An Examination of Student Teachers’ Concerns, Experiences & Perceptions about Teaching Practice Opportunities in one Libyan University

by

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Teacher Education in Libya has been struggling for decades now. Teacher Education institutions in particular, teachers, have been criticized for the way student teachers are prepared for teaching (Swuaed, 2014; Batilmal, 2012) and some have been blamed for pupils’ underachievement. As a teacher educator at Azzawia University in Libya, the researcher had always been intrigued to learn how teacher education courses were being organised and taught since she herself graduated from Azzawia University without any type of practical teacher training. After the daunting experience of having to teach herself how to teach, the researcher wondered how other university students felt and thought about their teacher education courses. Thus, the researcher decided to speak informally with a number of students and university colleagues in the Department of English at the School of Education in Azzawia University about the nature of the teacher education course. Colleagues expressed concerns about the current ways in which the teacher education course was organized (in particular during Year 4) and had doubts about whether the sequence of the programme was arranged appropriately. They argued that what the School of Education lacked was an effective teacher education programme, which would equip student teachers with sufficient pedagogical knowledge and practice experience in order to teach effectively, and thus achieve positive outcomes for pupils. During the interactions, student teachers also expressed their frustration about what they saw as too much emphasis by university tutors on the ‘theory’ of becoming teachers and insufficient if any persisting emphasis on more practical elements and school-based teaching opportunities in the programme. This concern heightened the researcher’s interest in investigating the development of greater school-based experiences for pre-service teachers. By this, the researcher found it necessary to first, examine student teachers’ concerns, perceptions & experiences during a teaching practice placement opportunity. Second, to reflect on the implications of the findings of this research study, to determine the extent to which these can improve the teacher education provision at the target university in addition to other universities around Libya by reviewing the programme aims, scope and sequence. By conducting such research, student teachers might possibly have a smoother transition into the classroom, find their coursework more relevant and beneficial, and may be able to transfer more of their university-based learning into the classroom. There is no doubt that research that provides data on Libyan student teachers' concerns, perceptions and experiences of their ITE and examines their levels of preparedness and confidence to undertake the task of teaching in schools in Libya, will hopefully make a major contribution to the underdeveloped area of research related to teacher
education in Initial Teacher Education programmes in Libya and provide new ideas and perspectives to restructure and reform initial teacher education programmes in Libya.

In this research study, a mixed methods approach was adopted, using interviews, a questionnaire and observations as means of collecting data from the research participants. **Quantitative data** was gathered from one cohort of 40 (originally 150) student teachers from the English department using a ‘Teacher Concerns Questionnaire’ and then tracked in-depth, four student teachers’ development journey through some school-based teaching opportunities across a period of 7 weeks (originally 12 weeks), encompassing their experiences within the school environment, their feelings about teaching practice (TP) and teaching and overall their feelings of preparedness to become teachers. **Qualitative data** was gathered from four target student teacher participants, who were considered as mini-case studies in this research, through interviews conducted prior, during and after observations and student teaching lessons during the teaching practice placement. Findings showed despite the positive experiences encountered during the teaching practice experience, classroom management and pupil behaviour were consistent challenges and impacted upon student teachers’ lessons and development. Results showed that student teachers had idealistic views and expectations of what they expected to find prior to entering schools. A major conclusion was how student teachers were made to feel so unwelcomed and isolated in school by staff and school teachers in addition to occasionally being undermined by school teachers who refused to view them as real teachers. Another major conclusion from this study was amidst all the challenges (internal posed by the school and external through the conflict), student teachers were genuinely upset that teaching practice had to come to an end and felt the need to spend more time in schools. This is a clear indication of their determination and resilience towards learning to become teachers. Another conclusion from this was that the Teacher Concerns Questionnaire could be applied within an Arabic context, in this case Libya. A brief example, for instance, the results from the TCQ conducted on the Libyan research participants showed that the strength of concerns for classroom management and pupil behaviour increased across survey results and persisted on even after securing teaching posts in private sectors. This might suggest that more applied attention to strategies to manage classroom management in the ITE programme in Libya are needed. The use of the TCQ and the results from the questionnaire could help in restructuring the Teacher Education Programme in Libya as it will assist in revealing what student teachers might be concerned with before and during their teacher education programme. Findings also showed that through student teacher’s development during their ITE, student teachers learning occurred and changed over the period of teaching practice through trial and error (repetition of lessons), observation and modelling of the researcher in this case, problem solving (pupil behaviour) and making sense of theory learned at university once they started teaching practice.
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DECLARATION OF AUTHORSHIP

I, Khulod Abulghasem Khmag declare that this thesis and the work presented in it are my own and has been generated by me as the result of my own original research.

