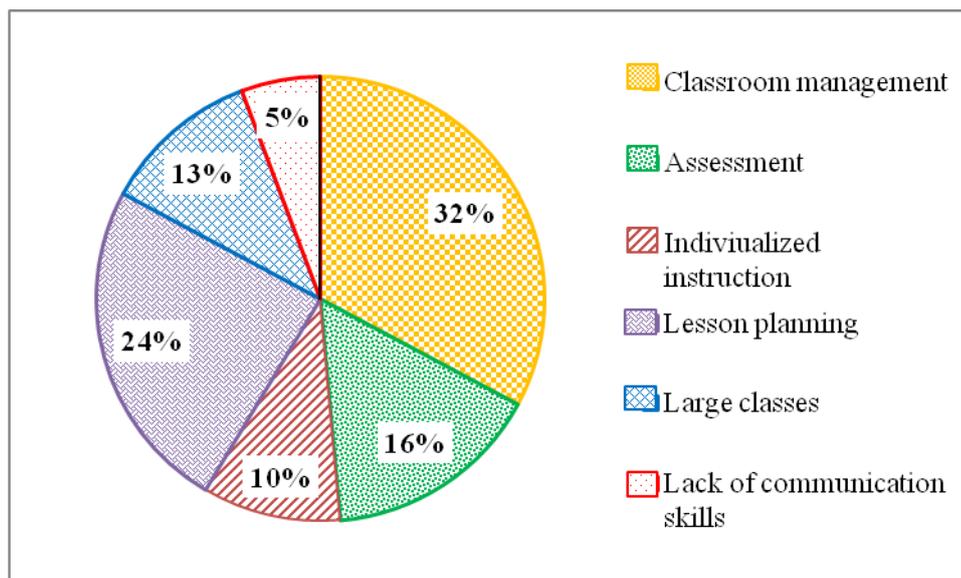


**Figure 5.19:** Novice Teachers' Attitudes toward their Teaching Performance

It was intended through this question to give the participants the opportunity to assess their overall teaching performance and indicate whether they are satisfied about it. Their responses revealed that the majority of informants (55.71%) are not really satisfied about their teaching performance. They explained that they would like to be better at explaining lessons of grammar and vocabulary to students, improve their English language level, and become better in planning their lessons, choosing resources and handling misbehaved students. In addition, regarding their personal qualities, novice teachers would like to be more creative and confident, more flexible and spontaneous and less nervous. (35.71%) of the informants claimed their satisfaction with their current teaching performance and this was based on their

colleagues and senior teachers' feedback. Only a minority of participants (8.51%) admitted that they are not satisfied at all with their teaching performance. They believe that they are in need of adequate training to practice the new teaching methods and develop their abilities especially with the fact that no one supports them or provides feedback about their teaching performance.

**Q4: What major challenges and problems did you face as a novice EFL teacher?**



**Figure 5.20:** Novice Teachers' Teaching Challenges

When asked about the major challenges they faced in their first years of teaching, all of the informants listed at least one area they considered challenging to deal with. The majority (32%) complained about classroom management and discipline issues. These findings are consistent with the results of a study conducted by Romeo and Gibson (2006). In their study, they followed one teacher throughout her first year of teaching and they examined the areas in which she felt less successful. Among the major categories they identified, classroom management ranked as the most common challenge. The participants in this study indicated that they find it difficult to manage unruly classes, to approach students' problematic behaviors and to sufficiently undertake leadership role in the classroom. This shows that these participants neither possess classroom management strategies nor trained up to use them effectively.

The second major challenge is planning for specific subject instruction. This area was mentioned by (24%) of the informants. Lesson Planning and preparation are usually considered to have a central role in teacher practice (Neill, Fisher & Dingle, 2010; Roche, Clarke, Clarke & Sullivan, 2014). While planning is concerned with knowing what and how to teach (such as sequencing content), preparation involves organizational elements including the getting and/or designing of materials (Fernandez & Cannon, 2005, as cited in Roche, Clarke, Clarke & Sullivan, 2014). Those participants state their desires to receive more instruction on how to plan comprehensive subject lessons as well as the whole year plans. They indicated that they find it difficult to establish specific learning goals when planning their lessons. According to John (2006), Steketee and McNaught (2007), Lesson planning is regarded as a difficult skill for teachers to learn, with a problematic range of outcomes. Therefore, there is an urgent need to support novice teachers get a deeper understanding of the teaching process rather than simply being provided with resources.

The third most mentioned challenge is assessment and grading, (16%) of the informants in this study appear to have difficulties in assessing their pupils. They expressed the need to have a deeper understanding and knowledge of assessment. One of the participants commented her need for teacher training programs that teach her what to assess, what to look for when giving assessments and how to use assessment tools. This shows that novice teachers lack the expertise necessary to assess pupils effectively. According to Airasian (1991),

Teachers, as a group, from preschool instructors to university professors, have little formal training in classroom assessment techniques. They are forced to function with partial knowledge, and feel most comfortable with procedures that can easily accommodate their busy days (p. 262).

In a similar vein, Stiggins (1997) indicated that

Whether the purpose is to diagnose learning or provide feedback to pupils, the assessment of pupils' development and achievement is central to the ongoing activity of teacher practice. Therefore, teachers are urged to become the "responsible, well-prepared classroom assessment professional (p. 9).

Another challenge is large classes (i.e., over crowdedness), (13%) of the informants rank large classes as a painful worry. Intuitively, overcrowded classes bring with it disruptive behavior and discipline related problems (noise, not doing homework, tardiness- unexcused absences and unpreparedness for class, etc.). In addition, this hinders the use of collaborative learning and also makes it difficult to provide all the learners with helpful feedback. Another thing related to this is the feeling of being overwhelmed by time constraints and workload. The participants complained about the lack of time which does not allow them to plan and implement a lesson, as well as deal with all the paper work. They realized that these time requirements impeded their ability to reflect meaningfully on their teaching. Some of the informants reported that they didn't realize these complexities when they were pre-service teachers and were confronted with them as soon as they became in-service teachers. Ornstein *et al.* (2011, p. 320) note:

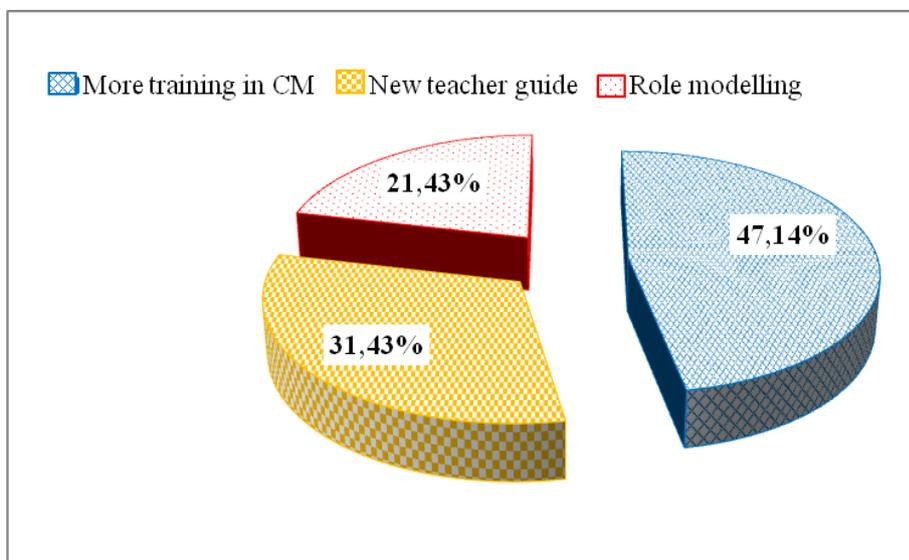
It is difficult for teachers to provide active, meaningful learning experiences when they must cope with the demands of large classes and class loads, a variety of duties and tasks outside their classrooms, pressures to cover a wide range of material and skills, and other such responsibilities.

One more difficulty or challenge is individualized instruction. This theme was mentioned by (10%) of the informants. They highlighted the reality of dealing with the various skill levels of pupils in their classrooms. According to Fuller (1969), novice teachers move on from worrying about the excessive number of students and inadequate teaching resources to more serious problems and begin to take interest in social and emotional needs of their students as well as the teaching strategies and how to adapt the content taught to their students' needs and levels. Thus, from being oriented towards themselves and their own survival, the new teachers direct themselves to the needs of their students. This shows that there is a change in the focus of those beginning teachers from concerns about self to concerns about tasks in their first years of teaching.

The last challenge that was mentioned by the informants is the lack of communication skills. (5%) of the surveyed teachers found themselves unable to communicate with other individuals especially when conflicts arose. The participants in this study expressed how it was difficult to enter the professional world with all its responsibilities juxtaposed with their

personal lives. Trying to redefine themselves as they transitioned from students to teachers was very stressful, especially for those who did not feel they had possessed the communication skills to deal with problems and to negotiate the different personalities and communication styles of all the other adults in the school. Clearly, novice teachers need better instruction and experiences in communication. Knowledge about the community, the student population and other characteristics and nuances can give them greater comfort and confidence when dealing with colleagues and parents.

**Q5: What could the training program have done to help you better handle these challenges?**



**Figure 5.21:** Novice Teachers' Suggestions for Addition to Better Handle their Challenges

As expected to be expressed by most novice teachers, 47.14% participants commented that more instruction and training in classroom management or how to handle discipline problems is much needed. This theme emerged as the dominant one in this question. Participants suggested more instruction in classroom management, modeling discipline situations, and instruction on how to motivate students in the classroom. Another emerging theme was developing a new teacher guide that would include how to plan lessons, organize large classrooms, and address administrative and parental issues. This suggestion was supported by (31.43%) of the participants. The rest of respondents (21.43%) suggested role modeling and observing experienced teachers in action. One participant wrote:

I would like to see more role plays as teachers in a preparatory program. Maybe they could have a workshop, at least, on classroom management practices. We need to explore the different sides of what it means to be a teacher, a guideline for his roles and habits

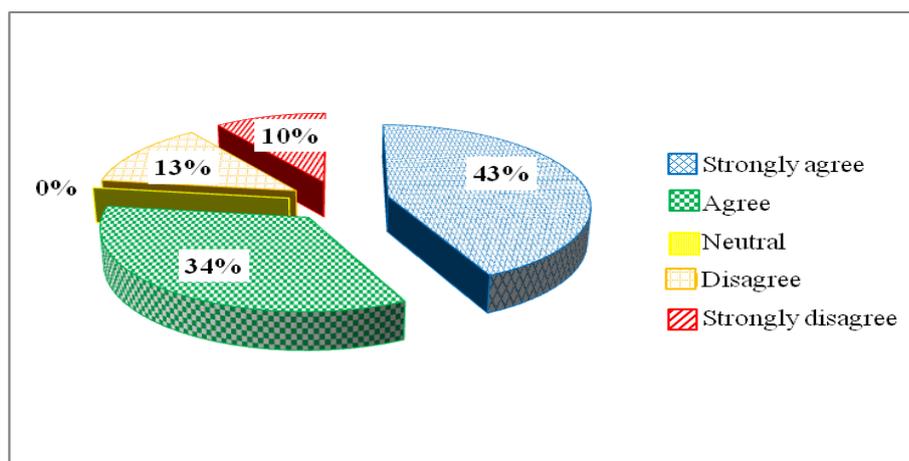
Another participant stated a similar opinion:

I think some of the classes could have had a focus on these elements, a class about dealing with different behavioral problems or situations or a class on finding a tool to motivate kids. I think theoretical books could give new students in the program, at the very least, some background information on the topics, some tools to have at their disposal. I feel it would give those that need help a little bit of a boost in the classroom.

If teachers are to become skilled at identifying and addressing the different learning problems, they need mentors to role model to help them learn how to reflect on their own teaching practices. Bansal (2009) indicated that novice teachers who have not developed the habit of reflecting on their own teaching, the veteran teacher may model self-reflection where he identifies a problem, proposes and analyzes for the beginner a variety of solutions. He further explained that in doing so, the veteran teacher can help the beginner think in terms of being guided by evidence, then, as the novice begins to develop more self-confidence and efficacy, the mentor may continue to propose solutions, but prompt the novice teacher to analyze them. Over time, the mentor teacher reduces the amount of guidance offered shifting from a directive to collaborative to facilitative role. Eventually, the novice teacher will be expected to autonomously propose and analyze various options for addressing a particular issue.

**Q6: Secondary school novice teachers face many problems concerning classroom management?**

- Strongly agree
- Agree
- Neutral
- Disagree
- Strongly disagree



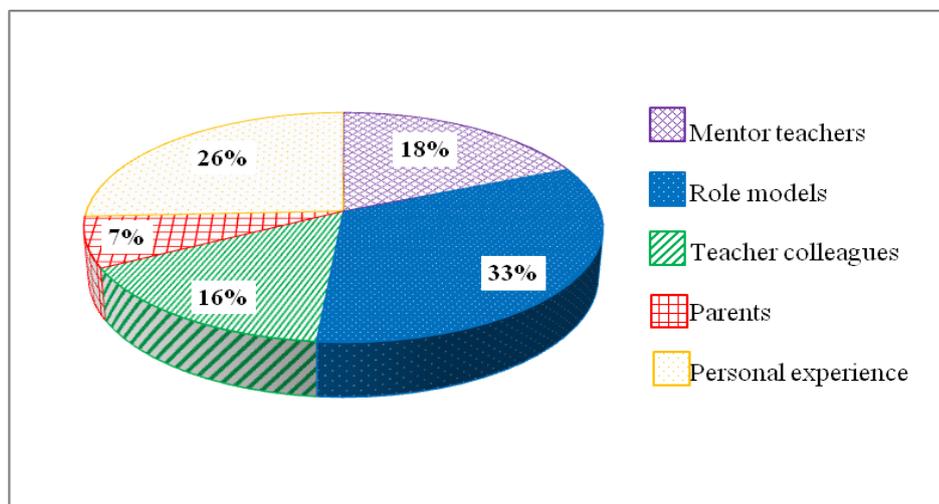
**Figure 5.22:** Novice Teachers' Attitudes toward CM Problems

As figure (5.22) shows, an overall of (43%) of the participants strongly agreed that classroom management is a serious problem that faces secondary school novice teachers. While (34%) of them simply agree, (13%) of the informants disagree. Only a tiny minority estimated at (10%) strongly disagreed. None of the participants chose the other answer (neutral) because on the one hand they did not encounter any classroom without some kind of discipline problems and on the other one all of them are aware of the situation because they have been teaching at least for two years.

Managing student behavior is often cited as the most serious concern among teachers in general (Cakmak, 2008; Chambers, 2003; Curran, 2003; Kaufman & Moss, 2010; Labaree, 2004; Manning & Bucher, 2003; Martin, Chiodo, & Chang, 2001; McNally, I'anson, Whewell & Wilson, 2005; Putman, 2009; Smith, 2000; Sokal, Smith, & Mowat, 2003; Rahimi & Asadollahi, 2012; Young, Milligan, & Snead, 2001). It is no wonder, then, that student behavior is "one area of classroom practice that leads to particularly intense questioning among novice educators" (Stoughton, 2007, p. 1025). To a large extent, beginning teachers understand that they will be evaluated by their administrators, co-workers, parents, and perhaps even the students themselves on the how well they control their classrooms (p. 1025). Of course, it is generally understood that effective classroom management begins with a solid and meaningful curriculum (Bransford et al., 2005, p. 37). But the novice teacher, who is taking baby steps towards masterfully running a classroom, has neither curriculum development experience nor first-hand knowledge of what classroom management strategies may work for a particular group of students.

**Q7: What are the sources of your knowledge about classroom management?**

- Role models
- Mentor teachers
- Teacher colleagues
- Others?.....

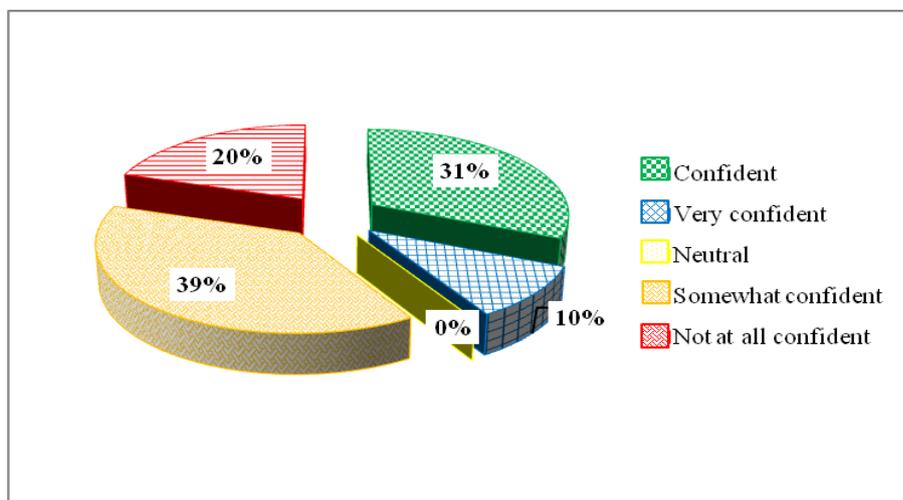


**Figure 5.23:** Novice Teachers' Sources of Knowledge about CM

In this category, we asked the informants about the sources of their knowledge about classroom management, the majority of the informants (33%) credited their role models as a source of knowledge for or influence on their classroom management beliefs and practices. However, (26%) of the informants identified mentor teachers from their university education program as a source of knowledge about classroom management. Only (16%) of the participants acknowledged that meetings with their teacher colleagues contributed to their perspectives and practices related to classroom management. However, when asked whether they have other sources of knowledge about classroom management, (26%) of novice teacher believed that their knowledge about classroom management emerged through their personal exploration and experience of spending time in the classroom interacting with children. Only (7%) of novice teachers mentioned their parents as influences on their beliefs of classroom management and how to relate to children and discipline. According to Garrahy et al. (2005), trial and error/learning from children's reactions were the most frequently cited sources of knowledge in addition to the influence of colleagues and student teaching mentors.

**Q8: How much confident are you in your ability to manage students' misbehavior?**

- Confident
- very confident
- neutral
- somewhat confident
- Not at all confident



**Figure 5.24:** Novice Teachers' Confidence to Manage Students' Misbehavior.

The participants were asked how confident they are in their ability to successfully manage student behavior in the classroom. The participants were asked to choose one of five ratings, ranging from “confident”, “very confident”, “neutral”, “somewhat confident”, or “not at all confident”. The majority of the participants answered “somewhat confident” with 39% response. (31%) answered “confident” while (20%) answered not at all confident. Only (10%) answered very confident. These results were expected to be expressed by the participants since they have earlier reported their dissatisfaction with their preparation in classroom management. As a result, the majority reported a low level of confidence in their abilities to manage a classroom. These findings seem to be contradicted by the results Merrett and Wheldall (1993) gathered after interviewing teachers about their satisfaction with their classroom management preparation. The participants in their study reported feelings of preparedness to establish standards of behavior that promote student learning.

**Q9: Describe your personal experience with classroom management.**

When asked about their experiences and the problems that they have encountered concerning classroom management, some of the surveyed novice teachers reported different

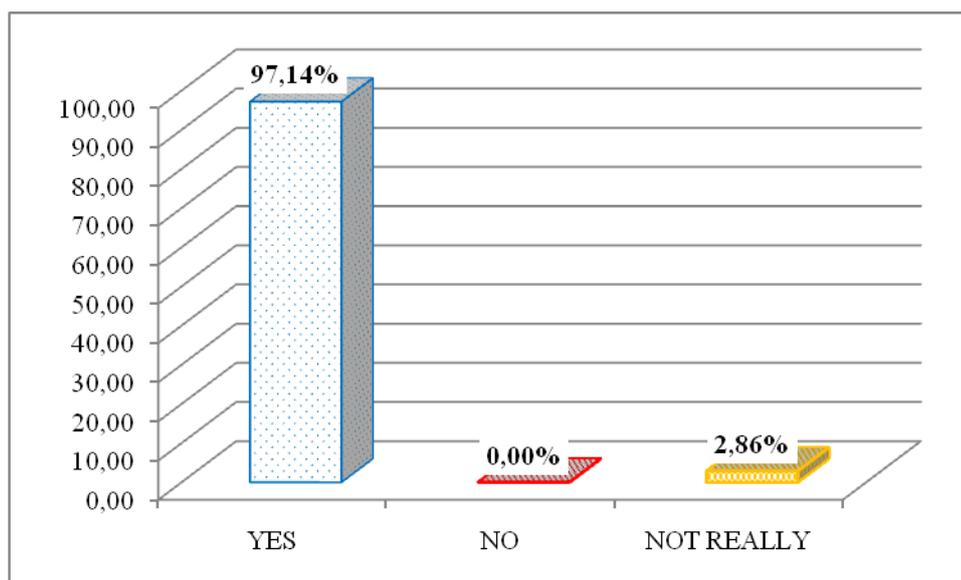
kinds of misbehavior problems. One of the participants stated, “One of my students always laughs during my class and he and his friends always interrupt me while teaching.” Another novice teacher said that some of her students fall asleep in the classroom while others keep talking or chatting with their mates and this makes it impossible to carry on the teaching-learning process properly. Moreover, a female teacher complained that her students try different kinds of tricks like asking unnecessary questions and playing around whenever she enters the classroom just to waste the time and avoid doing the activities. Problems might become more serious; one participant shared her experience as:

Types of misbehavior range from bullying classmates to even spoiling the learning atmosphere, making noise, and interrupting the class with evil intentions to impose their own agenda. No matter how carefully we teach, students will sometimes misbehave and disrupt the process of teaching and learning.

A similar contributing comment states that different misbehaviors might occur in classrooms, such as coming late to class, making noise during the lessons, insulting other students and paying no attention to teachers’ instructions. However, most of the participants reported that despite the different ways used to deal with the situation, they did not manage to succeed. The informants stated a number of reasons supposed to be responsible for students’ disruptive behavior. Some of them attributed it to students’ low level in English and their negative attitudes towards learning it. Other teachers raised the problem of lack of motivation as a major reason for students’ misbehavior.

**Q10: I need to deal with an understanding and compassionate inspector rather than all time-criticizing inspectors.**

- Yes
- No
- Not really
- Please explain your answer.



**Figure 5.25:** Novice Teachers' Attitudes toward Inspectors

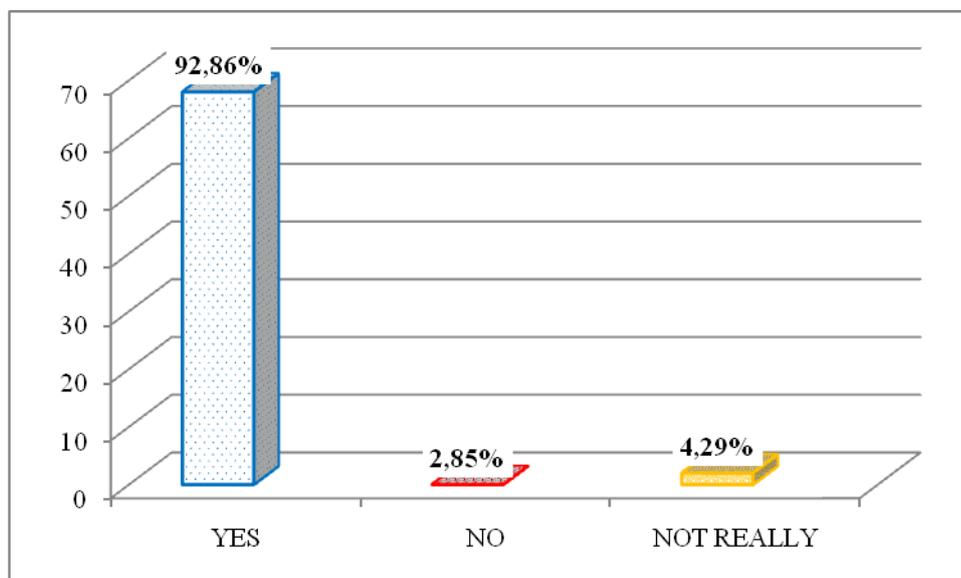
Usually school inspectors evaluate what teachers do in class. They inspect teachers' abilities to prepare lessons, write adequate worksheets, manage classrooms, implement the curriculum and achieve objectives. In other words, school inspectors evaluate teachers to ensure specific standards in teaching, learning, management and organization are being achieved and maintained. In addition, school inspectors are responsible to officially appoint or discharge teachers. This phase represents a real challenge for most novice teachers when inspectors come to nominate them for the post of permanent teachers. Another major task of school inspectors is novice teachers' ongoing education and training. It is inspectors' duty to provide a yearly planning of seminars along with their objectives. During these periodic seminars, a model lesson is presented along with the teaching of receptive and productive skills.

The relationship between novice teachers and inspectors is usually influenced by their attitudes, negative experiences and preconceived ideas that each one of them harbors. Novice teachers of English reported that their inspectors criticize and intimidate them in front of the

pupils. Moreover, the informants indicated that their inspectors are too demanding and overbearing and in total disregard of novices' professional and social constraints. The informants indicated that they start teaching with the same responsibilities as experienced teachers where in fact what they need the most is the inspectors' support. Therefore, the vast majority (97.14%) of the surveyed novice teachers of English express their need for inspectors who are understanding and compassionate rather than all-time criticizing inspectors. In addition, the informants revealed that they are not satisfied with the management of the periodic seminars as they draw little benefit from the inspectors' experience in the field of teaching. These results reveal novice teachers' concerns and apprehension of school inspectors which in turn cause them to develop negative attitudes toward them.

**Q11: I need to have a detailed teacher's guide.**

- Yes
- No
- Not really



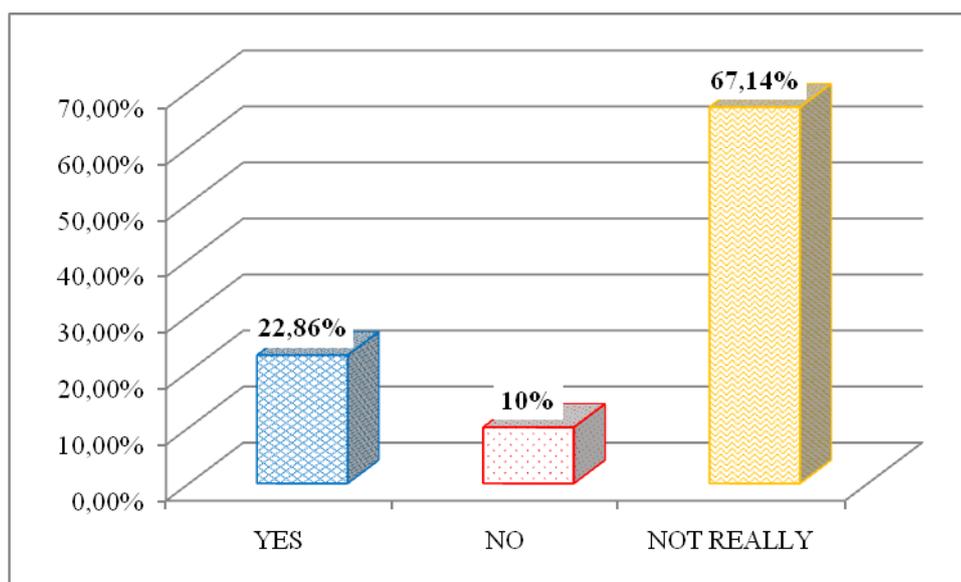
**Figure 5.26:** Novice Teachers Attitudes toward Teacher's Guide.

The teacher's guide is as crucial to effective instruction as students' textbooks especially for novice teachers whose inexperience and lack of adequate education and appropriate training prevent them from efficient interaction with their textbooks. When asked about their need for a detailed Teacher Guide, the overwhelming majority (92.86%) of the surveyed teachers expressed their wish to receive a detailed teacher guide to help them implement

effectively the high school textbook syllabus. This high percentage indicates that novice teachers nurture negative attitudes toward the current guide. Most teachers expressed their unhappiness with the content and structure with the teacher guide they possess. These results indicate that the current teacher guide do not come close to meeting novice teachers' needs and expectations since it presents inconsistent and failing guidance. In other words, the current teacher guide does not appear to provide the claimed guidance instead it only explains how to deal with a file and later provides keys to all the files.

**Q12: High school textbooks are easy to implement.**

- Yes
- No
- Not really



**Figure 5.27:** Novice Teachers' Attitudes toward Textbooks

Textbooks represent the backbone of the curriculum and the physical realization of the state policy. They are intended to preserve and promote the nation's attitudes, beliefs and values. Chall and Squire (1991, p. 319) stated:

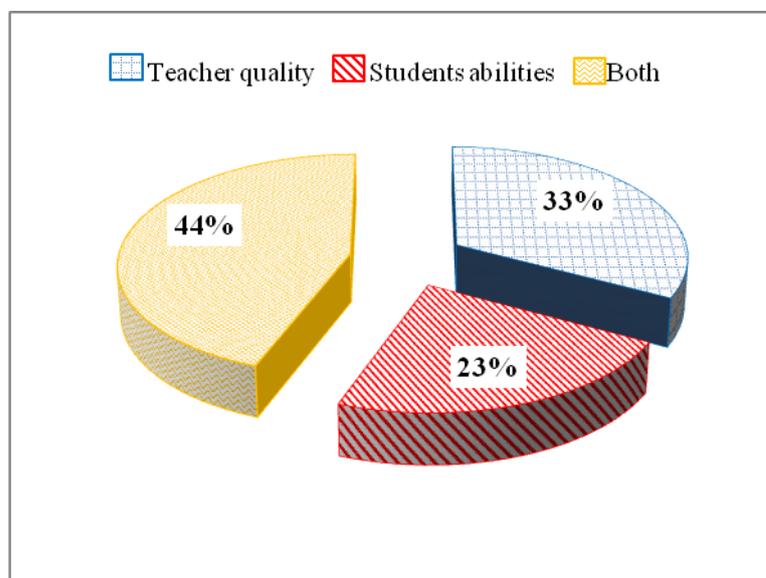
Textbooks exist at virtually all levels of schooling in all subjects and in all countries of the world. They are the least expensive tool for transmitting knowledge, the most easily used by teachers, the bedrock

structure traditionally employed by schools to provide curriculum coherence. To many parents and community leaders, they remain a symbol of educational achievement.

The respondents to our questionnaire provide almost the same answers and figures as in the previous question-items. When asked whether the high school English textbook is easy to implement, the majority of informants (67.14%) believe that the content of textbooks are not really easy to implement. While (22.86%) of novice teachers sustain that textbooks are easy to implement, only a tiny percentage estimated at (10%) think that textbooks are not at all easy to implement. These results prove that novice teachers of English have not been trained adequately to implement the content of textbooks according to the innovative methods. Achour (2003, p. 3) asserted that “an adequate teacher training course is undoubtedly the necessary step to implement an efficient educational policy to familiarize our teachers with the innovative methods”.

**Q13: The largest impact on students’ achievement comes from:**

- Teacher’s quality
- Students abilities
- Both



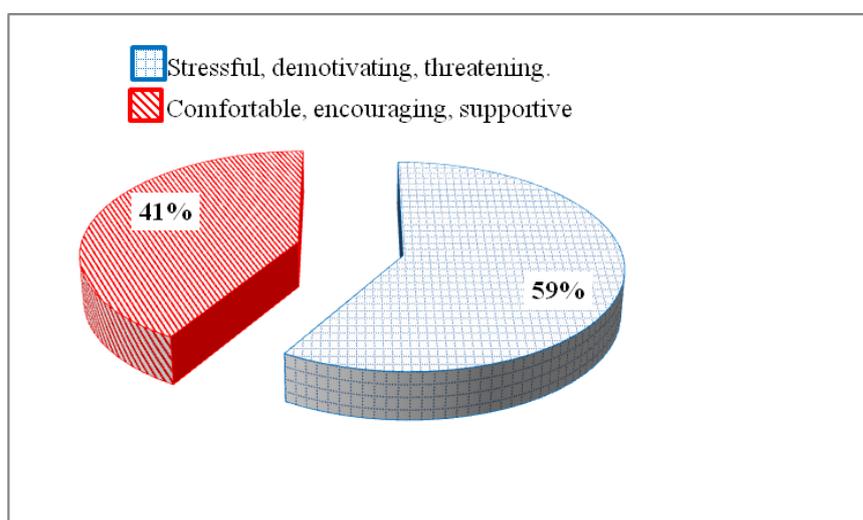
**Figure 5.28:** Novice Teachers Attitudes toward Impact on Students’ Achievement

Recently, the accumulated research literature continues to provide evidence that students’ achievement is closely related to teachers’ quality and teaching quality. Darling-Hammond (2010) quoted Ferguson “Skilled teachers are the most critical of all schooling inputs” (p.

106). The results of the current questionnaire revealed that the majority of the surveyed novice teachers (44%) believe that both teacher quality and students' abilities represent the major impact on students' achievement. However, 33% of the informants think that only teacher quality represents the major impact on students' achievement. Only a minority of novice teachers (23%) perceive that the large impact on students' achievement comes from students' abilities. These results indicate that novice teachers seem to recognize the critical importance of well-prepared teachers for students' learning and achievement. Therefore, King and Newman (2000) state that "since teachers have the most direct, sustained contact with students and considerable control over what is taught and the climate for learning, improving teachers' knowledge, skills and dispositions through professional development is a critical step in improving students' achievement".

#### Q14: Your School Context is:

- Comfortable, encouraging and supportive
- Stressful, demotivating and threatening



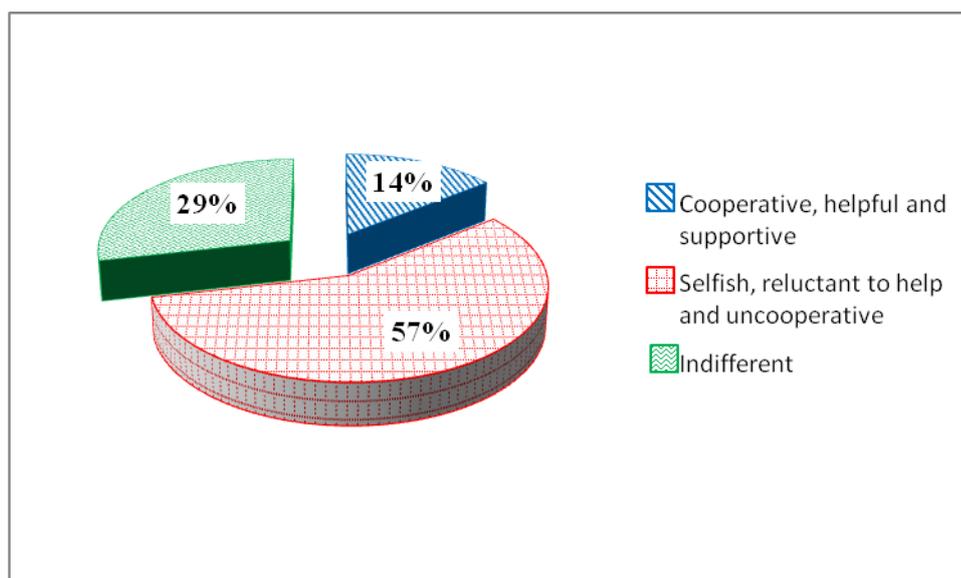
**Figure 5.29:** Teachers' Attitudes toward School Context

The school context, with all its constraints, seems to negatively affect the majority of novice teachers' attitudes. (59%) of the respondents do not appear that comfortable, especially as they perceive their school context to be stressful, demotivating, threatening. Only (41%) of the surveyed novice teachers think that their school context is comfortable, encouraging, supportive. These results show a clear dissatisfaction among novice teachers with their school environment. In addition, it is worth maximizing that as these teachers spend more years

teaching, their enthusiasm and job satisfaction diminishes accordingly. According to Farell (2000), dissatisfied employees may quit an organization in response to their job dissatisfaction, or they may remain in the organization but exhibit passive withdrawal behaviors such as putting worthless effort. The teachers' job satisfaction, particularly at secondary school level, is vital and the value of secondary education is equally undeniable. Therefore, it is very important to provide novice teachers with the necessary facilities so that they feel satisfied with the status of their job. Adequate performance of teachers can only be expected if they are satisfied with their jobs.

**Q15: As a general rule, your teacher colleagues are:**

- Cooperative, helpful and supportive
- Selfish, reluctant to help and uncooperative
- Indifferent



**Figure 5.30:** Teachers Attitudes toward their Colleagues

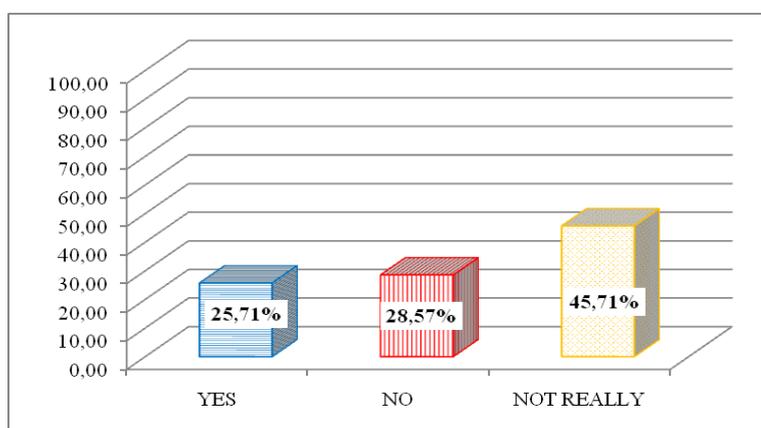
Collegial relationships have been repeatedly found to influence novice teachers' feelings of job satisfaction and sense of success with students, and ultimately their job retention chances (Fantilli & McDougall, 2009; Okumus & Biber, 2011). There is much evidence in the literature that gaining teacher colleagues' support and feeling socially comfortable is critical in the first years of teachers' journey. However, novice teachers in this study nourish negative attitudes toward their teacher colleagues especially as the majority of them (57%) say that their teacher colleagues are selfish, reluctant to help and uncooperative. However, (29%) of them who perceive their teacher colleagues as indifferent. Only a minority estimated at (14%)

does not share this attitude and think that their teacher colleagues are cooperative, helpful and supportive. These findings show that novice teachers are having a hard time dealing with their colleagues and have limited interaction with them which can create an isolating and intimidating atmosphere in the school. This can lead to many novice teachers feeling dissatisfied in their careers, and the risk of burnout becomes high.

**Q16: Do you find your school administrators to be supportive?**

- Yes
- No
- Not really

Please explain your answer.



**Figure 5.31:** Novice Teachers' Attitudes toward Administrators

When asked about the level of administrative support they received in their schools, most of the participants (45.71%) in this study indicated that their school administrators were not really supportive. In the comments section, they expressed a lack of support with expressive and instrumental elements. The lack of administrative support with expressive support elements perceived by the novice teachers in this study were: lack of respect and administrators being unapproachable. Many of the participants indicated that they were not treated with respect and that they were blamed for doing things incorrectly. One of these participants stated,

I was not treated in a fair way or with respect. We would be blamed for things that we were supposed to do, but didn't know that we were supposed to do them because we were not prepared for them

Another participant described her experience with her school administration as:

They show that they are superior to us they don't respect us as they should this is maybe because they think that we're too young to be professionals, or that we don't enough experience to be considered a professional. So, they keep treating us like students.

Another aspect of expressive support is effective communication. Many participants conveyed that they viewed their administrators as being unapproachable. They perceived their administrators as being unapproachable when they needed to ask questions, and this eventually resulted in a reduced contact between them and less job satisfaction. One of the participants stated that administrators should be more conscious of what novice teachers need in order to enter the profession, and that they should be doing more to make them feel more welcomed. As she reported: "the way they look at you makes you unable to approach them, they always look angry about something. They are not people that you could contact easily and talk with about your problems. You just feel very isolated". Dealing with unapproachable administrators, some participants commented that they were uncertain on how much help to ask for and they were worried if it was the administrators' job to offer support.

In addition to the lack of expressive support, the participants perceived a lack of instrumental support. Instrumental support is the extent to which teachers perceive their administrators as providing the necessary support to effectively accomplish their everyday teaching tasks (DiPaola, 2012). Lack of administrative instrumental support elements perceived by the novice teachers were: not scheduling adequate planning times for teachers and a lack of resources or distributing them unfairly. This perceived lack of administrative support led to feelings of frustration, helplessness and hopelessness among the participants in this study. However, some participants (25.71%) described their experiences with their school administrators in a more favorable way. They expressed their satisfaction with the support provided to them and how they felt welcomed in an environment where they can lean on each other. One of the participants described her situation as:

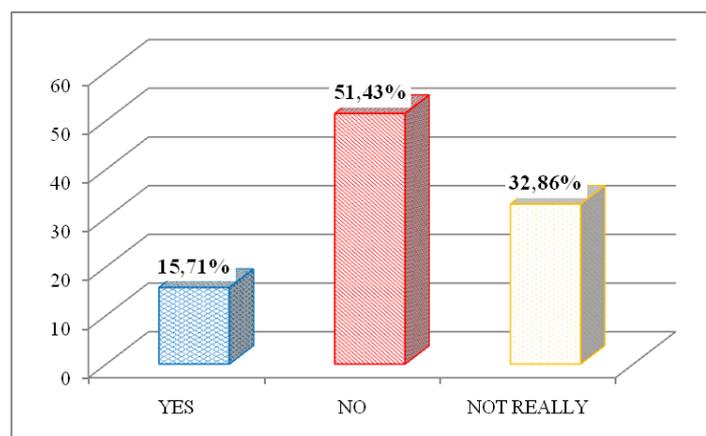
They make the time to meet with you and discuss any concerns that you might have. They gave me the resources I need to do my job. They

always emphasize that everyone in the school is considered part of the same team. And that we are here to help each other

Many of these support elements expressed by the participants can be resolved through effective communication. Effective communication and listening builds relationships, and effective administrators establish numerous ways of communicating with their staff (Terek et al., 2015). Administrators are expected to listen to novice teachers' concerns because there is so much that novice teachers are not prepared for in college. Therefore, it is part of school administrators' job to help and support novice teachers.

#### Q17: Interacting with students' parents is difficult

- Yes
- No
- Not really



**Figure 5.32:** Novice Teachers' Attitudes toward Parents

Usually, parents are reluctant to take the initiative and visit their children's teachers unless a serious matter or disruptive behavior occurs. However, there is what we call "open doors day" where teachers and parents meet and have an open talk about students' marks, progress, behavior and achievement. When asked whether they find it difficult to interact with students' parents, the majority of participants (51.43%) answered negatively. However, (32.86%) of them revealed that interacting with students' parents is not really difficult but it makes them feel nervous and stressed at times especially when parents demand to know why their children had not performed as they hoped but they indicated that they back off and drop the matter in such cases for fear of causing problems. This means that novice teachers

somehow managed a way to work with parents. These findings contradict those found by Rieg, Paquette and Chen (2007) where the participants in their study thought that dealing with parents was difficult during their initial teaching experience indicating that parents called or wrote every day, which was stressful to deal with, or that they were frequently questioned by parents as to how the children were behaviorally and academically assessed.

### **Section Three: Novice Teachers' Suggestions**

The ultimate question asked the informants to add any comments or suggestions they find appropriate to help improve teacher training. Most of them suggested more practical approaches and real world experiences. They explained that the current theories studied at university about pedagogical knowledge for teaching need to be supported through practical applications within the school setting. There needed to be a balance between the amount of theory and practice in preparing EFL high school novice teachers. They further explained that there was an excess of theory and not enough emphasis on practice. As clarified by one of the informants' response, "I think the five years could have been spent learning more about what to teach. I think teaching theories are important but there is an overabundance of theory and not enough emphasis on the strategies and content we need for teaching". The novice teachers indicated that more field experiences would allow for "greater opportunities to learn the art of teaching", "build connections with teachers to promote professional conversations" and "give more chances for novice teachers to make sense of what they are learning at university and why they are learning it". Thus, they suggested that teacher training could be reorganized to include practicum days as a way to connect theory and practice.

The participants also pointed out that teacher training can be enhanced if university teachers presented and incorporated pedagogical approaches into their teaching of the courses. Some of the informants commented that in most of their subjects they just learnt the content knowledge of teaching while the pedagogical knowledge was ignored. Another participant shared the same opinion said "we learnt so much about what to teach, this needs to be combined with how to teach and be shown strategies to help us". Another novice teacher further added that "some of the lecturers focused on the content but in fact we need to know the pedagogy for teaching that content". They also expressed the need for subjects that focus on providing relevant knowledge and skills required for teaching. The content of these subjects need to include classroom management, lesson planning, assessment and testing,

curriculum and pedagogy development, and teaching strategies. It seemed that learning about these topics at university would empower prospective teachers to commence their school experiences with positive attitudes.

A further suggestion to enhance future teacher training was the inclusion of modeling by lecturers and tutors. Comments like “why don’t all teachers model the approaches we would be using” and “we learn so much more when teachers demonstrate classroom strategies”. Modeling was expressed by participants to be beneficial to their training. They commented that they found benefits in learning from accomplished teachers through their practices when their lessons and strategies are modeled which will give them the courage to try it themselves. This data confirms the suggestions made in the literature that the modeling provided by mentors and university teachers as part of teachers’ training program can be a powerful tool for improving the performance of novice teachers.