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I confirm that:

1. This work was done wholly or mainly while in candidature for a research degree at this University;
2. Where any part of this thesis has previously been submitted for a degree or any other qualification at this University or any other institution, this has been clearly stated;
3. Where I have consulted the published work of others, this is always clearly attributed;
4. Where I have quoted from the work of others, the source is always given. With the exception of such quotations, this thesis is entirely my own work;
5. I have acknowledged all main sources of help;
6. Where the thesis is based on work done by myself jointly with others, I have made clear exactly what was done by others and what I have contributed myself;
7. None of this work has been published before submission published

Signed: Khulod Khmag

Date: 25/11/2017
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<td>Department of Education</td>
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<td>ITE</td>
<td>Initial Teacher Education</td>
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<td>Initial Teacher Training</td>
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<td>Ministry of Education</td>
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Chapter 1  Introduction and Background of Study

1.1  Introduction

‘There is no single road to becoming a teacher, nor a single story of learning to teach’

(Bloomfield, 2010: 221).

For the last four to five decades, the process of becoming a teacher has been discussed and highlighted extensively in the Teacher Education arena (Darling-Hammond, 2006; Hopkins & Reid, 2012; Malinen, Vaisanen and Savolainen, 2012; Trippestad, Swennen and Werler, 2017). Research has shown that learning to teach is not only dynamic because of influences from students, curriculum, policy, leadership, school environments and pre-service teacher’s personal beliefs about teaching and learning (Hattie, 2012; Opfer, Pedder, and Lavicza, 2011), its also a complex and multifaceted process because of the roles and responsibilities teachers have to play, the nature of schools and classroom diversity of students (Naylor, Campbell-Evans, & Maloney, 2015; Darling-Hammond, Hammerness, Grossman, Rust, & Shulma, 2005). Hence, teacher education programmes worldwide are seeking to prepare and develop professional and quality teachers to encounter teaching challenges in the classrooms (Sulistiyo, Mukminin, Abdurrahman, Haryanto, 2017; Darling-Hammond, 2006; Zeichner, 2010; Naylor, Campbell-Evans, & Maloney, 2015; Darling-Hammond, 2017). Particularly, teacher education programmes are intended to develop student teachers’ knowledge, skills and characters in order to prepare them to educate students effectively and professionally at schools (Sulistiyo, Mukminin, Abdurrahman, Haryanto, 2017; Darling-Hammond, 2006; Naylor, Campbell-Evans, & Maloney, (2015). Teaching practice, for instance, has proven over the years to play an important role in teachers’ initial teacher education (Caires & Almeida, 2005; Nulan, 2011; Tuli & File, 2009; Choy, Wong, Goh, Low, 2014; Darling-Hammond, 2006; Zeichner, 2010; Darling-Hammond, 2017; Tang, 2003; Zhang & Cheng, 2011).

Not only has it been considered to be one of the most critical components of teacher education that affects the quality of teachers, research has proven that pre-service teachers see it as the most beneficial and enjoyable component of an initial teacher education programme (e.g. Hobson, 2002; Ong’ondo & Jwan, 2009; Smith & Lev-Ari, 2005). Therefore, in order to achieve the purposes of teacher education programmes, researchers (Caires & Almeida, 2005; Nulan, 2011; Tuli & File, 2009; Choy, Wong, Goh, Low, 2014; Darling-Hammond, 2006; Zeichner, 2010; Darling-Hammond, 2017; Tang, 2003; Zhang & Cheng, 2011) have argued that academic programmes of teacher education should include teaching practice within their programmes as it provides student teachers with opportunities to incorporate theories learned in university courses into
Chapter 1

students’ own beliefs about practice, in addition to developing their teaching skills and learning how to teach in demanding and complex learning situations such as a school setting, with the guidance of their university tutors and mentors (Caires & Almeida, 2005; Nulan, 2011; Tuli & File, 2009; Choy, Wong, Goh, Low, 2014; Darling-Hammond, 2006; Zeichner, 2010; Darling-Hammond, 2017; Tang, 2003; Zhang & Cheng, 2011).

Before continuing further on to the role teaching practice plays in educating pre-service teachers in the following sections of this chapter, it is necessary to discuss the considerable transformations teacher education has gone through through the years worldwide and the issues that have emerged along the way including Libya which is the context of this study.

Teacher education remains a significant topic of interest amongst researchers, teacher educators and policy makers (Darling-Hammond, 2006; Mtika, 2008; Hopkins & Reid, 2012; Martin & Mulvihill, 2017; Trippested, Swennen and Werler, 2017) and is going through considerable transformation in order to tackle some major issues that have emerged. How teachers are best prepared, for instance, has received much attention (Martin & Mulvihill, 2017; Darling-Hammond, 2006; Boyd, Grossman, Lankord, Loed and Wyckoff, 2008). Darling-Hammond (2006) and Boyd, Grossman, Lankord, Loed and Wyckoff (2008) argue that for any teacher education programme to be effective, it should include a tight coherence and integration among courses and between schools and universities (Mtika, 2008; American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, 2010). Despite the fact that there is ongoing debate on the length of teacher education, research has indicated that teachers in training who have the chance to spend longer periods of time and experience in the classroom culture, have a better chance of being prepared to make sense of theories taught in university courses (Darling-Hammond, 2006; Staal Jenst, Klette and Hammerness (2017). As the context of this thesis, Libyan teacher education programmes currently lack a major emphasis upon the practical elements and school teaching opportunities in which Libyan student teachers can make sense of theory they learn in class (Batilmal, 2012; Swuaed, 2014; Swuaed & Rahouma, 2015). For this, it is vital to have effective teacher education programmes in place in Libya and elsewhere to help prepare new teachers for some of the many challenges they may face in today’s classrooms, including an increasingly diverse student body (Darling-Hammond, 2006; Trippested, Swennen and Tobia, 2017).

Research has also indicated that teacher education grounded in practice can increase teacher retention (Fiemen-Nemser, Tamir and Hammerness, 2014), which remains a further issue facing teacher education. Before embarking on the issue of teacher retention, it is only fair to mention some of the reasons that motivate teachers to enter the profession. Literature has revealed that the reasons, which explain why individuals enter teaching range from extrinsic, altruistic, intrinsic
and job-related. More specifically literature also shows: working with young people; a sense of personal achievement; and the stimulating nature of the teacher's role were some of the most common factors (Kyriacou and Kobori (1998 in Mtika, 2008; General Teaching Council, 2003). Other reasons for joining were unpredictable and conditional factors rather than a sense of vocation or long-term commitment to the teaching profession (Jenkins, 1998 in Mtika, 2008). Some chose teaching for external reasons that were not an essential part of teaching (Chuene et al, 1999 in Mtika, 2008).

Although the above factors might explain why teachers enter the teaching profession, there are other factors that are contributing to teacher attrition. International literature has indicated that teacher retention has worsened over time (Nieto, 2003, 2005, 2014) and as a result many countries are facing severe teaching shortages (Education for Global Monitoring Report, 2015; Pesi Sahlberg, 2016; House of Commons Education Committee Report, 2016). A considerable number of teachers including novice teachers are leaving the teaching profession in the first few years due to poor mentoring, difficult work settings, school climate (Nieto, 2003), stress and demanding workload (Smithers & Robinson, 2003; House of Commons Education Committee Report (2016, 2017), not feeling welcome in the school (Nieto, 2003), lack of resources, lack of support from colleagues and administrators in terms of advice or information on curriculum (Nieto, 2003), difficulties with classroom management, lack of respect for teachers in society, salary, poorly defined expectations, performance standards, and inconsistent assessment by poorly trained evaluators (Pesi Sahlberg, 2016; House of Commons Education Committee Report, 2016; Nieto, 2003, 2005, 2014). Such workplace conditions have challenged the sense of competence among novice teachers who questioned their choice of teaching as a career (Nieto, 2003: 2014).

One of the main reasons for teacher shortage in the UK and other countries in the European Union and across the world is demanding workload (House of Common Education Committee Report, 2016). Teachers feel burned out and are unable to cope with heavy workloads so decide to leave and pursue other careers (Barmby, 2008). School budget cuts, constant changes in the curriculum, the recent baby boom and Brexit have also been cited as amongst the reasons for teacher shortages in the UK (Barmby, 2008; House of Commons Education Committee Report, 2016). The UK government has introduced a number of initiatives in an attempt to attract and recruit more teachers to the profession and to tackle teacher retention (Barmby, 2008; Gove, 2010: House of Commons Education Committee Report 2016). Some of these initiatives include providing those undertaking training in certain subjects with salaries or bursaries and scholarships, giving schools greater power in recruiting trainees, training additional subject specific teachers especially physics and maths teachers. A wider range of routes into teaching now
exist such as Teach First, Troops to Teachers which are designed to widen opportunities for individuals from a range of backgrounds to enter the profession. Recruitment has also targeted international teachers (House of Common Education Committee Report, 2016).