Participants also noted that the course design needed to ensure teachers incorporated greater emphasis on hands-on experience. Just as there is a need to engage early adolescent learners in hands-on activities, it appeared that university students feel the same about their learning. They expressed the need for teachers to practice the strategies taught in lectures. Comments like “we need to learn by doing” and “spending hours listening to lectures is not conducive to learning nor does it build the confidence for teaching” summarized the novice teachers’ views about university course improvements.

They also suggested the incorporation of visual aids and technologies in lectures. They claimed that by observing teachers using such techniques to engage learners, they can feel better prepared and confident for implementing these ideas into their own teaching. Therefore, they suggest adjusting teacher training programs by incorporating courses that help prospective teachers properly use such technologies.

### **5.2.6 Summary of the Main Findings**

To sum up, relying on the participants’ answers to the questionnaire, we can draw the following conclusions:

- Novice teachers perceive their teacher training in unfavorable light and nurture negative attitudes toward it. This reflects the inadequacy and failure of teacher training programs to prepare teachers for the realities of the EFL classrooms.
- The majority of novice teachers prefer practical teacher training programs that target less theoretical teaching aspects. Theoretical knowledge is only meaningful when it is applied in the classroom
- In-service training and professional development courses are either scarce or incompatible with novice teachers' needs.
- Novice teachers face many difficulties in teaching mainly with managing overcrowded classes, planning lessons and assigning grades.
- The majority of novice teachers revealed that their teacher training was not beneficial and very lacking particularly in areas of classroom management, lesson planning, assessment and grading practices. They maintained that these areas require practical training and preparation in a range of contexts so that strategies can be trialed and refined to cater for each cohort being taught. However, they claimed to have benefited from the seminar courses during their probationary period in addition to the modules of didactics (TEFL), written expression and grammar they had attended at university.
- Novice teachers developed negative attitudes toward the instructional materials used. They expressed difficulties in implementing the content of textbooks according to the innovative methods. This can be attributed to the absence of a well-planned training that targets to explain how to use the textbooks effectively.
- Novice teachers teaching style stems from their own try-and-error, hands-on experience rather than from their former teacher training.
- Novice teachers do not seem to perceive their mentors and inspectors in a favorable light. The majority considered their mentors to be inadequately qualified as they were unable to provide them with necessary feedback and guidance. Besides, they described

their inspectors as too demanding and overbearing and in total disregard of their professional and social constraints. Moreover, they indicated that their inspectors keep criticizing and intimidating them instead of actually advising them. Therefore, they reported the need for a supportive and reflective teacher-inspector relationship rather than a mechanistic and criticizing one.

- Novice teachers reported poor professional relationships with their colleagues. The questionnaire results disclose that the majority of novice teachers report that their colleagues are selfish, reluctant to help and uncooperative. With such unfavorable attitudes, in-school cooperation and coordination between teachers become limited and this contributes to novice teachers' feelings of isolation and helplessness.
  
- The school context with all its constraints seems to negatively affect the majority of novice teachers' attitudes as they perceive their school context to be stressful, demotivating and threatening. Moreover, the majority of participants expressed a lack of administrative support with expressive (lack of respect and administrators being unapproachable) and instrumental (inadequate planning time and unfair distribution of resources) elements. These results show a clear dissatisfaction among novice teachers with their school environment.

### **5.3 Novice Teachers' Interviews**

As mentioned previously, the second data collection tool used in the current investigation is the interview. The latter was a digitally recorded semi-structured interview that was conducted in different points in time according to the teachers work schedules. This interview was used to supplement the findings and to provide an in-depth insight into the questionnaire results. In addition, this interview serves as a tool to present to the reader the experiences of these beginning teachers in enough detail and depth that those who read this study will relate to that experience, learn how it is developed, and deepen their understanding of the participants' experiences (Seidman, 2006).

### **5.3.1 Participants' Profiles**

An important aspect of any research work is to provide a short description of the participants' profiles (Nunan, 1992). With respect to the present work, semi-structured individual interviews were conducted with three participants. The following are their profiles:

**NT1:** she has been teaching English for two years. She holds a Master's degree in sciences of the language. She joined teaching in 2017 after passing an examination. She became qualified after one year probationary period. She chose to teach English because she loved the language and believed she was good at it when she was a high school student. She was particularly influenced by one of her teachers.

**NT2:** she has been teaching English for two years. She holds a Master's degree. She did supply teaching in secondary and middle school levels before she was confirmed as a high school teacher. She wanted to become a doctor but she did not obtain the required grades in the baccalaureate exam so she chose to become a teacher of English in order to have a regular income. She notes that she likes her profession now.

**NT3:** he has been teaching for three years. He has studied English at university for five years and has achieved a masters' degree. He passed an examination and became a permanent high school teacher. He started teaching directly and had only two weeks training with a veteran teacher. He chose to become a teacher influenced by his father. He is hoping to become a university teacher in the future.

### **5.3.2 Analysis of the Interview**

#### **5.3.2.1 Choice of the Teaching Profession**

The participants (T1, T3) explained that they chose teaching because they wanted to become teachers. They noted that they may have been influenced either by their teachers or parents to become teachers but they were not forced to choose the teaching profession. They chose it because they love it, as they said:

I chose teaching because I love it....I wanted to be like my high school teacher of English...I used to admire her...so it was my dream to become a teacher of English....nobody forced me to choose it....my

family always praised my English language skills and this has encouraged me even more to become a teacher (NT1)

Teaching is a dream come true....I always wanted to become a successful teacher as my father...I chose to become a teacher because I believe that being a teacher of English is a privilege.....English is a popular and an international language.....I think I can do this job well (NT3)

However, the other novice teacher revealed that she never wanted to become a teacher. She chose the teaching profession as a last resort in order to have a regular income. However, she pointed out that she likes the English language and believes she is good at it.

Teaching was not my first choice.....I never thought of becoming a teacher but circumstances led me to choose it....in fact I wanted to become a doctor but unfortunately didn't happen .....so I decided to study English since I was good at it ...and then worked toward the goal to become a teacher because there were no other jobs... (NT2)

There have been discussions in the literature about the relationship between the type of motivation to teach and the degree of professional commitment and engagement. Teachers who chose teaching for intrinsic reasons were proved to be more committed to their profession compared with those who are interested in the pragmatic gains of teaching (Wang & Fwu, 2001). Therefore, in teacher training programs, it should be a custom to explore and develop prospective teachers' motivational attitudes and beliefs to become teachers from the very beginning of their education. This could be attained by engaging teacher trainees in awareness raising activities where they reflect on their own motivation and aspirations for teaching.

### **5.3.2.2 Good Teacher Characteristics**

When the novice teachers were asked to define a good teacher, as an attempt to bring out their inner thoughts and beliefs about the important elements a teacher should have, they referred to their learning experiences as students. Good teacher characteristics fall into three categories: personality traits, content knowledge and pedagogical knowledge. All three novice teachers defined a good teacher as someone who is well prepared, understanding, has good

management skills and flexible while teaching. Other characteristics that were mentioned were knowledgeable of the subject matter, able to motivate students, patient, and able to establish good rapport with students and their parents. Most of these characteristics were mentioned in studies conducted by Koutsoulis (2003) and Erkmen (2010). Below are the novice teachers' comments:

A good teacher is a well-prepared teacher, when I say prepared it means that s/he should have the necessary preparation and knowledge to understand his pupils also a good teacher needs to know what to do to help his pupils...sometimes a good teacher should be flexible, because sometimes you prepare something and students don't want to do it, so a good teacher should have the ability to change the flow of the lesson and avoid management problems (NT1)

The good teacher must have a perfect preparation and knowledge of his/her job, and field...in addition to other characteristics...just to be a knowledgeable teacher is not enough, so there are some other characteristics like being patient, understanding for example, sometimes students don't need a teacher but need to see you as a good friend...at that time you have to behave as if you are a friend but at the same time he needs to keep some distance to avoid discipline problems (NT2)

A good high school teacher is someone who is prepared to teach his subject matter, keep the classroom atmosphere positive and help students whenever they are needed to. I used to have a teacher like that. She used visual aids like pictures, posters and so on and gave us the opportunity to better understand the subject. She taught us with the help of watching films. She was always well-prepared, and taught the subject in such a way that all students became excellent listeners. She had very enthusiastic skills, she used to ask us if we had any problems, or if we needed help, she told us we could go to her office, she used to say I can help you any time you want ( NT3)

Novice teachers' learning experiences did appear to have had an influential impact on the kinds of teachers they wanted to be. Knowledgeable, skilled, and positive-minded teachers

significantly affect learners' achievement, and prove to be a key to bridging the achievement gap. Kaplan and Owings (2002, p.1) argue "better teaching is the key to higher student achievement, if teachers do not know enough, students cannot learn enough". Good teachers can positively change the lives of students so it will be helpful to offer them useful programs which will illuminate them about what they should or should not do in their classes.

There was also an emphasis on the idea of teachers who are able to establish a solid understanding of subject content and then progress to the more complex teacher knowledge. Having other knowledge was equally valued including the knowledge to balance students' demands, manage the classroom and time and the ability to adapt, modify and use new knowledge. Any attempt to define effective teacher characteristics, it is necessary to understand that it involves more than a good grasp of content knowledge and skillful use of pedagogy (Duffy, 2009).

### **5.3.2.3 Novice Teachers' Training and Preparation**

All the participants reported a general dissatisfaction with their preparation. They expressed their unhappiness with the contents taught in their teacher training. They believed that their pre-service training courses were too theoretical and lacked the practical components. They stressed the need for more practical teaching courses in the training programs in order to have a balance between theory and practice. Therefore, they believed that there should be a well-developed teacher training program able to prepare linguistically and pedagogically competent teachers. The following are their responses:

I'm going to stay with somewhat. It was not effective...but having some English skills was helpful to me because I didn't know what level high school pupils were coming into my classroom. . . . in the beginning this is what most of the time I felt like I wanted to know immediately. Yes...then as time goes by, there were many things I wished I knew and still think now that I wish I knew, of how to best teach somebody who doesn't understand you or understand what school is like, or what they're supposed to do. So I think that there was a lot of practical stuff that I missed but having my language skills was very helpful to me. (NT1)

The second and third novice teachers described their training to teach at high school as:

Probably not very good because we didn't really learn any effective ways to teach high school students. I feel like I had somewhat good teachers who taught me some useful things, but it still doesn't compare with what I've learned this year and what I know I need to improve upon for next year....but sometimes I feel like nothing can really prepare you for what you are going to do in the classroom, gaining experience is what is most important here. (NT2)

I don't feel I was adequately prepared by my teacher training, maybe I learned much at college, but I feel that many of my classes taught me "trivial things" that were only for tests. Or rather, I didn't have appropriate field experience to be able to understand how to best relate the subject matter taught at college to my classroom. Now being in my own classroom, I reflect on many college classes and look for class notes but it's not helpful. (NT3)

All of the interviewees' responses had similar tones. Their comments highlighted their perceptions that they did not feel they were adequately prepared for some of the issues they faced during their first years of teaching. They cited areas like overcrowded classes and misbehaved students among the issues that were not covered in their training. They believed that their teacher training was sometimes based on ideal classrooms and ideal situations. Therefore, they expressed the need for instructions and assignments that relied more on actual realistic teachers' classroom experiences. They further added that teachers need in-service training programs that train teachers to use specific techniques appropriate to their classes. These findings are consistent with those found in a research conducted by O'Neal, Ringler, and Rodriguez (2008). Their research results revealed that the participating teachers did not feel prepared for teaching and most had not taken courses that included effective strategies as part of their teacher education programs. This concluding information about new teachers' perceptions on their preparation should stimulate interest and possibly concern for consideration among teacher education programs and schools across this nation.

#### **5.3.2.4 The Theory-Practice Gap**

Another major theme that emerged during the discussion of the participants' perceptions regarding their training, according to their descriptions, closely mirror the existing definition

of the theory-practice gap, a hardship they all faced. These three novice teachers believed that teaching would be similar to what they have been taught in their teacher education or to what they have read about in books. However, as soon as they started their teaching job, they realized that theory and practice were different and that they need to work hard to develop their own theories of teaching. In general, the participants felt overwhelmed at the vast responsibilities and roles of the teacher which they felt they were not prepared or equipped to perform due inadequate training. This state of affairs intensified the participants difficulties experienced on entry to practice.

We were taught many theoretical information during teacher education, but when I started teaching I realized that theories do not work in the classroom...I wanted to know the way to use teaching theories, because I was not the real teacher I was just a beginner one , the students were there, I could do whatever I wanted to do, but I realized that not all theories can be applied to every class (NT3)

I believed in the beginning that my teaching would be the same as my teachers and the books say, but it was not like that...the theory in the books...when I entered the classroom, things were totally different so it is not the theory that you should follow, but you have to find your own way of teaching...I became aware of the fact that theory and practice are different and we need to find a way move from theory to practice. (NT1)

after my teacher education I was thinking, “how should I act? How should I teach?” but when I got to the class, I thought that it was something different...I thought that the first thing I should do is to create a nice learning atmosphere, adapt myself into the position as a teacher, be friendly with pupils, so that they feel close to you, the warmer they feel close to you, the better teaching you will have, this is what I thought during my first days as a teacher,... I realized that it has got nothing to do with the theory of teaching, it is all about the material, the materials are the students...when you understand them, you can create your own teaching philosophy (NT2)

For these three participants, gaining experience was clearly influential in raising their awareness of how theory and practice might differ. In this case, the findings show that undertaking a practicum is vital so that novice teachers can apply and test the abstract theoretical materials they struggled with in the classroom to real life experience in order to learn what works in some settings and not in others. However, the teacher education program and the theoretical knowledge that was taught seemed to be ineffective in equipping them with the practical skills they needed in teaching. These findings were consistent with findings from Peacock (2001), Flores (2002) and Urmston (2003).

### 5.3.2.5 Novice Teachers Challenges

All of the interviewed novice teachers within this study articulated challenges that they faced during their first years of teaching. Reported challenges encompassed issues such as the planning and delivery of lessons, classroom management, grading and assessment, time management and motivation. The interviewees felt that they were not provided with instructional assistance, with all of them agreeing that they didn't receive any support. With this, they also felt that their teaching performance cannot be improved without having the opportunity to work with a mentor.

Designing and developing lessons plans.....I find it very difficult to find activities that are appropriate to students learning levels, interests and needs....I want all pupils to participate in the activities I organize.....but I find it very difficult to develop an activity.....When I plan my lessons, I most of the time have difficulty finding an activity.....I hesitate.....whether the activity is appropriate for my children. (NT1)

Classroom management is one of my biggest challenges; I'm still struggling to deal with.....disruptive students. I don't know how to handle discipline ....problems especially....when you have a large number of pupils in one room. No matter how much I try or do, they [students] are not...interested.....We can read and talk about classroom management strategies.....but you won't know what to do when.....disruptive behaviors occur until you face and

.....experience them at that time you would like to have help that shows you how to react .....correctly. (NT2)

The second interviewee explained how she struggles with time management. She revealed that she is working on developing good classroom time management strategies in order to better execute her lessons and achieve students' educational needs:

Finding time to do all the things that are required of me is a serious problem for me. I think if I feel I manage my time right and get everything that I need done I can feel a huge difference in the lesson and the way it's made. I wish I was more consistent and experienced with managing time. But I'm working on it and I would like to be better (NT2)

I have difficulties with grading and assessment. Last year I have been overwhelmed by the amount of essay grading in addition to my other areas of responsibility. I keep changing my grading method to ensure that I am properly assessing the skill I am seeking from the students. I am also trying to be sure to make grading more efficient so I won't be very overwhelmed in the future. (NT3)

Novice teachers enter their careers with varying degrees of skill in instructional design and delivery, classroom management, assessment and grading and time management. Based on the literature, the transition from learning instruction to giving or assisting in instruction was an important factor in an induction program (Ingersoll, 1999). Many novice teachers have problems presenting the full lesson cycle while managing time and students' behavior. He or she may or may not have had the opportunity to carry out the full cycle of planning a series of lessons, implementing those lessons, assessing the students and then evaluating that total cycle. In an effort to assist novice teachers, training programs need to provide assistance through mentors, administration and other veteran teachers as well as staff development in instructional and management strategies.

### **5.3.2.6 Areas that Need Further Training**

When asked to state the subjects they would have liked to learn more about or have more training or instruction during their teacher education program, the interviewed novice teachers

of English gave different areas or subjects in their responses. These areas consisted of classroom management, student teaching experience, lesson planning, senior teachers' feedback, and the opportunity to observe veteran teachers. The first interviewed teacher mentioned her desire for more training in planning lessons with more support and feedback from senior teachers and inspectors. She explained how the task of planning a lesson can be difficult especially with the absence of mentor teachers' feedback and support. While the second interviewee noted her desire for more instruction in classroom management and student teaching because she considers that experience through student teaching is the most useful way for novice teachers to be trained to face the different circumstances during their first years of teaching. The last participant opted for more instruction in classroom management through the opportunity of observing veteran teachers. This observation can help novice teachers visualize how the teaching methods and strategies work in a real world classroom. The participants responses are presented below:

I would have liked to receive more instruction in how to develop lesson plans. I was desperate to keep my students busy although I borrowed my friend' plans which helped me got through my first year of teaching. I still find it a very difficult task to accomplish. That's why I think it would be good if teacher training gave more importance to this area because lesson plans is a powerful way to improve teachers' classroom performance. I would have like also to receive more feedback. I appreciate the little feedback I received but it didn't point the specific successes and failures of my teaching approach, I want more support and feedback that indicates how teaching could be improved. There were several things I did wrong that might have been prevented with a little support or feedback from my teachers and inspectors (NT1)

I would have enjoyed more classroom management classes. I was only required to take some courses and they were very broad and didn't inform me very well on the whole process....I have had to do lots of study on my own time. Also I would have liked to experience student teaching. I think it would have helped me face a variety of circumstances during my first year. Because the real classroom experience is nothing like the theories we were taught. You can read and talk about them but you won't know

what to do with big behavior issues until you have to deal with them. I want to see how experienced teachers do things, how they are able to manage time, multitask, and still getting the job done (NT2)

I would have like more assessment and classroom management instruction as far as how to deal with problem children. I have a very hard group of kids and they test my classroom management skills every day. With so many disruptive students, it is hard to meet their needs and keep track of them all. I really needed effective strategies. The ones we were taught were vague and broad when applied on action they don't always result as expected. I would have liked to get the opportunity to observe and learn how experienced teachers balance all of their duties and responsibilities, gaining confidence, practicing content delivery methods and learning strategies for working with pupils. I think it would be very helpful to see how other teachers tackle similar issues (NT3)

In general, novice teachers stated their wishes pertaining to areas and subjects that need extra attention or need to be included in teacher training based on their experiences in the program. The first theme that emerged was classroom management. According to Johnson's (2005) research results, approximately (37%) of university professors considered classroom management an essential aspect of pre-service preparation, while (97%) of classroom teachers identified it as a critical area of preparation that impacts professional success. Together, the results of these studies (Evertson & Weinstein, 2006; Johnson, 2005; Wesley & Vocke, 1992) suggest there is a considerable discrepancy between the value university professors and classroom teachers place on classroom management training. This discrepancy mirrors research suggesting pre-service preparation programs provide inadequate training in this area (Ladd, 2000).

The second theme that emerged was lesson planning. It was clearly stated for the need to receive more instruction on how to plan comprehensive subject lessons as well as whole year plans. Farrell( 2002) defined a lesson plan as "a unit in which it is a sequence of correlated lessons around a particular theme or it can be specified as a systematic record of a teacher's thoughts about what will be covered during a lesson"(p. 30). In other words, a lesson plan is a written description for the process where the materials, the method, the time, the place of

education as well as methods for evaluating the students are described in detail. Yildirim (2003) indicated the importance of lesson planning in novice teachers gaining experience as it forces them to reflect on what to teach, how to teach and how to evaluate. However, despite the considerable time spent by teacher training programs in teaching novice teachers how to write detailed lesson plans, they still find developing and constructing lesson plans so difficult to learn as well as teach.

The third theme that was pointed out was student teaching. Virtually, the ultimate goal of teacher training programs is for teacher candidates to conduct quality instruction in the classroom. They must be capable of applying what they have learned to demonstrate competence as a practitioner in an authentic instructional setting. Consequently, student teaching is important to help teacher candidates make the transition from a university learner to an actual teacher. To make this transition as smooth as possible Teacher candidates need to have a clear understanding of how the training they have received in their teacher preparation program is connected to the standards for the teaching profession. Student teaching therefore, should be planned in a way that it serves its purpose. Only in this way teacher training programs can make use of the information from their student teachers' reflection to better understand their learning process for program enhancement.

Another theme that emerged was the lack of teachers and inspectors' feedback and support. Novice teachers are concerned that some of the supervisors chose to criticize them rather than assist them despite them having difficulties in some if not all the teaching areas. According to Oluwatayo and Adebule (2012, p. 110) "...the knowledge of subject matter is a critical factor at every point in the teaching process: in planning, assessing and diagnosing, task setting, questioning, explaining and giving feedback". This therefore, calls for supervisors to conference with the novice teachers before and after the class observation, for development of their teaching profession (Major and Mannathoko, 2013).

The final theme was the opportunity to observe other teachers. Freedman (1993), indicated that the observation of teaching is a favored practice of many induction programs. Observations reveal how new knowledge is actually applied in different instructional settings. Watching others teach can help the novice teacher visualize how specific strategies and teaching methods work and can prove the novice teacher is open to suggestions and advice. According to Zamparelli (1992), teacher observations can serve as a vehicle for professional

growth and can yield its greatest benefit when used as a means of sharing instructional techniques and ideologies among teachers.

### **5.3.2.7 Classroom Management Challenges**

In previous questions, the majority of novice teachers perceived the training they received in classroom management as insufficient to handle the behavior of students in their classrooms. Classroom management can be seen as the foundation for learning to take place within the classroom environment. Therefore, without proper classroom management training, novice teachers will find it difficult to provide a productive learning environment for students. When asked about the difficulties they faced in managing students' misbehavior, the interviewees shared common classroom management problems. The most challenging behaviors that were reported include making inappropriate noises, neglecting the teacher's directions and the disruption of classroom activities by talking too much, coming late and chewing gum during the lesson. These behaviors made it difficult for the teacher and other students to concentrate and consequently the teaching-learning process was interrupted. The first interviewee attributed students' misbehavior to the absence of parents' role which damaged their students' motivation and left the teacher with no opportunity to share both negative and positive feedback on a regular basis.

A number of my students always arrive late especially for the first session and the one following the break. Some students come late to class this may cause a kind of confusion and chaos. Some students are always ready to make comments to draw their classmates attention and the teacher's as well. Although I tried different ways to deal with the situation, nothing really worked. I think the absence of the parents' role has damaged the motivation in our students. Most parents have no idea what their kids are doing at school and this affects management (NT1)

I find the problem of classroom management more related to male students. In general misbehaviors might occur in classrooms such as coming late to class, making noise during the lessons, insulting other students and even sometimes the teacher! Paying no attention to teachers' instructions. Some students always ask to go out especially to the

bathroom, they go there to use their mobile phones if the teacher refuses they start to make noise in order to threaten their teacher (NT2)

What usually happens is coming late to class, chewing gum during the lesson, chatting with classmates about topics and issues that are not related to the lesson during the session or group works. Types of misbehavior range from bullying classmates to even disturbing and spoiling the learning atmosphere, making noise, and interrupting the class with bad intentions. Problems might become more serious. Hopeless cases of back-seated students who always try to show that they exist only by too much talking and making noise can even exceed the limits and go insulting and threatening the teacher (NT3)

Skiba and Peterson (2000) indicated that the most important teaching skills are those that provide effective behavior management and behavior support in the classroom. These are the skills that form the foundation to enable teachers provide a suitable learning environment for their students. Thus, without these skills, the learning environment is compromised. Novice teachers reported their belief that generally student behavior has deteriorated over the years, initiating the necessity for a larger skill set in managing challenging behaviors. This belief is reinforced by Skiba and Peterson (2000) and Webster-Stratton, Reid, Tolan, Szapocznik & Sambrano (2007) who asserted that deterioration in students' behavior has occurred over time. In addition, they indicated that a highly punitive system is most of the time ineffective in creating a reduction in problem behavior and that improved classroom management and conflict resolution have more of an impact on improving students' behavioral management. Taking into consideration these results and others based in different countries, an improvement to the teacher training program is paramount in supporting teachers in providing the best possible commencement of their careers.

#### **5.3.2.8 Aspects of Teacher Training most valued by Novice Teachers**

In response to the question regarding the courses or components of teacher training that are most valued by novice teachers, the participants gave different aspects that were deemed effective to them. The first informant indicated that periodic seminars were very effective and helpful as they allowed them opportunities to discuss topics, get some insights and gain new knowledge from their senior teachers. However, the second interviewee felt that all university

courses were ineffective and left her unprepared for the teaching profession, but she appreciated the efforts made by some teachers while indicating the need for university training programs to be improved for a more effective experience. The last interviewee believed that teachers' feedback was the most beneficial part of teacher training and he welcomed the idea of mentoring where a veteran teacher can guide and support him with tools they currently use in the classroom. To illustrate:

I think those seminars, which were part of our training and which were conducted from time to time, were somewhat helpful. Compared with other experiences, I think those seminars were the most beneficial for me. I learned more of what not to do as a teacher from my teachers and inspectors. There were opportunities to discuss topics, get some insights and gain new knowledge from our teachers (NT1)

To be honest, I didn't feel any of the pre-service or in-service training components were effective but I appreciated the efforts made by the teachers and inspectors and the resources they provide us with to help us learn the teaching process. I think university training programs need to be improved. My university studies have left me unprepared to teach anything (NT2)

I find that [getting] teachers' feedback and interacting with them were the most beneficial in my teacher training. I really welcome the opportunity to get guidance and feedback on my teaching. I believe that knowing and understanding the subject matter is important but having someone to guide and support throughout the teaching and learning process is even more important (NT3)

These findings reveal that there were two activities most valued by the interviewed novice teachers; conducting periodic seminars and receiving feedback from inspectors and veteran teachers. Huling-Austin (1992) explained in the review of literature that each of these activities is vital to the existence of a novice teacher and in some aspect determines the successes and failures of a novice teacher. In addition, Odell and Ferraro, (1992) emphasized the importance of the mentoring relationship where the mentor must learn to listen and adapt in order to establish trust with the novice teacher. Good mentors are willing to coach

beginning teachers to improve their performance (Jossi, 1997) because effective mentoring is all about guiding rather than managing the novice teacher. Under less threatening circumstances, novice teachers can then welcome the opportunity to get feedback on their teaching performance as well as get the chance to discuss issues they are facing before they become overwhelming. The “importance of a supportive learning environment that addresses the academic and social needs of learners within the regular classroom” is a key in promoting a positive learning environment (Nowicki & Brown, 2013, p. 253). If classroom teachers do not have a positive attitude or do not feel confident in their practices, setting up a supportive learning environment becomes a challenge.

One of the interviewed novice teachers reported that she found no benefit from university training courses and activities that she attended. This might happen mostly during the early days in the teaching profession. This might also happen when novice teachers and their cooperating teachers and university teachers cannot provide a constructive feedback and they cannot reflect what is going to be achieved with relevant strategies available. In other words, they cannot link theories with practice (Murtaza, 2005). When this happens, whatever activity pre-service teachers attend, they will not find any advantage in it. This is also emphasized by Sunarjo study (2001) which states that the incapability of linking theory and practice might discourage novice teachers and it might result in less competent future teachers (Kaherudin, 2001) in bridging theories and problems found in practice (Murtaza, 2005). Therefore, providing prospective teachers with a large portion of basic competencies of instructional strategies along with adequate feedback and reflection may help them understand educational strategies, philosophical thoughts, psychological approaches, teaching methods and instructional techniques to uplift the professional competency and skills in the real classroom environment (Hasan, 2003).

#### **5.3.2.9 Influence and Support**

This section attempts to test novice teachers’ perception and evaluation of their professors and colleagues who either influenced these beginning teachers’ practice or had supported and assisted them with shared pedagogy or advice. The first interviewee, throughout the interview, talked about one of her university teachers who supported and influenced her teaching pedagogy because she suggested that their personalities were similar. She explained how her teacher liked to share his knowledge and teaching strategies and

wished for the rest of teachers to be able to do the same. The second interviewee on the other hand indicated that much of what she incorporated in her classroom is strategies and techniques she gained from her modest experience or from close friends (teachers). She explained that university teachers gave her some theoretical framework for teaching, but this can never replace actual, hands on classroom experience. To illustrate:

I think Dr. [teacher's name] was the one who influenced my teaching and supported me the most, this maybe because his class fitted my personality. If I look at it now I like to give and share more than to take. I consider him as a good example of a good teacher, he liked to share his knowledge, his strategies and whatever he has got. I wish all the teachers were like him. I never understood why people like to be stingy to their stuff cause if I have a great idea, I would like to share it.....yes I like sharing knowledge just like my teacher (NT1)

So much of what I have learned and used in my classroom are strategies and techniques I gained from my modest experience and from my close colleague teachers. All of my university teachers talk theory all day but you never learn until you see the actual application. The application is the most important part. the one who directly supported my teaching was Mrs. [teacher's name] she was my teacher of English at the secondary school and later on she became my teacher at university. I learned from her more than I did from anybody else. She was tough! She was like here is how you're going to do it. That's kind of helped me and I'm still trying to learn her teaching and classroom management style (NT2)

The last interviewee credited his English department chair as an influence that shaped his teaching style and classroom atmosphere. However, he mentioned that he relied on himself most of the time to develop his teaching skills indicating that there was no collegial atmosphere in his school and this hindered any opportunity to discuss his teaching practices. He further added that as a novice teacher he found it difficult to ask for help or even approach some experienced teachers who always seem to keep their distance. To illustrate:

Not my teaching style exactly, but how I present in front of my pupils. He taught me, helped me learn how to teach. But most of the time I rely on myself, and I try to develop my teaching skills by making extra efforts. I

had to rely on my initiative without relying on my colleague teachers or the school where I teach because I find it difficult to ask for their help or even approach them. Most experienced teachers keep that distance which hinders us as novice teacher to even contact them. Simply put, as a novice teacher, there is no collegial atmosphere that allows the discussion of my teaching (NT3)

Traditionally, collegial cooperation between teachers is not a common practice. Teachers' extreme busy schedules, course loads, and other additional duties make it difficult for them to make the time to talk or work together. Teachers need opportunities to collaborate with one another. Teachers' collaboration is necessary in an era of continuous change and improvement. It provides more systemic assistance to beginning teachers (Little, 1990) and helps avoid the sink-or-swim, trial-and error mode that novice teachers usually face during the initial stages of their career. In addition, Collaboration brings experienced and beginning teachers closer together to reinforce the competence and confidence of the novices (Little, 1990; Nias, 1998).

Many educators and researchers have advocated the methods of teacher growth and enhancement that are based on continuous interaction and support (Awen, 2005). They indicated that schools need to create such a cooperative climate that heightens the level of innovation and enthusiasm among teachers and provides a continuous support for staff professional enhancement (McLaughlin, 1993). It is suggested that teacher collaboration could modify instruction (Martin, 2008) and lead to increased teacher satisfaction and adaptability (Inger, 1993). In other words, collaborative work helps teachers become more flexible in times of change and cope better with new demands that would normally exhaust the energy and resources of teachers working on their own (Jarzabkowski, 1999). Therefore, teachers need to recognize the value of working together and to focus on what they have in common because the key to promoting change in schools is through establishing collaborative cultures based on the principles of collaboration, openness, and trust (Lieberman & Miller, 1990).

Many first year teachers arrive in the classroom either with idealistic notions of what they and their students can achieve or with agonizing self-doubt about their capacity and ability to teach. In this respect, Richin and Banyon (2003) pointed out that without practical intervention by a supportive environment, including the administration and fellow teachers, both extremes can lead to disillusionment and abandonment of teaching careers. Thus, the

ability of novice teachers to cope with their work should be considered a collective responsibility rather than the fate of an individual teacher.

### 5.3.2.10 Continuous Professional Development

The participants believed that continuous professional development was of crucial importance for them. They indicated that continuous professional development is the key to help them acquire more knowledge, progress in their careers and achieve their professional aims. They further added that CPD programs should be designed in a way that equips the teachers with relevant and practical knowledge. They indicated that the absence of focus on local requirements and needs may hinder their faith in the usefulness of such programs. Therefore, they believed that CPD programs should comply with Algerian teachers' needs. As they indicated in the following statements:

Continuous professional development programs are very important for teachers especially us the novices. They provide us with opportunities to improve our teaching methods and techniques.....they train us to develop as teachers and as individuals (NT1)

Such CPD programs are really beneficial to all teachers....their primary goal is to improve teachers' professional knowledge, professional skills and values .... They provide teachers practical knowledge and solutions so that they can teach their students more effectively (NT3)

However, one of the participants believed that some CPD activities like the workshops that she attended were useless because no concrete things have been attained, as she put it:

Workshops are all just talking...we go there but we don't learn much.....you may find the topic interesting but we don't benefit from them....sometimes you feel these professional meetings have become a place for just socialization and useless discussions (NT2)

Novice teachers come from different backgrounds, skills and knowledge about teaching. Their pre-service training may prepare them theoretically for the profession, but they lack practice. Hence, continuous professional development programs seem to be one of the ways to fill this gap and maintain a high standard of teaching. Therefore, these programs should be

designed to meet the needs and desires of teachers (novices and experienced), focus on areas they are unfamiliar with, guide and expose them to new information, strengthen teamwork and cooperation with their colleagues and guide them into fruitful reflection.

### 5.3.2.11 Novice Teachers' Suggestions

Novice teachers expressed the need to elaborate new teacher training program where they welcome more practice and more field experiences that include supportive mentors and supportive environment. These school experiences can take the form of school visits where they can obtain the chance to observe teachers in action; delivering lessons and instruction and interacting with pupils. The second interviewee emphasized the fact that these practice experiences should be linked to university subjects because it can help them make sense of the theories they were taught and how they can apply them in real classroom contexts.

I suggest more practice, and more field experiences that include supportive teachers and supportive school community in this way the theories we have been studied at university about pedagogical knowledge for teaching will be supported through practical applications within the school setting. (NT1)

I suggest that teacher training include practice experiences which are linked to university subjects and It would be good if we could make school visits to really witness pupils and how high school teachers engage and interact with them. We need more on the ground contact with pupils in particular curriculum subjects. I mean practice is good but linking the school visits to the university subjects, it helps us understand what we were taught, what is important and how to teach it in the classroom. In addition topics like classroom management, lesson planning and testing are crucial topics which need hands-on experience to really understand and master but they are usually taken for granted (NT2)

I suggest more practical approaches where teachers model what we should be using. I mean we have five years to learn how to teach, so we need a menu of strategies to help us. Of course we need theory and we need practice but to make the links between the two, we need more

practical training like school visits and subjects that help us to clearly make those links (NT3)

It seems that the hands-on nature of the experiences and the opportunities to practice and reflect on lessons combined with observing and participating in high school classrooms were viewed by the interviewed novice teachers to be very helpful in preparing prospective and novice teachers and enhancing their confidence for teaching. All interviewees agreed with the idea that teacher training programs need to be more hands-on oriented with an emphasis on practical application and suggestions. They argued that their preparation to teach would be improved if they completed adequate practicum experiences and teachers used more practical approaches.

Novice teachers recognized the value of learning in the university setting but also considered this learning as largely theoretical; therefore, connecting the theoretical and pedagogical practices with practical classroom applications presented opportunities to link theory with practice. According to Dowden (2007) and Kessels & Korthagan (2001), the opportunity to make the links between theory and practice assists novice teachers' learning. Therefore, varied practicum experiences in a number of different high school classrooms can be a valuable experience for preparing prospective teachers and increasing their confidence. High school English teaching includes a range of subject areas and university graduates are expected to teach a variety of grade levels. Gaining experience to teach on different grade levels and observing the associated teaching practices would broaden prospective and novice teachers' understanding of how to approach teaching in varied classroom contexts. Analyzing the interviewees' responses indicated that being in different grade levels can allow the prospective teachers to really understand the diverse developmental issues that they will face and let them understand that all classes and children are different and require different approaches.

### 5.3.3 Summary of the Main Findings

Relying on the interviewees' answers, we can draw the following conclusions:

- The participants felt a gap between theory and practice. They believed that teaching would be similar to what they have been taught or read about in books. However, as soon as they started teaching they realized that theory and practice were different and they need to develop their own theories of teaching.
- The theoretical knowledge that was taught during the participants' teacher education seemed to be ineffective in equipping them with the practical skills they needed in teaching.
- A good teacher is perceived to be someone who is well-prepared, understanding, flexible while teaching and has good management skills.
- The participants reported general dissatisfaction regarding their teacher training. They believed their training courses were very theoretical and lacked practice.
- Novice teachers' need for more field experiences to bridge the gap between theory and practice.
- All the participants articulated challenges they faced during their first years of teaching. Reported challenges encompasses issues such as classroom management, planning and implementing lessons, assessing and grading students' work, and time management.
- Collegial cooperation and collaboration between teachers is not a common practice.
- There is an urgent need for field experience opportunities which are congruent with university coursework.
- The shortage of qualified mentor teachers to support and guide novice teachers
- The scarcity of professional development programs or their lack of focus on the local requirements and needs of novice teachers.

## 5.4 Conclusion

The current chapter presented the findings that emerged from both the questionnaire and interview data. We attempted through this chapter to, first, profile the participants' perceptions and attitudes which are often expressed in complex and contradicting ways. Second, identify their perceived preparedness for the EFL classroom. Third, present and

discuss the experiences and challenges encountered by novice teachers and finally present the suggested training program changes or additions. Summaries of the main findings collected through the questionnaire and interview were provided separately. A further discussion and interpretation of these findings will be provided in the following chapter.

## **Chapter Six: Discussions, Interpretations and Implications**

### **6.1 Introduction**

The previous chapter presented the findings that emerged from the questionnaire and interview data. This chapter attempts to provide in-depth analysis and interpretations of these findings in light of theory on teacher training and foreign language teaching. In particular, it involves depicting factors and experiences that helped shape novice teachers' attitudes and perceptions regarding their training. It is worth noting that the results are only limited to the sample of novice teachers who participated in this study, and hence any interpretations that this chapter provides are only restricted to the case under investigation. This chapter has sought to answer the following questions:

- 1- How do EFL novice teachers perceive their teacher training?
- 2- What do EFL novice teachers find challenging in their first years of teaching?
- 3- What implications does this study have on teacher training and development in Algeria?

### **6.2 Novice teachers' attitudes and perceptions**

In light of the first research question "How do novice teachers perceive their teacher training?", the results indicate that the majority of participants held negative attitudes regarding their teacher training. These participants reported that they did not receive adequate training and support to transition into their own EFL classroom. These teachers cited areas such as experiencing situations that were not covered in their training and not having enough field experience during preparation program to apply the theories and information they learned in their university classes. They claimed that their training program did not cater for their needs.

The overall findings of existing studies indicate that adequate and appropriate teacher training is a key to success in language education. And it was argued that teacher training programs would not generally succeed if the experiences and objectives of these programs were inconsistent with the expectations and needs of novice teachers (Feiman-Nemser, 2001; Lovett & Gilmore, 2003; Darling-Hammond & Bransford, 2005, p.4). In other words, it was argued that implementing teacher training programs without full consideration of novice teachers' needs and expectations would lead to a failure of the program. Higher education researchers suggest that if we are to prepare teachers adequately, their viewpoints are important. Therefore, Pratt (1992a) recommends that educational professionals need to consider novice teachers' experiences as it is this that should guide the program design.

Only very few novice teachers complimented the program saying it did a good job without further explanation but then asserted that nothing can replace actual classroom experience. As noted within Beck and others' (2007) work, even when teachers felt prepared for their first teaching experience, they often highlighted areas where they felt the need for further instruction in during their first year of teaching. This is consistent with the teachers' remarks within the current study. Teachers who stated they felt prepared for their first year, also noted areas they would have liked to have received more instruction in during their teacher preparation program. These areas will be discussed later in this chapter.

Many studies have documented the issue of teacher training programs' inability to sufficiently prepare teachers and adhere to their needs. Garrett (2017) for instance conducted a study that explored teachers' attitudes and perceptions of the types of professional development beneficial for teaching. Teachers' perceptions showed there was insufficient training for teachers and a need for ample planning time in their professional development routine. Lowe (2012) also investigated teachers' perceptions of their initial teacher training program as adequate training to prepare them to execute their teacher job tasks. She found that several participants indicated not feeling prepared to plan instructions for students and teach classes with large numbers of students. Aguinaga (2017) investigated how teachers viewed their preparation of working with EFL learners in their initial teacher education program. She pointed out that teachers are expected to meet the individual needs of linguistically and culturally diverse students in their classrooms.

However, little training and support in teacher training programs was being provided to prepare future teachers. She also revealed that teachers need more professional development opportunities and instructional support and resources in their initial teacher education program. To meet the increasing and changing demands of education, training programs and schools are continuously challenged to provide appropriate professional development experiences that will improve novice teachers' skills, knowledge and attitudes. However, Feiman-Nemser (2001) argues that the experiences offered by teacher training programs are incompatible or different from the needs and expectations of novice teachers as they step into their own classrooms. These findings can be applied to the Algerian case. Therefore, a question that we need to answer is: "what is the nature of this incompatibility and how is it reflected in the gathered data?"

A more in-depth analysis of the data generated further categories. This latter could represent the factors contributing to this incompatibility. These factors include: the mismatch between theory and practice, lack of appropriate field experiences, and lack of supportive environment. It is worth noting that these factors tend to be closely interrelated, in the sense that they influence each other to produce a bigger system, which in turn influences the participants' attitudes toward their teacher training program.

### **6.2.1 Mismatch between theory and practice**

The majority of participants reported mismatches between their university courses and the actual teaching in their classrooms. These novice teachers believed that teaching would be similar to what they have been taught in their teacher education or to what they have read about in books. This is what research literature refers to as theory-practice gap and it is one of the major and enduring problems in teacher education. This gap refers to the discrepancy novice teachers' encounter between the nature of their teacher training program and their experiences as licensed professionals (Korthagen, 2001; Korthagen & Kessels, 1999). Research in teacher education, according to Calderhead and Shorrock (1997), shows there is a general trend for novice teachers to appear to be dissatisfied with the bridge between theory and practice; their perceptions of what happens in their university-based part of the course seems difficult to reconcile with their experiences in the classroom. From his review, Koeppen (1998) also shows that there are apparent

discrepancies between what novice teachers are taught in their university courses and what is modeled for them in classrooms.

The tension novice teachers experienced between their pre-service training and school settings illustrates what Feiman-Nemser and Buchman (1985) called the 'two-worlds' pitfall, where novice teachers find themselves torn between the university education and the school that structures their first teaching experiences. Regarding this issue, Koeppen (1998) pointed out that during their acculturation into the profession; novice teachers have to deal with disparity between their university courses and the context of their cooperating teacher's classroom. He added that the discrepancy between the kind of planning instruction they receive and the way planning is modeled for them creates a dilemma as they try to meet the expectations of their university supervisors, and define their roles as teachers. This disconnect between learning theory and practicing the theories in a classroom produces teachers who do not feel prepared to meet the educational needs of their learners. For example, Delanoy in schulze (2009) report that student teachers when they go to the field they are told to forget everything they have been taught at the university. This made them feel that they are not qualified to do their job. This state of affairs results in incompetent teachers who cannot professionally execute their day to day responsibilities effectively (wren & wren, 2009; Schulze, 2009).

Novice teachers also indicated that the knowledge acquired in teacher training was irrelevant and did not enable them to handle the uncertainty, the complexity and the instability of actual teaching situations. Research shows that student teachers and novice teachers are frequently of the opinion that they are not offered the theory they need to prepare for their school practice (Knol & Tillema, 1995) and often appear not to be able to integrate the offered theory with their teaching practice (Kagan et al., 1993; Cohen, 1998; Lampert & Loewenberg Ball, 1998). In fact, there is no specific set of standards that outlines what qualifies a teacher, other than completing the teacher training courses and tests that the government determines appropriate. Therefore, it is important to have well-chosen courses that include core knowledge for teaching. Course work in highly successful programs is carefully selected and sequenced based on a strong theory of learning to teach; courses are designed to intersect with each other and are tightly interwoven with the advisement process and students' work in schools. However, programs that are largely a collection of unrelated courses without a common conception of teaching and learning

have been found to be relatively feeble change agents for affecting practice among new teachers (Zeichner & Gore, 1990). Cognitive science affirms that people learn more effectively when ideas are reinforced and connected both in theory and in practice.

The participants in this study also indicated that it is the teacher training programs' responsibility to facilitate the process of linking theory to practice and help novice teachers integrate what they have learned into real world classrooms. Some authors express – often implicitly – the belief that there should be no gap between theory and practice in an appropriate teacher training program. Leinhardt et al. (1995) stress the important role for teacher education to facilitate the process of linking theory and practice as follows:

Future practitioners should be given the opportunity to construct their own theories from their own practice, and to thoughtfully generate authentic episodes of practice from their own theories. We have proposed that the university should take on the task of helping learners integrate and transform their knowledge by theorizing practice and particularizing theory. We believe that the university can facilitate this process because it can create opportunities for time and pace alteration, reflection on practice, and examination of consequences. Ideally, such episodes of integration and transformation should be systematic and comprehensive rather than arbitrary and piecemeal (p. 404).

According to Percy (2012), the theory-practice gap in the teaching profession is linked to the varied understanding of teacher education among teachers. Further, Perrenoud (cited in Normand & Pereiro, 2009) proclaim that while doctors and engineers prefer integrating theory and practice, this is a rare phenomenon in the process of teacher preparation in university curricula. Moreover, the gap between theory and practice is revealed when novice teachers complain that they cannot put theory into practice which is attributable to failure of teacher training to combine theory and practice in a proper and meaningful way in curricula (Wren & Wren, 2009). This shows that the knowledge of the subject matter should not be independent or separated from practice (Dewey in Wren & Wren, 2009). Correspondingly, Berger (2009) claims that once the studies are not relevant in the classroom context, novice teachers are not willing to use them. This leads consequently to theory-practice gap.

McDonough (2012) on the other hand purports that this theory-practice disconnection stems from incongruence between teachers focus on learning the technical skills required to transmit knowledge competently while efficiently managing the behaviors of the students in their charge and teacher educators focus on teaching theoretical knowledge and critical skills. He further adds that this disconnection also stems from teachers genuine concern to satisfy their primary and immediate needs for professional safety, confidence and competence in a school setting (ibid.). Practical skills are therefore initially parallel to survival skills for novice teachers with anxieties during their first years of teaching. As Richardson (1989) observes, practitioners prefer acquiring and practicing procedural, managerial and social skills that exhibit at least superficial competence (and which they have seen their own teachers demonstrate) than understanding foundational theory.

The extent to which the activities of teachers match the goals of training will partly depend on the level and type of cooperation between training institutions and practice schools (Emans, 1983; Watts, 1987; Wubbels, Korthagen & Brekelmans, 1997). Therefore, today's teacher education and training programs must include all stakeholders of education including universities, colleges, schools, professional groups, and classroom teachers in the preparation and training of quality teachers. Working in collaboration, novice teachers can better develop the necessary framework for understanding teaching and learning while exploring and experiencing the realities of the classroom.

### **6.2.2 Lack of fieldwork experiences**

The majority of participants stated that their teacher training was too theoretical and lacked actual, hands-on classroom experience. They consider that actual time spent in the classroom would expose them to many of the realities of the classroom that they say they were unaware of before having their own classrooms. One of the interviewed teachers wrote, "The classes introduced me to some pedagogical theories about teaching and learning, but what I needed most was the field work experience in a real classroom". These results coincide with a qualitative study undertaken by Bullough et al. (1991) of three novice teachers in which they found that novice teachers had adequate theoretical and pedagogical knowledge but their teacher training lacked the useful and practical aspects of the contexts of working to develop and understand themselves as teachers. One of the informants in this study also commented "I felt sometimes that I'm lost and I forgot all the

ideas and instructions that I was taught during my university studies”. This brings to mind a pertinent question asked by Zeichner and Tabachnick (1981): “Are the effects of university teacher education ‘washed out’ by school experience?” (p. 8). With high schools having the role to socialize and initiate novice teachers into the teaching profession, it seems plausible to place more emphasis on the role of the school practice (practicum) and allow both the theoretical and practical aspects of knowledge to be combined (Zeichner & Tabachnick, 1981; Zeichner & Gore, 1990; Blase, 1985; Waller, 1932).

Novice teachers in this study favor practice-oriented teacher training that provide more practice than theory. They consider this practical training to be an effective way to acquire (practical) knowledge that helps them find solutions to their everyday challenges. This reflects Widdowson’s claim (2003) that English language teachers show a great deal of distrust of theory and “they tend to see it as remote from their actual experience, an attempt to mystify common-sense by unnecessary abstraction” (p.1). This proves that novice teachers struggle to understand the teaching theories which led them to prefer strongly practice-oriented preparation. However, this one-sided focus on field practice can be disadvantageous because it leads to limited depth in the reflective competence of novice teachers (Coonen, 1987). A notable role of theory is providing student teachers an orientation base for reflection on practice. Widdowson (2012, p. 3) maintains that “all pedagogic practice presupposes theory of one kind or another”. Therefore, it is argued that in spite of the importance of integrating teacher knowledge and theoretical knowledge, it is substantial to come to a balanced view of both practice and theory before adequately studying the link between those two components of teaching knowledge base (Verloop et al., 2001).

Pre-service teacher training programs traditionally offer student teachers courses in theory and methods and then require them to implement these during student teaching (Jones & Vesilind, 1996). Because teaching is fundamentally a practical activity, student teachers are not able to begin to develop their own body of practical professional knowledge until they enter the classroom (Furlong & Maynard, 1995). Teaching practice therefore, should be planned in a way that it serves its purpose. It should help novice teachers practice what they have learnt in classrooms, to prepare them for their teaching profession. According to the Tlokweng College of Education teaching practice handbook (2011, p. 6):

The primary aim of teaching practice is to assist the student teacher to develop competencies, personal characteristics, understanding, knowledge and skills needed by a professional teacher. ... It is meant to provide the student teacher with the opportunity to acquire skills and strategies or techniques to enhance his/her teaching competence.

In addition, Research studies indicated that field work experiences, concurrent with coursework, led to better teaching and a more sustained commitment to the teaching profession (Chin & Russell, 1995; Sumara & Luce-Kapler, 1996). This means that the efficiency of the fieldwork arrangements lies in the simultaneous and immediate application of theory learnt in the classroom into practice. Another advantage of this form of fieldwork is that novice teachers can share and discuss their experience challenges while at the training institution and this can contribute to effective integration of theory and practice.

In fact, lecture is still the predominant form of teaching in postsecondary education. The greatest advantage of lectures is the ability to share information with a large number of students. Authors argue that the lecture method is as effective as any other instructional method (Shepard & Jensen, 1997; Gage & Berliner, 1998). However, the major disadvantage of lectures is believed to be the passive nature of this form of information transmission and the lack of active involvement by students (King, 1993; Shepard & Jensen, 1997). Teacher training colleges have to realize then that prescriptive transfer of theory is not enough (Brouwer, 1989). Cognitive theory has suggested that only active processing of information and not just passive reception of that information leads to learning ( Craik & Lockhart, 1972). Active learning techniques include interactive lectures, whole class and group discussions, peer teaching and collaborative group learning. These methods are supposed to equip students with a greater level of knowledge and better learning skills compared with students exposed to other forms of learning.

The majority of participants had not been trained in teaching methodologies and this justifies their dissatisfaction and lack of confidence in their teaching performance. Besides, the absence of pedagogical training often results in the maintenance of old methods of teaching. It is through full immersion in a hands-on real world field experience

(Kasperbauer & Roberts, 2007a) that novice teachers begin to master and use professional knowledge. The participants generally believed that they had to be communicatively and pedagogically competent. In this respect, the participants identified two types of teachers' professional knowledge: content knowledge and pedagogical knowledge. The first, content knowledge, involves the teachers' understanding and mastery of their subject matter, i.e., the actual ability of the language teacher to interact appropriately (language competence). The second, pedagogical knowledge, is the knowledge of the methods and methodologies required of teachers to be able to teach languages. Pedagogical knowledge can be further divided into two sub-components: the first is pedagogic awareness which aims at developing the teacher's conscious understanding of the principles and theories underpinning second language learning and teaching (Ellis, 1996). The second is experiential practices (Ellis, 1996; Britten, 1996), which involve the teacher in real or simulated teaching practice (Ellis, 1996).

However, it is argued that the issue of teachers' professional knowledge is surrounded with ambiguity and inconclusiveness (Eraut, 1994; Kagan, 1992; Nespor, 1987). Thus, the above categorization does not fully reflect all the existing types of teacher knowledge. Other trends in teacher education argue for the existence of, besides content knowledge and pedagogical knowledge, pedagogical content knowledge (Shulman, 1987; Jones, K. 2000 ; Gomez, 2002) which is defined as the merge of content knowledge and pedagogical knowledge by teachers to represent and reformulate a particular topic to meet the various interests and needs of learners (Shulman, 1987). This type of knowledge is unique to teachers and is what teaching is about (Cochran, 1997). This means that it involves not only the mastery and understanding of the subject matter and pedagogy, but also the characteristics of students and the school context in which their learning takes place (Cochran, 1997).

### **6.2.3 Lack of Supportive Environment**

Education is a complex system that has a large number of processes and players. These players have a key role as integral elements of the system that produce soft processes for attaining educational goals and objectives (Leew, 2002; Maclsaac, 1996). The main players in education are many, including, administrators, inspectors, mentors, teachers, and students. This means that teachers, as one of these players, are not the sole

players responsible for success or failure (Cummings & Lunsford, 1996). However, the more cooperation and interaction among these players and the best use of resources the more improvement in teachers' performance and students' achievement (ibid.). Novice teachers experience a variety of new situations at work, for which they may need adequate guidance and support. The findings of this study however indicated that novice teachers support needs are very high. Throughout the collected data, there appears to be an inadequate amount of support from surrounding administrators, mentors, inspectors and teacher colleagues.

### **6.2.3.1 Mentor Teachers and Inspectors**

The role of the mentor teacher is pivotal to the development of novice teacher during practicum (Zeichner, 2010; Ambrosetti & Dekkers, 2010; Hudson, 2010). Just as the teacher can make a difference to students' development, the mentor teacher can make the difference to novice teachers' development (Hudson, 2004; Glickman & Bey, 1990). Mentor teachers are recognized of their practical knowledge of the teaching profession which complements student teachers' theoretical knowledge that they have acquired from university courses. The secondary school novice teachers of English appear to be aware of the importance of mentor teachers. Therefore, the finding of this investigation disclose that 30% of the respondents believe that the role of a mentor teacher is to facilitate learners' development, 24% of them think that the mentor's role is to give constructive feedback and create a climate that promotes conditions necessary for learning to take place. Another percentage estimated at (20%) of the surveyed novice teachers think of the mentor teacher as a guide that help them make the transition from school to career. Only a minority (10%) of the respondents believe the mentor teacher to be a coach who is aware of his learners' needs and able to meet them. According to Hargreaves and Fullan (2000), the knowledge, organizational skills, and wisdom of experienced mentor teachers, coupled with the energy, enthusiasm and eagerness of novices, are key components that lead to a more satisfying and productive novice teaching experience. Similarly, Reiman and Thies-Sprinthall (1998) maintained that successful mentoring emphasizes teacher development. Hence, mentors teachers are supposed to guide novice teachers in sharpening their skills, improving their instructional approaches, and helping them shape their attitudes towards both the teaching profession and students. This means that mentor teachers who invest their time to share

their knowledge and provide feedback to novice teachers can help teachers achieve success earlier, which will ultimately benefit both novice teachers and students alike.

Mentoring, as defined by Barrera et al. (2010), is when a senior teacher provides guidance, advice, and emotional support to a junior or novice teacher in a relationship lasting over a lengthy period of time. The effective mentor teacher is highly committed to the task of assisting novice teachers find success and gratification in their work (Haney, 1997). Being a good mentor teacher requires work and, just like teaching, it requires practice. Qualified mentor teachers put effort and time into the practice of supporting novice teachers develop into independent teachers. During this time, mentors should be planning, observing, and reflecting with novice teachers. In this research, the results obtained suggest that the majority of the sampled teachers (61.43%) seem to have ambivalent attitudes as they report that their mentor teachers are not really qualified. While (8.57%) of the respondents think that their trainers are not at all qualified, the other 30% of them perceive their mentor teachers as highly qualified. The majority of respondents reported the need for support, guidance and to be heard and accepted despite their weaknesses and mistakes. These results confirm the need for qualified mentor teachers for high school teacher training. The participants in this study placed huge importance on the mentor teacher who can be understanding of the development of novice teachers and attuned to their needs. However, the findings that emerged indicate that a number of mentor teachers were not quite supportive, with some mentors having little understanding of the nature of novice teachers' development. As Keogh et al. (2006) claim, such circumstances can create tensions and are not ideal for the development of mentor-novice teacher relationship and the mentoring process as a whole.

Novice teachers are most of the time expected to perform their job effectively and assume full teaching responsibilities right from the first day at school (Worthy, 2005). Therefore, novice teachers need sustainable and supportive in-service teacher training programs to survive this period easily. In addition, teacher mentors need to be aware that training teachers is a lengthy process wherein they establish a supportive and reflective mentoring relationship rather than a mechanistic and evaluative one in order to contribute to novices' development process. Studies of andragogy and working with adults, affirmed that mentor teachers that work with novice teachers and acknowledge them as adult learners enhanced the professional relationship of the mentor-mentee (Houle, 1980). The reason behind this is that as adults grow up and mature, they become increasingly

independent and responsible for their own actions. Novices are often motivated to learn by a sincere desire to solve immediate problems in their lives. Additionally, they have an increasing need to be self-directed (Beder & Darkenwald, 1982). Sweeney (2008) indicated that the goal of a teacher training program is to empower novice teachers to become teacher leaders in their own right. Applied correctly, the andragogical approach to teaching and learning in the hands of a skilled and dedicated mentor can make a positive impact on novice teachers.

The mentor teachers are also inspectors and their ambiguous role is summarized by the way in which different authorities called them mentors and sometimes inspectors (Winkley, 1985). On the one hand, mentors support and guide novice teachers, the school community and teaching in general. On the other hand, school inspectors evaluate what teachers do in class. They inspect teachers' abilities to prepare lessons, write adequate worksheets, manage classrooms, implement the curriculum and achieve objectives. In other words, school inspectors evaluate teachers to ensure specific standards in teaching, learning, management and organization are being achieved and maintained. In addition, school inspectors are responsible to officially appoint or discharge teachers. This phase represents a real challenge for most novice teachers when inspectors come to nominate them for the post of permanent teachers. Another major task of school inspectors is novice teachers' ongoing education and training. It is inspectors' duty to provide a yearly planning of seminars along with their objectives. During these periodic seminars, a model lesson is presented along with the teaching of receptive and productive skills.

The relationship between novice teachers and inspectors is usually influenced by their attitudes, negative experiences and preconceived ideas that each one of them harbors. Novice teachers of English reported that their inspectors criticize and intimidate them in front of the pupils. Moreover, the informants indicated that their inspectors are too demanding and overbearing and in total disregard of novices' professional and social constraints. Therefore, the vast majority (97.14%) of the surveyed novice teachers of English expresses their need for inspectors who are understanding and compassionate rather than all-time criticizing inspectors. These results are in accordance with those found in a study conducted in Turkey in which school inspectors were found to have no positive impact on teachers' emotions and teachers presume that inspectors are fault-hunters, accusatory and coercive (Tunf, inandi & Gunduz, 2015). Moreover, other studies found

that inspections distract teachers' focus from their main role of teaching, in order to collect and present superficial work and impress the inspector or their mentors (Webb et al., 2008). Brimblecombe et al. (1995) also disclose that most teachers find inspection an occasion of stress and anxiety. Much of this anxiety targets something substantial in the teacher identity; the reluctance of being observed teaching, even amounting to fear in some cases. This is partially related to the special characteristics of the act of teaching, according to Preace (1986):

Teaching combines privacy, autonomy and immediacy to an unusual degree. No act infringes these three properties so completely as inspection by an unknown observer. Full formal inspection applies that infringement on the scale of the whole institution and does so within a limited span of time (pp. 134-135).

Teaching lies at the heart of teachers' self-esteem and sense of personal and professional identity. If their teaching competence is perceived to be lacking, a fundamental aspect of teachers' life-purpose can be brought into question. Taking into account the intrusive nature of the inspection process and the often strong emotional reactions which it can give rise to, it is very necessary that individual inspectors act within a clear ethical framework. Transparency is one way to smooth the relationship between the inspector and teachers. Since the conflict resulted from the difference between the nature of teaching (private, autonomous and immediate) and the intrusive nature of inspection, it is important that inspectors act within a clear ethical framework and be guided by a set of rules that reflect the norms and standards of inspection. This would help establish trust relationships and shows that the inspector respects the teacher's integrity.

### **6.2.3.2 Colleagues support**

Collegial relationships have been repeatedly found to influence novice teachers' feelings of job satisfaction and sense of success with students, and ultimately their job retention chances (Fantilli & McDougall, 2009; Okumus & Biber, 2011). There is much evidence in the literature that gaining teacher colleagues' support and feeling socially comfortable is critical in the first years of teachers' journey. However, novice teachers in this study nourish negative attitudes toward their teacher colleagues especially as the

majority of them (57%) say that their teacher colleagues are selfish, reluctant to help and uncooperative. The other (29%) of them perceives their teacher colleagues as indifferent. Only a minority estimated at (14%) does not share this attitude and think that their teacher colleagues are cooperative, helpful and supportive. These findings show that novice teachers are having a hard time dealing with their colleagues and have limited interaction with them which can create an isolating and intimidating atmosphere in the school. This can lead to many novice teachers feeling dissatisfied in their careers, and the risk of burnout becomes high. According to Veenman (1984):

The lack of teacher-to-teacher dialogue in schools impacts the morale and even discourages the professional growth of experienced teachers. The lack of opportunity for collegial conversations may have even greater implications for beginners who are in the earliest and most vulnerable stage of professional development (cited in Rogers & Babinski, 2002, p. 4).

Similarly, it has been identified on a study by Hover and Yaeger (2004) that novice teachers find the support they get on their first year as 'poor'. This shows that more than anything else, novice teachers often appear to have a need-for-yet-seldom-get helpful feedback on their teaching from experienced colleagues and administrators (Fry, 2007; McCormack, Gore, & Thomas, 2006). In fact, feelings of isolation and loneliness start the first day at school. When novice teachers are assigned to a school, they are faced with the fact that relationships and social groups are already formed, and the norms and shared history of the school are unknown to them. Hence, novice teachers have little to develop friendships with other teachers in the school. In a study conducted by Stanulis, Fallon, and Pearson (2002), feelings of isolation from colleagues were mentioned in personal narratives of many novice teachers. Some reported working in an atmosphere which does not support collaboration. Some distrusted their mentor and did not understand the boundaries of their relationship. Some felt that nobody took an interest in. Some felt the lack of a collaborative and non-judgmental environment. These comments are similar to those made by some of the participants in this study. As it is reflected, entering the field of teaching, novice teachers are in both physical and mental isolation. Considering this, it is essential for new teachers to socialize and interact personally and professionally in order to grow and develop as a teacher.

Nothing prepares novice teachers for the difficulties of working devoid of supportive relationships. The semi-structured interview revealed more specific findings as one of the participants explained that there was no collegial atmosphere in his school and this hindered him from discussing his teaching practices and problems. This suggests that Algerian schools still maintain the traditional education model where teachers act as solo practitioners. This isolation deprives novice teachers the opportunity to learn from the experiences of others (Huling-Austin, 1992; Mauer & Zimmerman, 2000; Odell & Huling, 2000). He further added that as a novice teacher he found it difficult to ask for help or even approach some experienced teachers who always seem to keep their distance. In this regard, experienced teachers cannot assume that no news is good news. Waiting for a novice teacher to independently approach and talk may not be appropriate, especially so for less confident individuals. Novice teachers are also more likely to fear appearing to be a 'nuisance' or overstepping some boundaries by asking questions. There is also the misconception among novice teachers that asking for help is a sign of weakness. Although they should feel free to seek help, many novice teachers become concerned that seeking assistance for classroom practices might be viewed as a sign of incompetence. Hence, senior teacher colleagues must initiate the conversations that establish trust. Novice teachers need someone to talk to, and experienced teachers can be a powerful resource.

According to Feiman-Nemser (2003), experienced colleagues can serve as a sounding board and assure novice teachers that the experience is normal. Offering sympathy and providing advice can reduce the inevitable stress that novice teachers experience. This may not play a direct role in improving teacher performance but it will help in the likelihood of novice teachers enduring difficulties and having the opportunity to become effective practitioners. Veenman (1984) in the review of literature pointed out that an induction program needs an emotional support system for novice teachers. Creating a culture that enables the novice teacher to make connections with other teachers is a strategy for sustainable activism in the school. Throughout the first days of school, experienced teachers are invited to engage in the process of welcoming and orientating the new teacher to the school, and to school staff members while the principal's role is to organize structures that permit and encourage advocacy, and help develop supportive professional relationships for the novice teacher (DePaul, 2000).

### 6.2.3.3 Administrative support

Administrators shape the school culture where novice teachers work and develop into professionals. Prior to their teaching careers, novice teachers usually make expectations that certain induction elements will be provided within their workplace, and that they will be equipped with a reasonable amount of assistance in order for them to be successful. Unfortunately, novice teachers are rarely offered induction support when they become new members of the school staff. In actual school situation, most teachers especially novice teachers work out of sight and sound of one another, plan and prepare their lessons and teaching materials individually (Inger, 1993; Marshall, 2009). Novice teachers are left to struggle on their own to solve their instructional, curricular and classroom management challenges (Inger, 1993).

This research' findings revealed that most of the participants perceived a general lack of administrative support. A lack of administrative support can take different forms and it can be interpreted in a multiple of ways such as: not communicating with teachers and staff members, not providing teachers with the necessary resources and materials in order for teachers to teach the curriculum, not providing student behavior support to staff, not providing professional feedback, not providing staff with professional development. In this study, participants reported a lack of expressive support from their administration like lack of respect and administrators being unapproachable. They explained that their administrators lacked professional courtesy when communicating with novice teachers and this made them feel unrecognized and unappreciated by their administrators. This is somewhat similar to O'Sullivan' (1989) observation that administrators seem to have little respect or understanding for novice teachers' ability to teach. Moreover, the participants perceived their administrators as being unapproachable when they needed to ask questions. This limited contact left the novice teachers with feelings of isolation and frustration. One of the interviewees' comment is typical of those that novice teachers make about their administrators who seem to be unapproachable and offer little substantive assistance to these teachers. She said:

the way they look at you makes you unable to approach them, they always look angry about something. They are not people that you could contact easily and talk with about your problems. You just feel very isolated (NT1)

In addition to the lack of expressive support, the participants perceived a lack of instrumental support. Instrumental support is the extent to which teachers perceive their administrators as providing the necessary assistance to effectively accomplish their everyday teaching tasks (DiPaola, 2012). Lack of instrumental support elements that was perceived by the informants was represented in the inadequate scheduling of planning times for teachers and the shortage of resources. This perceived lack of instrumental support left the participants with feelings of frustration, helplessness and hopelessness. Brint (1998) points out that the major characteristics of some schools and education in developing countries, in our case Algeria, are the presence of a centralized authority and lack of resources. The situation of the Algerian school that the results provide is somewhat similar to what Brint describes. It is argued that the inadequacy or the absence of expressive and instrumental support compounds stress and hinders the social development and self-efficacy of novice teachers, and it influences their desire to remain in the profession (Bozonelos, 2008; Littrell et al., 1994; Su, Dainty, Sandford, & Belcher, 2011).

The needed support, reassurance and assistance during the first years of teaching tend to be inadequate to meet the needs of novice teachers. Novice teachers in Williams and Williamson's group (1995, 1998) also reported limited administration assistance and their evaluations ranged from zero to two for the entire year. Collegial relationships with administrators and fellow teachers are then paramount to a novice teacher. As novice teachers seek to find their identity as professional educators, and as members of the professional organization of teaching, they will need the assistance and guidance of administrators and veteran teachers (Baker, 2007; Carlson, 2012; Fry, 2007; Prather-Jones, 2011). Novice teachers need to feel that they are a welcomed part of the school's professional community, and treating them any differently can negatively affect their self-esteem and lower their self-efficacy. Self-efficacy regulates an individual's own personal belief as to whether or not they can achieve a specific performance level. These beliefs will eventually affect how much effort teachers put forth, how long they will persist in the face of challenges, how flexible they can be in dealing with failures, and how much depression and stress they face in coping with demanding situations (Bandura, 1977).

### **6.3 EFL Novice Teachers' Challenges**

The participating secondary school novice teachers of English face two major challenges: contextual-related challenges and teaching profession-related challenges. While Contextual challenges include classroom management, overcrowded classes, and heavy workload, teaching-related challenges encompass lesson planning, assessment and grading and time management. These challenges have attested to be frustratingly troublesome for high school novice teachers of English.

#### **6.3.1 Classroom Management and Over-crowdedness**

Novice teachers are more likely than other teachers to report a level of unpreparedness in classroom management. Previous research has found that classroom management was the second largest category of struggle for novice teachers (Romano, 2008). In this study, the questionnaire and interview data revealed that classroom management was the biggest challenge that novice teachers face. The majority of the participants felt unprepared when it comes to classroom management and dealing with students' misbehavior. Considering the majority of novice teachers feel unprepared to cope with difficult behavior, thought should be given to the preparation teacher trainees receive. While this sample size of novice teachers is small, it does reflect the findings of research undertaken by Dinham and Scott (2000) and Johanson, Little and Akin-Little (2011) which indicate a distinct dissatisfaction among teachers with the training provided in classroom management. The participants in this study explained that they find it difficult to manage unruly classes, to approach students' problematic behaviors and to sufficiently undertake leadership role in the classroom. This shows that these participants neither possess classroom management strategies nor trained up to use them effectively.

The majority of the participants (68.57%) believe that their teacher training did not really prepare them for effective classroom management. This finding is consistent with the research literature on classroom management and teacher training which indicates that there is a belief amongst some teachers particularly novices that teacher training does not adequately prepare them to handle the types of difficulties encountered in the classroom (Duck, 2007; Stoughton, 2007). Although student teachers are often equipped with some education in the principles of classroom management, their knowledge may be

disconnected from actual classroom practice (Fayne & Ortquist-Ahrens, 2006). Thus, Allen (2009) called for greater attention to the classroom management needs of student teachers and novice teachers, particularly regarding aggressive student behavior. Moreover, the roles and responsibilities given to novice teachers are most of the time the same as those of more experienced teachers (Shoffner, 2011). Therefore, pre-service preparation and training is particularly important and should include practical experience of teaching pupils in mainstream classrooms (Golder, Norwich, & Bayliss, 2005). However, the participants in this study stressed that the few years of pre-service education cannot fully prepare teachers and nothing can replace hand-on experience for a lifetime of professional service. Therefore, Conway et al. (2009) suggest that the purpose of pre-service training should not be to create wholly-formed teachers, but to provide them with opportunities to develop key competencies.

Townsend (2011) stated that teachers sought professional development in classroom management more than in any other field. This statement is reinforced by the current research results, with the majority of participants indicating they would have liked to receive more instruction and support in classroom management. Therefore, the vast majority of respondents (39%) indicated that they would have enjoyed more classroom management classes. They explained that they would have liked to receive more instruction in dealing with problematic children, more experience with student motivation and management, and management techniques geared towards high school settings. These results prove that novice teachers are still struggling to handle classroom management situations. Despite the fact that the rules learned in university courses and books guided the novice teachers, such prescribed rules did not always work for them, mainly because these situations – specifically relating to classroom management – often require different responses.

The findings of this study also disclose that most of the classroom management problems encountered by novice teachers are either minor or moderate. Examples might include, off-task activities, coming late to class, eating in class, chatting and passing notes, irrelevant comments and use of mobile phones. In these cases, teachers should use moderate responses to stop the misbehavior before it gets out of control and reestablish a positive behavior as quickly as possible. However, problems might develop sometimes and become much more serious resulting in severe disruptive behaviors like bullying and

insulting other students or even threatening teachers and challenging their authority. One participant shared her experience as:

Types of misbehavior range from bullying classmates to even spoiling the learning atmosphere, making noise, and interrupting the class with evil intentions to impose their own agenda. If the teacher commented on, they would be enraged hostile and rebellious and insist to behave the way they want challenging the teacher position and authority.

The participants reported that these disruptive behaviors are intolerable, stress-provoking and time and energy-consuming. Clearly, disruptive behaviors affect the smoothness and effectiveness of the teaching process and also impede the learning of students. Furthermore, research studies have shown that student misbehavior not only escalate with time but also increase delinquent behaviors and lower students' academic achievement (Bryant et al., 2000). To lesson these adverse effects, it is of crucial importance to identify the reasons behind students' misbehavior. In this study, the informants stated a number of reasons supposed to be responsible for students' disruptive behavior. Some of them attributed it to students' low level in English. Other teachers raised the problem of lack of motivation as a major reason for students' misbehavior. In fact, tracing back the origins of students' misbehavior is very difficult because it can be explained by a variety of factors such as school environment, family problems, peer pressure or psychological problems (Moles, 1990). Students' misbehavior can also be attributed to poor instructional design or failure to involve students in classroom activities. It is generally understood that effective classroom management begins with a solid and meaningful curriculum (Bransford et al., 2005). However, the novice teacher, who is taking baby steps towards masterfully running a classroom, has neither curriculum development experience nor first-hand knowledge of what classroom management strategies may work for a particular group of students. Rudolph (2006) further added that the age factor can also play a major role in classroom disruptive behavior:

In secondary education classrooms, the students are composed of individuals journeying through adolescence at various rates. Adolescence is a unique time in a student's life that brings with it specific social, cognitive, and physical change. The students in the

secondary education classrooms are children growing steadily toward young adulthood. In any environment, the adolescent may have issues to work through, but the classroom environment can be greatly disrupted by the normal angst of an adolescent. (p. 49)

The changing nature of early adolescence and the complex social interactions of high school students can impact on classroom teaching (Cumming & Lunsford, 1996). Different contexts and cohorts of adolescents require diverse approaches (De Jong, 2005), which necessitates behavior management strategies such as the development of positive teacher-student relationships, creating a positive classroom environment (Pendergast et al., 2007), and demonstrating teacher enthusiasm to motivate and engage students in learning (ibid.). However, the findings showed that many participants had limited recognition of how to develop positive teacher-student relationships, create a safe classroom environment, and demonstrate enthusiasm for teaching support behavior management in the classroom. Considering the developmental needs of teenagers, these high school novice teachers may require further preparation that incorporates the interrelated strategies for promoting positive behavior management. Hence, university coursework needs to be more overt in connecting how strategies and practices link together in the implementation of behavior management.

Novice teachers responding to the questionnaire commented that the absence of sufficient, effective training means there is a requirement for novice teachers to learn classroom management from personal experience, on the job, and from other teachers or mentors within the school. However, if the novice teacher does not find the support necessary to build the required skills and strategies to cope and gain competence in classroom management, they may experience difficulties and develop ineffective coping strategies which will accumulate to emotional exhaustion resulting in an ineffective learning environment for the students and unhealthy stress levels for the teacher (Reupert & Woodcock, 2010). This implies that to ensure effective strategies are used; training and support in classroom management is required. This training can assist in ensuring that the best possible learning environment is provided to the students and teachers alike (Jennings & Greenberg, 2009).

The majority of the informants (33%) credited their role models as a source of knowledge or influence on their classroom management beliefs and practices. (26%) of

novice teachers believed that their knowledge about classroom management emerged through their personal exploration and experience of spending time in the classroom interacting with children. According to Garrahy et al. (2005), learning through trial and error from students' reactions were the most frequently cited sources of knowledge, in addition to the influence of colleagues and student teaching mentors. Harris and Sass (2011) argue that during the first three years of teaching, teacher experience (gained on the job), represents the largest benefit in teacher productivity. This benefit is believed to be more substantial than that gained through teacher training. Therefore, this would suggest that the preparation in classroom management would be more favorable in situations where novice teachers and student teachers are able to implement the theoretical knowledge into practice in a timely manner. Training and preparing teachers at the beginning or before the start (allowing for theory and practical application) of a teacher's career is likely to help prevent challenging behaviors of students, create positive proactive teachers, provide effective learning environment and more supportive teacher student relationships and ultimately enhance teachers' job satisfaction.

Teachers who enter a new system of practice and face unexpected management realities may be inclined to adopt any (not necessarily effective) strategy. Terms such as 'washout' and 'reality shock' have been used to describe the loss of skills and knowledge acquired during initial teacher training (Fayne & Ortquist-Ahrens, 2006), when novice teachers first enter the contextual reality of the classroom environment. In this situation, it is likely that to reduce the discomfort of cognitive dissonance, an individual will change their attitudes towards the issue at hand (Veenman, 1984). This may be done for example, through the identification of behavior problems as stemming from the home or outside their control as educators. Teacher beliefs regarding their ability to manage effectively have direct application in terms of classroom practices that occur, and are of importance for their own psychological well-being. Moreover, it has been noted that "teachers who have no confidence in their classroom management abilities are confronted by their incompetence every day" (Brouwers & Tomic, 2000, p. 242).

The problems of classroom management and discipline faced by novice teachers are in fact rooted from overcrowded classrooms (Levin et al., 2005). The informants in this research rank managing large classes (i.e., over crowdedness) as a painful worry. They expressed feelings of frustration and difficulty in managing a large number of students and

catering for their needs. Intuitively, overcrowded classes bring with it disruptive behavior and discipline related problems (noise, not doing homework, tardiness- unexcused absences and unpreparedness for class, etc.). Thus, teachers spend more time on behavioral management instead of actual teaching and learning (Gibbs & Jenkins, 1992). In addition, stuffed classroom hinders the use of collaborative learning and also makes it difficult to provide all the learners with helpful feedback. Activities such as pair work, group work and discussions are not well monitored by teachers given the large number of students in the classroom. As a result, the quality of education is being lowered and the learning environment is negatively affected. Therefore, Khan and Iqbal (2012) suggested that teachers need to be innovative and think creatively about how to make overcrowded classrooms a positive learning environment where effective learning takes place. Some of the informants reported that they didn't realize these complexities when they were pre-service teachers and were confronted with them as soon as they became in-service teachers. Ornstein *et al.* (2011, p. 320) note:

It is difficult for teachers to provide active, meaningful learning experiences when they must cope with the demands of large classes and class loads, a variety of duties and tasks outside their classrooms, pressures to cover a wide range of material and skills, and other such responsibilities.

The study findings also revealed that novice teachers share the belief that male students tend to disrupt the smooth running of class in comparison with female students. These results are in line with Skiba *et al.* (2002) study which showed that male students were notably more likely than female students to have office referrals resulting from multiple classroom disruptive behaviors like fighting and destruction. In a similar vein, Thomas *et al.* (2008) confirmed that male students display significantly higher disruptive behaviors than female counterparts. The participants in this study also reported that their teacher training did not prepare them appropriately to deal or cope with such an obstacle and consequently they find themselves prone to use corporal punishment and intimidation to bring law and order to the class. With less disciplined students and overcrowded classes, teachers seem to be adopting authoritarian methods to impose discipline. This attitude encourages teachers to focus on the completion of the course rather than on establishing rapport.

In addition, due to the high numbers of students in the classroom, teachers' workload is increased. The participants indicated that most of their work was done at home which caused them to give up personal and family time and this impacted on their personal lives. Similarly, Crute (2004) argued that overcrowded classrooms were associated with increased workload and led to teacher burnout. Lazerson (1985, p. 118), argues that, for teachers, knowledge transmission "means being able to teach under conditions that give them the time, the incentive, and the freedom to explore subject matter. This means smaller classes." This is, unfortunately, not possible in the overcrowded classroom conditions in the Algerian schools. Novice teachers are found to be intrinsically and extrinsically motivated to undertake teaching as a profession. However, because of the severe conditions that they cannot tolerate, they end up demotivated and demoralized. In spite of the pay raise and the back pay, teachers would keep feeling demotivated as classrooms are still overcrowded, schedules even more busy, tasks all the more burdensome. In addition, the balance between teachers' well-being (psychologically and socio-professionally), what they possess (instruction materials and teaching facilities), and what is required of them attain (closing the achievement gap) usually tips.

### **6.3.2 Lesson Planning**

Developing effective lesson plans is a crucial and complex process that can take hours and hours of teachers' time. A lesson plan is a document that shows what will happen in a particular timeframe (Whitton, et al., 2004). Placek (1984) gave a detailed definition of lesson planning as a teacher activity that precedes instruction, is concerned with how instruction will be presented, and is based upon expectation or anticipation of classroom events. While Farell (2002, p. 30) define the lesson plan as 'a written description of how students will move toward attaining specific objectives'. These definitions reveal that lesson planning has a crucial role in teaching practice. Calderhead (1984) posits that:

planning is a vital though often undervalued aspect of classroom teaching. It is in planning that teachers translate syllabus guidelines, institutional expectations and their own beliefs and ideologies of education into guidelines for action in the classroom (p. 69)

There is a wide agreement among researchers that planning is important and central to the professional role of teachers (Clark & Yinger, 1987; John, 1994; Calderhead, 1984; So & Watkins, 2005). To demonstrate the importance of planning, Beyerbach (1988) claims that teacher planning is one of the key processes in teaching, and how one thinks about planning will shape classroom interactions and learning outcomes. Clark & Yinger (1987) view planning as an everyday teaching problem that demands the application of a complex network of knowledge and cognitive strategies. They claim that it is in planning that teachers link curriculum to learning. Each teacher begins a lesson with a set of expectations regarding how the events of the lesson are to proceed (Morine-Dershimer, 1978), and thus, planning does affect instruction (Floden & Klinzing, 1990). Amininik et al. (2000) believe that Lesson plan preparation by faculty members is one of the appropriate ways for promotion of education quality; it can help the teachers in teaching as guidance. According to Coppola et al. (2004) Lesson plan is the main foundation of educational structure and it is the core of education. Hence, teachers should not be present in class without a lesson plan because it is required for a successful teaching.

Despite understanding the importance of planning lessons prior to interactive teaching, it has been argued that planning and preparing for teaching is an area where novice teachers frequently experience difficulty (Calderhead, 1984). In a similar vein, Setyono (2016) acknowledged that planning a lesson is a difficult and complex process that involves an understanding of content and pedagogical knowledge, as well as the ability to use critical thinking skills. In this study, lesson planning is ranked as the second major challenge faced by novice teachers. Yıldırım (2003) argues that lesson planning is a crucial process in teachers' gaining experience since it forces them to reflect on what to teach, how to teach and how to evaluate. The majority of research subjects, however, complained about the complexities of developing lesson plans. They explained that lesson planning is very demanding as they find it difficult to establish learning goals, determine the objectives of a lesson and select and organize activities that will be appropriate to both students' levels and interests. On the other hand, some of the informants (10%) highlighted the reality of dealing with the various skill levels of pupils in their classrooms and how it is challenging to make the lessons differentiated enough to cater for each individual student needs. One of the interviewed novice teachers summarized this in the following quote:

Designing and developing lessons plans. I find it very difficult to find activities that are appropriate regarding students learning levels, interests and needs. I want all pupils to participate in the activities I organize, but I find it very difficult to develop an activity. When I plan my lessons, I most of the time have difficulty finding an activity. I hesitate over whether the activity is appropriate... (NT1)

Teacher training programs are supposed to allocate a considerable time to teaching student teachers how to plan lessons (John, 2006; Kagan, 1992). This has the objective to reform the teaching profession across the world which meant an increasing emphasis on the importance of competence on the part of student teachers in the skills of curriculum design and lesson planning (John, 1994). Mutton, Burn and Hagger (2008) maintain that planning is seen by a number of international regulatory bodies as being of fundamental importance in the formation of novice teachers. However, the novice teachers in this study reported a lack of adequate instructional preparation, with the majority of participants (52.86%) believing that their teacher training did not really prepare them to effectively plan and prepare lessons. These respondents admitted that they did not have the knowledge and skills to create the required lesson plans. With this, they also felt unconfident about their teaching performance. Research indicates that novice teachers rarely receive the kind or amount of assistance they need to plan effectively at each stage of their professional development (Bullough, 1987). May (1986) attributed novice teachers' difficulties in lesson planning to the linearity mode followed in teaching planning; the sequence of writing planning may be followed and presented rigidly to student teachers. On the other hand, John (1994) claims that the difficulties are mainly due to the student teachers' low level of classroom knowledge, their relatively unsophisticated interactive skills and lack of well-established classroom routines. In learning how to prepare lessons or ask questions, student teachers in the university do not have to struggle with the complexities of working in the unpredictable context of a real classroom (Furlong & Maynard, 1995), yet in the real classroom there are many uncertainties relating to attitudes, organization issues, time-pressures, moods and emotions (John, 2006). Therefore, novice teachers should be given guidance and practice in seeing the learning task inside the entire school situation. (Westerman, 1991).

Novice teachers enter the teaching profession with different degrees of skill in lesson plan and delivery. Based on the literature, the transition from learning instruction to giving

or assisting in instruction is an important factor in teacher training (Ingersoll, 1999). Many novice teachers face difficulties in planning and presenting the full lesson cycle. He or she may or may not have had the opportunity to carry out the full cycle of planning a series of lessons, implementing those lessons, assessing the students and then evaluating that total cycle. In this study, many novice teachers responded by saying they did not directly receive help from other teachers in lesson planning. Therefore, they wished and asked for the opportunity to work with a qualified mentor who is willing to observe, support and give them the necessary constructive feedback. Montgomery (2008) in the literature suggests that a valuable gift to the novice teacher could be a collection of detailed lesson plans and successful activities that have been tried and tested by an experienced teacher. Even if the lessons are not totally applicable to the novice teacher's classes, they will provide a model for developing activities and other resources. If teachers are to be held accountable for improving student performance it is necessary for resources, both human and financial, to be available and allocated, especially for novices. However, according to John (2006), Lesson planning is a difficult skill for teachers to learn, with a problematic range of outcomes and this calls for an urgent need to support novice teachers get a deeper understanding of the teaching process rather than simply being provided with resources.

McCutcheon (1980) identifies the textbook as having influence on teachers' planning. McCutcheon noted that many teachers relied heavily on textbooks and guides and they thought the textbooks provided a thread of continuity in their lessons for the pupils. She concluded that teachers relied on the textbooks to determine the scope and the sequence of the lessons. This notion was also evident in a work by Calderhead and Shorrock (1997), where the student teachers' decision-making about topics, sequencing, long term aims and teaching techniques were influenced by the textbook, the school's schemes of work, and existing teaching practices within the school. Similarly, Sanchez and Valcarcel (1999) in their study of Spanish teachers also pointed out that the textbook was the main source for the teachers in determining the activities for the lesson. However, the novice teachers in this study definitely perceive the instructional materials in unfavorable light as the majority of them (67.14%) believe that the content of textbooks are not really easy to implement. Thus, some of them were found to consult other books in their planning as an addition to gain more information about the topics, This negative attitude may be an outcome of the absence of a well-planned training that targets to explain how to use effectively the textbooks or because they did not totally agree with the textbook. This

notion was echoed by McCutcheon (1980) who argued that the textbooks themselves may not be structured to provide continuity. Furthermore, the textbooks may differ from one another and from teachers' beliefs on some basic issues in teaching. This means that novice teachers are in need for more detailed training to establish the wider understanding and expertise needed to plan and prepare lessons.

### **6.3.3 Assessment and grading**

Novice teachers enter a profession where standards, assessment, and accountability are central to their practice. Yet despite over two decades of the standards-based paradigm, novice teachers still report low levels of assessment knowledge and confidence in this core area of teaching practice. Historically assessment education occupied a small part of teacher education and training programs, however now there is an increasing recognition that assessment needs to be part of all areas of learning as it is interconnected with learning, teaching and professional studies in education. Research studies focused on assessment literacy suggest that while initial training programs cannot provide teachers with a bank of predefined skills and knowledge that will help them endure throughout their career, they can provide them with a template for learning about assessment and readiness for engaging in the developmental nature of being a skilled teacher in assessment.

The questionnaire and interview data highlighted assessment as a challenging area where novice teachers manifested a clear inability to deal with. The participants reported difficulties in assessing and evaluating their students' work. They also revealed their inability to use various forms of assessment. Assessment can be both formal and informal. The first is a summative assessment administered as tests and examinations at the end of the year. The latter, in the other hand, is used to monitor students' progress through interactions, observations and teacher-student conferences. Research studies indicate that informal assessment could be used to provide vital feedback to teachers so they can modify or change their teaching approaches and practices (AITSL, 2011), and meet the needs of their students (Pate, 2005; Wyatt-Smith et al., 2010). Assessment is thus a starting point for teaching. Once teachers have an understanding of students' knowledge they can create experiences to build upon their prior learning. From the professional in-service context, O'Leary and Lysaght (2013) carried out an empirical study that involved the completion of a self-assessment questionnaire by 594 practicing teachers drawn from 42 schools. The

study confirmed the urgent need for high-quality professional development to build teachers' assessment knowledge and capability. Similarly, Beck et al. (2007) discussed their participants' desires to have a deeper understanding and knowledge of assessment. This is in line with the findings of this study where the participants commented their need for teacher training programs that teach what to assess, what to look for when giving assessments and how to use assessment tools. This shows that novice teachers of this study and previous studies lack the expertise necessary to assess pupils effectively. According to Airasian (1991),

Teachers, as a group, from preschool instructors to university professors, have little formal training in classroom assessment techniques. They are forced to function with partial knowledge, and feel most comfortable with procedures that can easily accommodate their busy days (p. 262).

Whether the purpose is to diagnose learning or provide feedback to pupils, the assessment of pupils' development and achievement is central to the ongoing activity of teacher practice. Therefore, teachers are urged to become the "responsible, well-prepared classroom assessment professional" (Stiggins, 1997, p. 9). There is a widespread call from educational policies and professional standards for teachers to integrate assessments throughout instruction to support, monitor and report on student learning, and to use summative forms of assessment to document and demonstrate achievement of educational standards (DeLuca, LaPointe-McEwan, & Luhanga, 2016; Gotch & French, 2014). The movement of accountability is supported by educational research that supports assessment-based teaching as a potentially effective educational strategy to enhance students' achievement (Hattie, 2009). Emphasizing the importance of assessment knowledge, Popham (2009) notes that teachers' inadequate knowledge in assessment can damage the quality of education. DeLuca and Bellara (2013) further added that as the scope of educational assessment changes to include accountability mandates and standards-based teaching as well as student-centered pedagogies and student-directed assessments, there is a constant need to shift pre-service assessment training experiences that prepare teachers to include different goals and practices of assessment in schools. Despite these widespread calls for capable teachers in assessment, this study, as well as other studies, indicates that teachers generally demonstrate low levels of assessment knowledge and skills, with novice

teachers particularly unprepared for assessment practices (MacLellan, 2004). This can be seen in the following excerpt by the interviewed novice teacher:

I have difficulties with grading and assessment. Last year I have been overwhelmed by the amount of essay grading in addition to my other areas of responsibility. I keep changing my grading method to ensure that I am properly assessing the skill I am seeking from the students. I am also trying to be sure to make grading more efficient so I won't be very overwhelmed in the future. (NT3)

These persistent findings are unsurprising due to the fact that assessment has historically been a neglected field of study in teacher education programs (Stiggins, 1997). Furthermore, the current teacher education programs posit several obstacles for supporting student teachers and novice teachers' developing knowledge and practices of assessment. The often short and fragmented (periodic seminars) nature of teacher training programs, diversity of teacher trainers and variability in their teaching approaches to assessment, and competing learning priorities limit the consistency and prominence of effective assessment education within pre-service teacher preparation programs (DeLuca & Volante, 2016). Teacher' own levels of assessment capability might also, in some cases, be lacking. Another important finding from the study was that novice teachers appeared more focused on assessing their pupils' learning than assessing themselves and their own developing assessment capability. In other words, novice teachers are primarily concerned with their students' growth and development. Therefore, teacher training programs and schools need to create the conditions through which teachers begin to focus simultaneously on their own development. If prospective teachers and novice teachers realize the value of using assessment to support their own learning, they are more likely to appreciate assessment as an effective pedagogical approach with their classroom students. Hence, learning to assess is just as much about teacher' use of assessment for professional learning as it is about classroom assessment. To conclude, pedagogical knowledge of assessment and the implementation processes required for assessment such as creating a variety of assessment tasks needs to be reviewed in the delivery of teacher preparation.

### **6.3.4 Workload and Time Management**

In addition to classroom management, lesson planning and executing effective instruction for all learners, there is a sizeable amount of work to be done outside of the instructional time allotted for each day. Novice teachers are expected to accomplish a number of tasks, which require time and organization, for which they received little or no training. These tasks include completing diaries and reports, attending meetings, responding to email requests from administration and communicating and interacting with parents. Furthermore, novice teachers are expected to be proficient in technology applications for which they have received little training and experience prior to being hired. During the interview phase, one of the participants acknowledged facing difficulties with time management and getting everything all done because of the overwhelming workload. These findings are in accordance with Karakus and Sancar's study (2011) in which they found that time management and classroom management were the most challenging problems of novice teachers. Beck et al. (2007) also mentioned the knowledge of teaching realities. The informants within their study reported their need to have more preparation on the "hard realities" of teaching. Time constraint was among these realities that teachers often faced and struggled with in the classroom. In addition, Lambert, Torres, and Tummons (2012) investigated time management and stress levels of first-year agriculture teachers. They determined that the more confident novice teacher feel about their time management, the lower they perceive their stress level.

Interview results also disclose that novice teachers are still working on their own to develop time management strategies in order to keep pace with curriculum, better execute their tasks and meet their students' needs. In a study conducted by Ahles (2015) about novice teachers' experiences and use of time, the principal in the study insisted that schools should provide on-the-job training and professional development training that specifically targets how novice teachers handle time management, organization, and task completion. If the priorities of teachers are shifted away from instruction towards completing non-instructional tasks, the result could be students who are ill-prepared and incompetent in the job market. In addition, novice teachers' enthusiasm for teaching could diminish significantly due to the heavy workload and changing expectations for their practice (Ballet & Kelchtermanns, 2009). The increased responsibilities and demands placed on novice teachers cause them to feel inefficient, discouraged and overwhelmed

about all the work they need to accomplish (Crotwell, 2011) and this creates an avenue for greatly increased teacher fatigue and burnout.

In addition to the stress of starting a new profession, the amount of work required of novice teachers can quickly lead to teacher attrition. Managing the various responsibilities as a novice teacher is similar to students organizing their module load in their first year of university. Van der Meer, Jansen, and Torenmeek (2010) conducted a study into the induction practices of universities that trained first-year students how to practice time management. They found that the various backgrounds and prior learning experiences of students were the reason behind students leaving university after their first year indicating that they were unable to manage their time and workload. Van der Meer et al. (2010) argued that student teachers should be prepared in the area of time management in order to learn how to prioritize their time for improved achievement and student retention. Novice teachers in their first years experience much of the same thing. They fail at organizing all their new responsibilities and they become overwhelmed and burned out with their job. This leads some of them to leave the profession looking for better job opportunities after just one year. Sugden (2010) pointed out that “because of increasing workload, many teachers are faced with basically four choices: taking on the additional responsibilities, teaching part-time, choosing to resign from the profession, or retiring early” (p. 3).

## **6.4 General Implications**

In light of what was found in the previous section, this section will provide some implications for improving novice teachers’ situation and thus respond to the third question.

### **6.4.1 The Necessity of Well-designed Pre-service Training Programs**

Pre-service teacher training programs are the first form of professional study that prospective teachers complete to enter the teaching profession. Pre-service teacher training programs typically consists of a blend of theoretical knowledge about teaching and a field-based practice experience (called a practicum). It is during this period of time that pre-service teachers acquire the content knowledge, pedagogy skills and attitudes necessary to be an effective teacher. Therefore, a well-developed pre-service teacher training program should be implemented where prospective teachers should meet a set of professional

standards which are statements describing what pre-service teachers should know and be able to perform before they are certified. These standards should include content knowledge, pedagogical skills, classroom management, planning for instruction, assessment, learner development and learning differences as well as professional collaboration that teachers would need to be effective. In addition, pre-service teacher training programs content needs to be aligned with what teachers teach, need and experience in their classrooms as well as the type and length of professional development opportunities available, required, and recommended for teachers after the pre-service and induction phases to ensure a lifelong learning.

#### **6.4.2 Inclusion of a Well-developed Practicum**

Providing pre-service teachers with the most updated theories of literacy, composition, grammar/mechanics, learner development, student motivation, and classroom management is an obligation of any teacher training program. However, teaching is a profession that cannot solely be learned through lectures, but rather requires field-based practice experience. Real life experiences are crucial, and there is a lot of learning done on the job. Learning theory in isolation from practice contributes to the gap between research and practice and produce teachers who feel unprepared to meet the educational needs of their learners. This means that teachers need to be prepared and have previous hands-on experience within a classroom setting before setting out into their own classrooms. Therefore, teacher training programs need to implement well-structured practicum experiences in which pre-service teachers would be given one placement for an entire semester and during which student teachers would take methodology courses, such as classroom management, organization, collaboration and other courses that are best learned through experience. This would give pre-service teachers a chance to experience real teaching and learning and help them better understand the dynamics of real classrooms.

Implementing effective practicum ensures that pre-service teachers have sufficient time to better understand and apply the concepts and strategies they learnt in their university and college courses alongside teachers who can guide, support and show them how to teach in ways that are responsive to learners as well as help them avert much of the shock and awe they might experience as novice teachers. Besides, applying the knowledge

and skills in a real classroom context enables pre-service teachers to have authentic experiences that facilitate deep learning. Hence, rather than teacher training where pre-service teachers are being lectured to in a classroom, more opportunities for teaching practice early into educational programs should be increased. This supervised experience could help pre-service teachers develop their teaching skills and start collecting experiences to enrich their professional wisdom.

### **6.4.3 Developing a Solid Teacher Induction Program**

Beginning teachers are in need of guaranteed safeguards put in place to assist them with learning on the job in their first years in the classroom. It is very overwhelming for novice teachers entering the classroom for the first time. They have expectations of executing perfectly designed lessons and enjoying their new position. However, they are met with unexpected requirements of data collection, extracurricular duties, and many additional tasks added to their already full schedule. Despite the fact that teacher induction is regarded as one of the most useful practices to facilitate the transition of novice teachers into their careers and prevent problems, many novice teachers do not receive the required support and thus become easily overwhelmed and frustrated. Therefore, in order to keep these enthusiastic novice teachers in the field, induction programs that include mentoring and ongoing support must be designed and implemented to prevent them from becoming discouraged, burned out, and consequently leave the profession.

In countries listed as having effective induction programs, it is the preparation, support, and evaluation of their teachers that are essential to program success to properly acculturate their teachers into the profession. Schools need to implement policy that promotes formal, structured induction processes that meet the needs of novice teachers. Induction programs should be conceptualized as a learning process that provides professional support in the form of orientation to the school to help socialize novice teachers to their new workplace and profession. This induction support means that after the training period the training implementing body provides different kinds of supporting activities such as Teacher Learning Circles, Class Observation, Sample teaching and Mentoring and Coaching to follow the course of teachers in school for some time to see if and how they transfer what they learned into classroom practices which is the ultimate aim

of the program. Moreover, these activities can help the teachers regularly gather and learn from each other and share experiences. “Communication among teachers is a major vehicle for fostering teacher professional development and teachers learn more from each other than from an authorized person such as a content expert” (Park et al, 2007). On the other hand, these follow-up activities ensure long term effectiveness and sustainability of the training programs and also provide a chance to support teachers in overcoming difficulties they might experience during the implementation of new approaches.

#### **6.4.4 Addressing Novice Teachers’ Workload**

On top of planning, teaching, and accommodating for students, teachers are expected to keep up with paperwork. This large workload can be taxing on teachers and as Leithwood and McAdie (2007) suggest, “when teachers perceive their workload to be imbalanced compared to that of their peers, teacher stress is increased, teacher morale is weakened, and teacher commitment to schools become a concern”. When this happens, teacher burnout is more likely to occur. Therefore, to prevent such outcomes, management techniques should be part of teacher training courses to help teachers balance their priorities and efficiently distribute and manage their work. With effective management skills, teachers can increase their productivity and provide better education for their students. On the other hand, Guidelines should be issued by appropriate bodies to reduce the workload of novice teachers so that they have more time to focus on teaching. In addition, redundant activities should be consolidated and unnecessary ones should be cancelled. Schools should also simplify the process of data reporting and improve the management of databases with advanced technologies.

#### **6.4.5 The Necessity of On-going In-service Teacher Training**

The most successful programs will seek to extend the learning time for trainees to the greatest extent possible, offer training in diverse pedagogical skills and rich content, and provide opportunities to apply such information in real classrooms. Therefore, teachers’ education and training need to continue once they are employed and licensured. This means that ongoing teacher education and training should be an integral part of the

seminars, in-service conferences, and formative training periods. This investigation reveals that teachers' teaching expertise originates from their own try-and-error, hands-on experience rather than from their former education and actual training. This proves the inadequacy of the teacher training they received. A high-quality, intensive training program is what matters most for preparing effective novice teachers.

#### **6.4.6 Inspector-Teacher Seminars**

Official periodic meetings are usually referred to as seminars, and represent a unique opportunity for both teachers and inspectors to connect, share, and exchange ideas and experiences. However, unfortunately, seminars are constantly held with little benefits for most teachers because most of the time teacher-teacher interactions are limited, and teacher-inspector interactions are controlled by face-saving attitudes and thus little innovation is introduced. In addition, the themes of the seminars are selected and imposed by inspectors, which accommodate inspectors' needs rather than teachers'. This implies that teachers are only occasionally consulted regarding their needs, the way to manage seminars, and the recommendations that need to be implemented as well as evaluated in the next seminars. Besides, these seminars are discrete in nature, and therefore, lack evaluation and future planning, which eventually minimize their efficiency and compromises their utility. The ultimate goal of the seminars ought to be to assist secondary school novice teachers of English develop professionally, i.e., to become reflective, skillful, and expert teachers. Therefore, teachers need to be meaningfully engaged in the planning, preparation, and implementation of these seminars. Moreover, they need to be empowered by enabling them to participate in decision-making and craft objectives of and recommendations for the upcoming seminars.

#### **6.4.7 Training Skilled Teacher Trainers**

Trainers' ability to teach and train effectively and to satisfy the participants is another important indicator raised by the novice teachers. Trainers shall be qualified and had the ability to use different methods and skills in order to facilitate or deliver the planned subjects effectively to participants and tackle or address their problems. A large proportion of the participants were either partly or completely unsatisfied with their

trainers' quality. Therefore, there is an urgent need to give priority to the training of teacher trainers as this relates directly to the effectiveness of teacher training. Teacher educators at all levels, whether school or college, need to have induction and continuing professional development. Those who lead them also need managerial competencies. This could ensure that they are aware of recent developments, can judge whether these should be incorporated into training, have perspectives that run beyond their direct experience, and have a rich range of materials to draw on to support and stimulate trainee and novice teachers.

Teacher trainers are the most valuable assets of a teacher training system and their well-being is a critical factor that ensures an effective functioning of teacher training institutions. Therefore, steps must be taken by the managements, university and the government to improve the well-being of teacher trainers. High qualifications, efficiency and competency are of no use, if teacher trainers are not having satisfaction in the job. Job satisfaction is a primary requisite for any successful teaching and learning process. To improve effectiveness among teacher trainers in teacher training institutions, promotion opportunities, incentives and rewards should be provided. This will not only improve trainers' effectiveness but also motivate and attract new talents into the profession.

#### **6.4.8 Conducting Training Needs Assessment**

Needs assessment of teachers' training needs is highly recommended prior to developing any kind of training materials. Effective training programs of teachers begin with an understanding of teachers' needs and their work environments (Gaible, Burn, 2005). Unfortunately however, needs assessment is usually ignored as a critical first step in the development of most teacher training program plans. This leads to waste of time, human resources and money while damaging the motivation and enthusiasm of the majority of entities involved in those programs. According to Wanzare and Ward (2000), staff development for the twenty first century should give novice teachers an opportunity to contribute to programs which address their own training needs.

Needs analysis is, therefore, a crucial step that should be taken to investigate teachers' needs for English education at secondary schools. Identifying teachers' needs is paramount so that the teacher training program helps teachers get ready for their teaching tasks. Taking into account that novice teachers should have positive attitudes toward the changes

in order for the policy to be successfully implemented, it is quite important to consider teachers' own perceptions about the areas in which they feel proficient, those in which they feel a need to be trained and those areas in which they have deficiencies but they are completely unaware of them. Such guidelines can help curriculum designers of teacher training develop appropriate learning objectives for target language needs. In short, future teacher training and professional development activities should be sensitive to teachers' needs, expectations and professional roles. Teacher training programs are most effective when they are based on an assessment of teachers' needs.

#### **6.4.9 Classroom Management and Overcrowded Classes**

Classroom management can be seen as the foundation for learning within the classroom environment. Without classroom management skills, a teacher will find it difficult to provide a productive learning environment for students. Taking the results of this study, where novice teachers in their majority reported classroom management as their major challenge and complained about being inadequately trained in this area, into consideration, an improvement of the actual teacher training program is vital to ensure the provision of the best possible commencement of teachers' career. Therefore, it would be wise for universities and colleges to consider offering more classroom management courses and strategies than the one or two offered during pedagogical classes. Classes such as engagement strategies, organization, or teaching students how to recognize their preferences while learning would be incredibly helpful for teachers to maintain a peaceful classroom, and hold students accountable for their actions. In addition, it would be beneficial to implement management strategies throughout different courses, as well as provide a general classroom management course as part of teacher preparation. This type of training is important for establishing safe, effective and successful learning environment for both students and teachers.

Among the factors responsible for classroom management problems and students' misbehavior is overcrowded classes. The present study has shown that novice teachers complained about the number of students in classes which exceeded 40 students and this works as a barrier towards effective teaching. Overcrowding brings with it disruptive behavior and discipline related problems (noise, not doing homework, tardiness-unexcused absences and unpreparedness for class, etc.), hinders the use of collaborative

learning and also makes it difficult to provide all learners with helpful feedback. Therefore, it is recommended that the number of students in each class should not exceed 25 students. In addition, school structures should be renovated and new ones constructed to enhance the academic performance. Reporting the benefits of smaller classes, the Report of the National Commission on Education (1993) corroborated, “The teacher is able to give individual attention to the child; to give more work and mark it; to get to know the strengths and weakness of children better and therefore devise appropriate remedial measures” (p.122).

#### **6.4.10 Continuous Professional Development**

Teacher preparation programs may not always train pre-service teachers adequately for all conditions and situations, which is why there is a need for ongoing professional development. Professional development encompasses a broad range of trainings, lectures and ways in which teachers learn to become better at teaching and helping students. Research studies found that targeted and ongoing professional development is critical in developing and supporting co-teaching in schools. One-shot professional learning workshops rarely lead to effective sustained changes. Therefore, continuous professional development provision needs to emphasize continuous, long-term and sustained professional learning.

For positive and beneficial change to take place, there should be an alignment between the curriculum and teachers’ professional development practices. If teachers feel a disconnect between what they are urged to do in professional development activities and what they are required to do according to the curriculum or if they cannot implement easily the strategies they learnt and the new practices are not reinforced or supported, then the professional development tends to have little impact. Therefore, there should be an alignment of professional development programs content with what teachers teach, need and experience in their classrooms. Besides, teachers should not be abandoned after taking part in the program; they need continuous support in the form of consultations to resolve doubts and problems. Fostering a culture and means of continuing professional development is crucial not only to refresh and expand teachers’ content knowledge and effective teaching practices, but also as a way for teachers to learn about changes in

curriculum, technology, and national priorities as well as new teaching and learning methods beyond the pre-service stage.

#### **6.4.11 Organization of more Conferences and Seminars in Algerian Universities**

Higher education institutions should pay particular attention to the advancement of knowledge through research because it is through research that teaching can be made more efficient. Different issues of education are continuously been identified and addressed by researchers in the field. Therefore, conferences and seminars are held to provide possible solutions and treatments. These kinds of professional gatherings commonly update teachers with the latest progress and issues in a particular field. To this end, organizing more conferences and seminars would probably be a wise step to enable teachers update their knowledge, reflect on their teaching practices and adopt new methods and strategies in teaching. Attending conferences and meetings allows teachers to hear about the latest developments in the field, take part in investigative workshops and enter into debates about current issues in theory and practice, and best of all when teachers acquire new skills and ideas at conferences and then model those new approaches for their colleagues (Dodgson, 2011).

#### **6.4.12 The Necessity of Partnership between University and Secondary Teachers**

As stressed previously, field-based student teaching is a central component of teacher training that allows pre-service teachers to make a smooth transition into their new career as teachers. Prospective teachers should be exposed to teaching in a real context as early as possible, and maintain the experience until the program completion. This can only be accomplished through school-university partnership because pre-service teachers are unable to complete the training program at university without intensive teaching experience gained on a school site. Therefore, strengthened collaboration between secondary schools and universities is proposed as a means to enhance teacher preparation.

This partnership between secondary schools and universities is necessary so that continuity is achieved. Besides, the coordination between the two levels can give the

opportunity to secondary teachers to benefit from university teachers who are conducting research and are also more aware of learning and teaching theories. This can make teaching in the Algerian context more beneficial if findings from research are put into practice in the field in all the educational levels. In addition, to be most effective, teacher preparation programs should align training closely with the needs of the schools that their teacher trainees will serve by including more specific secondary years subjects, enhancing university lecturing approaches for secondary schooling, extended school-based experiences, and supporting teacher mentors in their roles. In this way, teaching can be more efficient and may find ways to enhance English language learners' proficiency.

#### **6.4.13 Promotion of Collegiality to Support Novice Teachers**

Collegial relationships with administrators and colleague teachers are paramount to a novice teacher. As novice teachers seek to find their place as members of the professional community of teaching, they will need the assistance and guidance of administrators and experienced teachers. The novice teachers in this study reported a lack of support from administrators and teacher colleagues. They expressed feelings of isolation and helplessness when their administrators did not have the organizational structures in place for them to be successful as professional teachers. The lack of expressive support also contributed to these feelings of isolation and makes it difficult for them to adapt to changes and integrate into the school community. According to the literature, it is believed that administrators shape novice teachers' working conditions and influence their professional growth (Rosenholtz, 1989). Therefore, school administration should support novice teachers and make them feel welcomed as part of the school's professional community, for treating them any differently can ruin their self-esteem and lower their self-efficacy.

In addition to administrators' support, veteran teachers' guidance plays an important role in the induction of novice teachers. It is recommended that veteran teachers converse regularly with the novice teachers in their school in order provide assistance if necessary. This assistance may be in the form of providing encouragement, or sharing knowledge, and resources. These recommendations for practice may contribute substantially to improvements in both novice teacher effectiveness and the ability for administrators to retain highly effective teachers in their school.

Teacher induction comes through a well-organized plan consisting of administrators, teachers, and other entities vital to the teaching profession. This Support functions as catalyst for promoting higher well-being among teacher educators. Therefore, novice teacher support should be viewed at as a continuum, starting with personal and emotional support, expanding to include specific task or problem- related support and, in the ideal, expanding further to help the novice teacher develop a capacity for critical self-reflection on the teaching practice. Each aspect of support serves a different purpose. In order to adequately support novice teachers, all areas of support should be identified. If novice teachers receive adequate support and feel successful in their work, they will be more likely to give their best and have a positive effect on student achievement.

#### **6.4.14 Ensuring Financial support**

The quality of teaching depends to a great extent on the quality of teachers which in turn depends to some extent on the quality of their teacher training and professional development. Therefore, it should be noted that for teaching training and professional development programs to succeed, adequate funding is required to support teacher training programs prepare and graduate competent and confident teachers. This financial support should also be continuous and not only people's efforts and time. In addition to that, efforts and money should not be spent without ongoing and systematic evaluation of the training programs. There should always be some kind of a follow up to see what benefits teachers are getting from trainings and which will be of great benefit to them in their teaching practices in class. Effective evaluation should be directed towards the examination of actual teaching practices, examination of the training's impact on teachers' behavior, and the effect of this impact on students' learning. Most important of all, this evaluation should be a continuous process; experts and participants should evaluate those programs regularly and necessary changes must be applied. Such evaluation process allows professional development process staff to find and correct errors in implementation and identify factors that lead to success.

## 6.5 Conclusion

This chapter provided interpretations of the main findings outlined in chapter five. It was seen that the participants held negative attitudes toward their teacher training because there seemed to be a state of incompatibility between their needs and their teacher training practices. The participants indicated that their training was too theoretical and lacked adequate fieldwork experiences. It was also seen that the participants harbor unfavorable attitudes toward their socio-professional environment. They indicated poor professional relationships with colleagues, inspectors and administrators. The findings also unveiled that novice teachers nurture negative attitudes toward two major challenges: contextual challenges including classroom management, overcrowded classes, heavy workload and teaching related challenges including lesson planning, assessment and grading and time management. Of all these challenges, however, managing overcrowded classrooms have sparked a record number of teachers' grievances; with such large numbers of poorly disciplined students, novice teachers constantly strive to bring order as well as discipline to the class to the detriment of leading students to meaningful engagement. As things stand, these challenges ought to be addressed speedily and fairly in order to preserve novice teachers' commitment, engagement, and persistence. Therefore, some general implications were offered by the end of the chapter.

## General Conclusion

It cannot be denied that the success and failure in achieving quality education lies primarily in the hands of teachers and thus it is vital to recognize the core role of classroom teachers in achieving quality education. Competent teachers are considered the most important contributing factor in improving the quality of education since they are the front line agents responsible for implementing things like educational policies, curriculum and resources into practice. However, producing competent teachers depends to a large extent on the quality of their teacher education and training. Believing that novice teachers are both consumers and producers of knowledge, their attitudes and views concerning their training and preparation cannot be alienated or underestimated. Therefore, the purpose of this study is to investigate EFL novice teachers' attitudes toward their teacher training especially in relation to the work demands they encounter in secondary school settings. This study has sought to answer the following questions:

- 1- How do EFL novice teachers in Biskra region perceive their teacher training?
- 2- What do EFL novice teachers in Biskra region find challenging in their first years of teaching?
- 3- What implications does this study have on teacher training and development in Algeria?

The present study lends itself to investigating the attitudes of EFL novice teachers in the region of Biskra toward their teacher training. It targets to disclose the nature of novice teachers' attitudes and the underlying reasons thereof. Hence, the very nature of the investigation sets the choice and tone of the explorative-interpretive methodology. At the explorative level, it attempts to explore and explain the factors behind novice teachers' intricate attitudes as well as the challenges posed to the teachers in terms of content, activities and methods, etc. This will pave the way for the second level of the study namely, interpretive. It looks at teachers from an 'emic' perspective where the researcher provides interpretations to social phenomena from the participants' perspective within the

interactional environment (Seedhouse, 2006). In this sense, the participants' world is interpreted through the lens of the researcher.

The literature review, in chapter one, helped discover general issues about novice teachers which covered the attitudinal phases of novice teacher development, types of knowledge required of novice teachers and their needs that should be fulfilled. It also elaborated the difficulties usually encountered during the first years of teaching. The second chapter provided an overview of teacher training and development in general and in Algeria in particular where it highlighted the training systems before and after the reforms were initiated.

The third chapter, classroom management, introduced the concept as the biggest single concern of novice teachers. It covered the importance of classroom management approaches, models and strategies and how this can influence novice teachers' teaching efficacy and motivation. The fourth chapter discussed the methodological issues of the study. These pertain to the research method, design, and the different tools used to collect data about the participants' attitudes and perceptions. This chapter also discussed the process of data analysis and highlighted issues of ethics and trustworthiness.

Chapter five presented the study findings obtained from novice teachers' questionnaire and interviews. Chapter six explored and discussed further these findings and responded to the first and second research questions. It was found that the participants held negative attitudes toward their teacher training because there was an issue of inconsistency of participants' needs and the training program practices. In this respect, it was found that there were a number of reasons affecting novice teachers' attitudes toward their teacher training. These reasons include: a gap between theory and practice, lack of field work experiences and unsupportive working environment. In addition, the findings unveil that EFL novice teachers face a number of challenges: contextual challenges (classroom management, large classes, workload and time management), and teaching-related challenges (lesson planning, assessment and grading). In light of what was found, some implications were provided for improving novice teachers' situation and thus responded to the third question.

The findings of the investigation unveil that the high school novice teachers of English nurture negative attitudes towards their teacher training due to contradictions between the experiences offered by the teacher training program and the novice teachers'

needs and expectations as they step into their own classrooms. The data also revealed that the participants found their teacher training courses to be too theoretical and irrelevant for classroom teaching. The concern the novice teachers expressed on the lack of field work experiences is not unique and it has been a recurring theme in other contexts as well. Thus, the novice teachers indicated the need for more field work experiences so that pre-service teachers come to know more about teachers' world of work. The participants also felt the lack of pedagogical knowledge and skills in their pre-service teacher training which is quite understandable as pedagogy needs to be applied to actual hands-on teaching which is perceived to be lacking.

Many participants in this study found themselves unable to translate what they had been taught at university into effective teaching practices in their classrooms. Basically, trainee teachers learn content courses and many other education foundation courses that are supposed to help them develop into good teachers. However, the majority of novice teachers in the present study reported that they fail to see the link between what they learnt at university or college with the real situations they encountered in their classrooms. Sometimes putting theory into practice becomes difficult as student teachers mostly learn differently from how they are expected to teach in schools. Experiencing such gap is often a defining point in the teaching career and usually has one of the three possible endings: the novice teacher will work through reality shock using the skills and knowledge that he or she obtained during training and thrive in the teaching career. The novice teacher can alternatively try to survive through reality shock or, in unfortunate cases, choose to quit the teaching profession.

The school environment, with all its constraints, also seems to negatively affect the majority of novice teachers' attitudes as they perceive their school context to be stressful, demotivating and threatening. The study findings disclose that the majority considered their mentors to be inadequately qualified as they were unable to provide them with necessary feedback and guidance. Besides, they described their inspectors as too demanding and overbearing and in total disregard of their professional and social constraints. Moreover, they indicated that their inspectors keep criticizing and intimidating them instead of actually advising them. Therefore, they reported the need for a supportive and reflective teacher-inspector relationship rather than a mechanistic and criticizing one. Novice teachers also reported poor professional relationships with their colleagues. The

questionnaire results disclose that the majority of novice teachers report that their colleagues are selfish, reluctant to help and uncooperative. With such unfavorable attitudes, in-school cooperation and coordination between teachers becomes limited and this contributes to novice teachers' feelings of isolation and helplessness. Moreover, the majority of participants expressed a lack of administrative support with expressive (lack of respect and administrators being unapproachable) and instrumental (inadequate planning time and unfair distribution of resources) elements. These results show a clear dissatisfaction among novice teachers with their school environment.

Without adequate training and preparation on the roles and responsibilities expected of teachers in the workplace, novice teachers could be faced with considerable difficulties in effectively carrying out their work. The findings of the investigation unveil that high school novice teachers of English face two major challenges: contextual challenges including classroom management, overcrowded classes, heavy workload and teaching related challenges including lesson planning, assessment and grading and time management. These challenges were investigated deeply so that the results might advance teacher training practices to meet the contemporary needs of novice teachers and their students at large.

The findings showed that the majority of novice teachers reported classroom management as their biggest challenge. The participants reported feelings of frustration and lack of training and preparation to effectively manage classrooms and students' behavior. Failure to address students' disruptive behavior compromises the teaching and learning environment whereby activities are interrupted, curriculum content is not covered and the learning opportunities are decreased. In fact, classroom management and discipline problems faced by novice teachers are rooted from overcrowded classrooms. Therefore, the participants also reported that the most challenging task in classroom management is handling overcrowded classrooms. Like other developing countries, the number of students in Algerian classrooms might reach forty. It is evident that overcrowded classrooms are not conducive for the teaching-learning process. Overcrowded classes significantly affect the teaching and learning process since the activities like pair work, group work and discussion are not well monitored by novice teachers given the large number of students in the classroom.

In the area of lesson planning, the participants found the process of lesson planning time consuming and complex. They complained about the difficulties of developing lesson plans and establishing specific learning goals and admitted that they were not properly prepared to have the knowledge and skills required to develop smooth and sequential teaching activities in the lesson plan. Similarly, the participants reported their inability to fully implement the textbooks which indicates that the provision of resources like textbooks is insufficient to support novice teachers' planning. Another thing related to this is the feeling of being overwhelmed by time constraints and workload. They complained about the lack of time which does not allow them to plan and implement lessons, as well as deal with all the paper work. They realized that these time requirements impeded their ability to reflect meaningfully on their teaching. Some of the informants reported that they did not realize these complexities when they were pre-service teachers and were confronted with them as soon as they became in-service teachers.

Meanwhile, in the area of assessment and grading, the analysis suggests that the participants are not prepared well enough to assess students' performance. The novice teachers admitted the difficulty assessing productive skills like writing. The novice teachers also felt that the most challenging task in assessment was preparing their students for national examinations to achieve the best marks possible due to the high expectations from the school and parents. Similarly, the participants claim that they did not receive adequate training or support to develop quality assessment pieces in their own classrooms. Using the traditional instructive teaching approaches which focus on the transmission of knowledge, teacher training programs fail to equip novice teachers with assessment and grading skills that are critical for daily classroom practice.

Due to gaps in their preparation, novice teachers suffered feelings of helplessness and hopelessness resulting from tensions between, on the one hand, their sense of responsibility, and on the other hand, their inability to cope with the demands of their work. Therefore, these novice teachers have pointed to a need for additional training and a revision of the teacher training program. This would be a positive move as other concerns expressed by these participants could also be given serious consideration, such as the need to provide a pleasant learning and teaching environment with suitable resources and facilities. Teachers whose capacity is limited by deficiencies in their preparation and working environment will affect children's education and their future life opportunities.

Therefore, accommodating novice teachers' attitudes and needs will be significantly beneficial to the Algerian education and the psychological well-being of both teachers and students.

Research has always been an on-going process and no research in itself is considered complete. The present thesis explored the attitudes of EFL novice teachers regarding the adequacy of their teacher training. The researcher believes that the research questions outlined in the general introduction were answered appropriately in the different chapters of the thesis and that appropriate methodology was used to that end. Nevertheless, this study raised a number of issues which may provide a basis for future research. This is partially due to some limitations which are presented below:

First, it is important to note that teachers' attitudes are hard to investigate since this area is still surrounded with ambiguity and inconclusiveness. Therefore, it was found that researching teachers' attitudes represented a difficult task, especially as teachers' attitudes are inclusive, complex, diverse and therefore difficult to assess. In the process of conducting the present study, we discovered that identifying teachers' attitudes was a hard and complex task. This was a challenge that can be acknowledged as a limitation in this thesis.

Another possible limitation of this study may relate to the fact that the present research work is not a longitudinal one so it did not allow the researcher to focus on the evolution and change of teachers' attitudes, but attempted to represent teachers' attitudes in the frame of a snapshot. Thus, any conclusions established do not provide a full picture of teachers' attitudes towards the adequacy of their teacher training.

Third, other limitations were related to the sampling and selection of teachers for the study. The study was limited to a sample of seventy high school novice teachers of English and three individual novice teachers. While this number can be seen as large enough for illuminative purposes, it can be argued, however, that it may not be large enough to be generalized to represent all the teachers in Algeria.

Every research is based upon previous studies and lays down the foundation for a new study. Considering the limitations identified in this study as well as issues raised during data analysis of the questionnaire and interviews, similar studies with different sample size and variable may be conducted to further add or strengthen the results of this study. Therefore, some suggestions are made for further research.

- The findings of this study could be multiplied through a deeper research carried out with multiple participants. The results of this study were obtained from a sample of seventy novice teachers who completed their teacher preparation program through university and training colleges. Future research should seek to obtain a larger sample size. In addition, some stakeholders' opinions were not included in the study, hence, another study using interviews with school principals, inspectors, supervisors and administrators could be carried out to see the teacher preparation picture from a broader and diverse perspective.
- The present study results could also be multiplied through a deeper research carried out with multiple research instruments. The present study relied on questionnaires and interviews as methods of data collection. Future researchers may wish to consider utilizing additional data collection tools like classroom observations, focus groups, and diaries. This would help develop a comprehensive understanding of EFL novice teachers' opinions and perceptions regarding their preparation
- Further research could, for instance, conduct a comparative study between teachers who graduated from university-based training program and those graduated from ENS colleges. This comparison may yield valuable insights into the kinds of support available to both groups of teachers and which program produce better prepared teachers.
- As changes in society affect teaching and learning for the future, a further research following novice teachers throughout the first few years of their career could also further the understanding of the role teacher training programs play in preparing

teachers for their careers and how to ensure training programs are preparing teachers in the most effective ways.

- The examination of an English teacher preparation programs' daily effect and impact on their graduate teachers and an examination of school administrators' and department chairs' perceptions of these graduates' performance in the classroom could also be investigated in future research.

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## Appendix 01

### Questionnaire for Novice Teachers

**Dear Novice Teacher,**

I am a doctoral student at the University of Djillali Liabes of Sidi Bel Abbes in the area of Teacher Training. I am currently enrolled in a PhD study that purports itself to lead “Investigating Novice Teachers’ Attitudes Towards their Teacher Training”. The research study will focus on how novice teachers perceive their teacher training and how well prepared they are for the challenges of the 21<sup>st</sup> century classrooms.

You are kindly requested to join in this study so as your contribution will lay bases for an in-depth understanding of novice teachers’ attitudes regarding their preparation and the challenges they face during their first years of teaching which will aid in the planning for future teacher training programs. The results of this questionnaire are confidential and de-identified to maintain anonymity.

I am genuinely appreciative.

#### Section one: General Information

1- Gender: female teacher:  Male teacher:

2- Pre-teaching study institute:  
University:  ENS:

3- In-service years of teaching experience: .....years

4- The variety of English you use:

- a. Received pronounced English       b. American English   
c. A combination of both

5- Why did you decide to become a teacher?

.....  
.....

6- How do you describe your willingness to teach English?

Very weak      weak      uncertain      strong      very strong

- Justify your answer.

.....  
.....

## Section Two: Novice Teachers' Attitudinal Aspects

### Division A: Teacher Training Program

1- Have you received any teacher training prior to beginning your teaching career?

Yes       No      not really     

In any case please explain.

.....  
.....

2- Do you feel that your teacher training program prepared you for your first years of teaching?      Yes       No not really

-Please explain your answer.....

.....

3- Teacher training is necessary before entering the teaching profession.

Yes  No  Not really

Please justify your answer.....

4- Did your teacher training contribute to your teaching practices?

Yes  No  not really

If yes, how? .....

.....

5- Do you feel your teacher training prepared you for effective classroom management?

Yes  No  not really

6- Do you feel your teacher training prepared you to plan and prepare lessons effectively?

Yes  No  not really

7- Do you think your teacher training prepared you for effective classroom assessment and grading?

Yes  No  not really

8- Do you think teacher training programs need to provide more practice than theory

Yes  No  not really

9- Which components of your teacher training are effective for your classroom teaching? Please explain?

.....

.....

10- What areas of your teacher training would you have like to receive more training in? Please explain why?

.....  
.....

11- During your first year of teaching, did you participate in a supportive induction program?

Yes  No

If yes, please describe your experience.

.....  
.....

12- As a general rule, a mentor teacher is:

- a. A Guide
- b. A facilitator
- c. A Supporter
- d. A Feedback provider
- e. A coach

13- Do you qualify your mentor teachers as highly qualified and motivated?

Yes  No  not really

14- Have you enrolled in any kind of professional development program?

Yes  No

If no, why?

.....  
.....

## Division B: Teaching and Teaching Context

1- Teaching seems to be:

- A lonely profession
- A collective work
- Both

2- Your teaching style is the result of:

- Pre-service training
- In-service training
- Pre-service and in-service training
- Teaching experience

3- Are you satisfied with your current teaching performance?

Yes  No  not really

Please explain your answer.....

.....

4- What major challenges and problems did you face as a novice EFL teacher?

.....

.....

5- What could the teacher training program have done to help you better handle these challenges?

.....

.....

6- Secondary school novice teachers face many problems concerning classroom management

Strongly agree  Agree  Neutral  Disagree

Strongly disagree

7- What are the sources of your knowledge about classroom management?

- a. Mentor teachers
- b. Teacher Colleagues
- c. Personal Experience

Others?.....

8- How much confident are you in your ability to manage students' misbehavior?

- Confident     Very confident     Neutral     Somewhat confident   
Not at all

9- Describe your personal experience with classroom management.

.....  
.....

10- I need to deal with an understanding and compassionate inspector rather than all time-criticizing inspectors.

- Yes     No     not really

.....  
.....

11- I need to have a detailed teacher's guide.

- Yes     No     not really

If yes, why?

.....  
.....

12- High school English textbooks are easy to implement

Yes  No  not really

.....

.....

.....

.....

13- The largest impact on students' achievement comes from:

- a. Teacher's quality
- b. Students' abilities
- c. Both

14- Your school context is:

- a. Comfortable, encouraging and supportive
- b. Stressful, demotivating and threatening

15- As a general rule, your teacher colleagues are:

- a. Cooperative, helpful and supportive
- b. Selfish, reluctant to help and uncooperative
- c. Indifferent

16- Do you find your school administrators to be supportive?

Yes  No  not really

Please explain your answer.

.....

.....

17- Interacting with students' parents is difficult:

Yes  No  not really

Please explain your answer.

.....

.....

**Section Three: Novice Teachers' Suggestions**

- 1- What suggestions would you offer to improve teacher training and meet the challenges of today's classrooms?

.....  
.....

Comments: your thoughts on the questionnaire, its layout, content and items are highly appreciated.

.....  
.....  
.....  
.....

Thank you very much for your help

## Appendix 02

### Interview Schedule

#### Part 1: Participant consent

- Thank the participant for taking part in the interview
- Explain the objectives of the study
- Assure the participant anonymity (confidentiality)
- Get the participant's consent to start the interview and record it

#### Part 2: Background of the participant

- Gender
- Age
- Years of teaching experience and where they taught
- Why they choose teaching
- What training they had (pre-service, in-service, other)
- What levels they teach
- How they find teaching
- How did they become teachers (circumstances)?

#### Part 3: Some interview questions

- How would you describe your teacher training?
- How did your training help you develop as a teacher? Was it useful to your classroom teaching?
- What aspects of your teacher training that you liked the most and why?
- What aspects of your teacher training that should be improved and why?
- What knowledge and skills do you think a good teacher should have to teach effectively? Why?
- Who has had the biggest influence on your teaching and why?
- What are the difficulties that you faced during the first years of teaching?
- Have you attended any in-service or continuous professional development programs?
- What would you want to see changed in your training?
- What would you suggest to improve teacher training?

## ABSTRACT

This investigation was carried out using a questionnaire and semi-structured interview as methods of data collection. The targeted population in this study is the high school novice teachers of English in the region of Biskra of which a sample of (70) novice teachers responded to the questionnaire and a sample of (03) teachers participated in the semi-structured interviews. The findings obtained in this research disclose that the high school novice teachers held negative attitudes toward their teacher training due to the existence of gaps between teachers' work demands and preparation practices, shortage of field-work experiences and a lack of supportive environment and guidance. It was also found that novice teachers developed negative attitudes towards two major challenges: contextual challenges and teaching-related challenges. These challenges affected novice teachers' unfavorable attitudes toward their roles in the teaching and learning process and proved to frustrate their attempt to attain the set objectives. In this regard, it is recommended that a review of training plans designed to prepare teachers is necessary in order to bridge the gaps between the training received and the practical needs of novice teachers.

## RESUME

La présente étude tente d'examiner les attitudes des nouveaux enseignants d'anglais envers l'adéquation de leur programme de formation, qu'ils avaient récemment terminé, en les préparant à répondre aux exigences du travail attendu d'eux. En outre, cette étude tente d'étudier les défis rencontrés par les nouveaux enseignants au cours de leurs premières années d'enseignement. Cette investigation a été effectuée à l'aide d'un questionnaire et des interviews semi-structurés. La population-cible de laquelle étude est la communauté des nouveaux enseignants d'anglais au niveau secondaire (n=70) sise à la Région de Biskra. Les enseignants en question ont répondu au questionnaire. Ceci a été renforcé par trois interviews entretenues avec trois enseignants. Les résultats révèlent que les nouveaux enseignants ont développé des attitudes négatives envers leur formation en raison de l'existence d'écart entre les exigences de travail et les pratiques de préparation, le manque d'expériences de travail sur le terrain et le manque d'orientation et d'environnement favorable. On a également constaté que les nouveaux enseignants ont développé des attitudes négatives envers deux défis majeurs: le premier défi relié aux contextes. Le deuxième défi relié à l'enseignement. Ces défis ont engendré des attitudes défavorables envers les rôles des enseignants dans le processus d'enseignement-apprentissage. À cet égard, il est recommandé de réviser les programmes de formation des enseignants afin de combler les écarts entre la préparation reçue et les besoins pratiques des enseignants.

## المخلص

تحاول الدراسة الحالية البحث في مواقف أساتذة اللغة الإنجليزية المبتدئين في التعليم الثانوي اتجاه مدى كفاية برنامج تدريبهم الذي أكملوه مؤخرًا، لتلبية متطلبات العمل المتوقع منهم في المدارس الثانوية. بالإضافة إلى ذلك، تحاول هذه الدراسة التحقيق في التحديات التي واجهها المعلمون المبتدئون في سنوات التدريس الأولى. تم إجراء هذا البحث باستخدام استبيان ومقابلات شبه مهيكلة كوسيلة لجمع البيانات. شارك في هذه الدراسة أساتذة اللغة الإنجليزية الجدد بالمرحلة الثانوية في ولاية بسكرة، حيث أجابت عينة مكونة من (70) معلمًا مبتدئًا على الاستبيان وعينة مكونة من (03) معلمين شاركوا في المقابلات شبه المنظمة. تكشف النتائج التي تم الحصول عليها في هذا البحث عن وجود مواقف سلبية لدى أساتذة اللغة الإنجليزية في المدارس الثانوية تجاه برنامج تدريبهم بسبب وجود فجوات بين متطلبات المهنة والتدريب المتلقى، بالإضافة إلى نقص خبرات العمل الميداني ونقص البيئة الداعمة والتوجيه. هذا وقد وجد أيضًا أن الأساتذة طوروا مواقف سلبية تجاه تحديين رئيسيين: تحدي متعلق بالظروف المهنية وتحدي متعلق بالتدريس. أثرت هذه التحديات على مواقف الأساتذة اتجاه أدوارهم في عملية التدريس والتعلم وأثبتت أنها تحبط محاولتهم لتحقيق الأهداف المسطرة. في هذا الصدد، يوصى بضرورة مراجعة خطط التدريب المصممة لإعداد الأساتذة من أجل سد الفجوات بين التدريب المتلقى والاحتياجات العملية.