In Libya lack of motivation and support from the school and other colleagues, a lack of respect and trust and most of all lack of autonomy to exercise professional judgement are the key reasons why teachers decide to leave the profession of teaching after a few years of teaching (Abdulhamid, 2011). Due to the relatively large number of Libyan teachers leaving the teaching profession, Libya is amongst the Sub-Saharan countries now facing teacher shortages (UNICEF Report, 2013). Some attempts have been made by the Libyan Government(s) to tackle the problem of teacher shortage and retention such as providing training seminars and workshops to those undertaking training in specific subject areas in addition to implementing a new recruitment strategy for new teachers and teachers who have left the profession (Batilmal, 2012; Swaed, 2014).

A further issue confronting teacher education, is the lack of teacher autonomy (Lawson, 2004; Abdulhamid, 2011; Jamani & Malik, 2017). Teachers in Finland, for instance, are given a great deal of responsibility and autonomy, which some see as one of the main reasons for the success of its teacher education system (Pesi Sahlberg, 2016). Teachers in Finland have the authority to choose what they teach and how they teach it. Part of their professional roles as teachers is to take full responsibility for curriculum planning and design and assessment development. In contrast, Libya, on the other hand is highly centralised with powers held by the Ministry of Education with regards to the education system. Specifically, the Ministry of Education is in charge of developing the nation’s educational policy (Mohamed, 1987). Designing and planning of the syllabus and the choice of textbooks used in schools are all stipulated by the expert inspectorate (Abdulhamid, 2011).

1.2 Description of the Study

As previously mentioned in the introduction section of this chapter, Libyan teacher education programmes currently lack a great deal of emphasis on the practical component of the programme and school-based teaching opportunities in which student teachers can make sense of theory they learn in class. Given this situation, this research study sought to examine the introduction of a student teaching placement opportunity into the final year of a four-year initial teacher education programme in one university in Libya. This placement involved student teachers majoring in English Language Teaching (ELT) spending a 7-week period (March to Mid-April) teaching in one public school in the city of Azzawia in Libya. In addition to gathering survey
data on student teacher concerns from one cohort of 40 student teachers (originally 150), this study traced four target student teachers and investigated their development by documenting their journey through this component of their teacher education programme, encompassing their experiences within the classroom, their perceptions of teaching practice (TP) and views on becoming a teacher.

As it will become evident in the following chapters, the dramatically changing context in Libya would become a major factor in this thesis. The context would have a profound effect on the research design, a considerable personal and emotional impact upon the participants and on the researcher during the period leading up to while doing fieldwork, and during the writing up stage of this thesis. While undertaking research in stable environments can be quite challenging at times, conducting research in a context in which you have no control over can be double the challenge. Nobody could fully understand how circumstances in a country going through conflict can affect a study’s research design and lead to unexpected decisions unless he/she live the experience themselves. Therefore, it is necessary to provide the reader with a brief insight into the circumstances within which this study was undertaken, which are further set out within the context chapter, the methodology, in some aspects of the literature review and through the inclusion of a personal reflexive chapter which was drawn from the researcher’s diary during the study.

After two weeks into fieldwork conducted in the target city, Azzawia, the researcher found herself in the middle of a military conflict. Two rival militia groups turned a peaceful city into a battlefield. The researcher had no choice but to abandon the original plan for this research, which involved the four target student teachers spending a 12-week period from March up until June teaching in two public schools in the city of Azzawia, and seek the use of one of the many contingency plans put in place by the researcher and her supervisor in case things did not go as planned. As this research was conducted during military conflict, this led the researcher to get into research in conflict areas, which would be significant in the reflexive chapter and discussion. More details on research conducted in conflict settings can be found in the Review of Literature chapter, Chapter Three.

1.3 Aim of the Study

Through the introduction of a teaching practice placement in Libya, the aim of this research study was, first, to investigate student teachers’ concerns, perceptions & experiences during the TP placement. Second, to reflect on the implications of the findings of the research study, to determine the extent to which these can improve the teacher education provision at the target
university in addition to other universities around Libya by reviewing the programme aims, scope and sequence. The researcher provides a more detailed description of what this research study entails in Chapter 4, the Methodology Chapter.

1.4 Research Questions

The research questions examined in this thesis focus on Libyan student teachers' concerns, experiences and perceptions as they relate to school-based placement experiences during the final year of a programme of teacher education. These research questions were shaped after an extensive review of the literature on trainee teachers' experiences during initial teacher education and the desire to understand how student teachers develop during a teaching practice placement. The research set out to answer the following research questions:

1. What are the concerns of English language teachers during their final year of their initial teacher education in Libya?

2. What are the student teachers’ expectations of and responses to the school-based placement experiences?

3. What changes in the student teachers’ practice occurred across the period of school placement?

4. To what extent do the student teachers feel prepared to begin full time work as a teacher?

1.5 Research Outline

1.5.1 Rationale of Research

The teacher’s role in any educational setting is a crucial one, and it is, therefore, essential to prepare teachers-to-be effectively for the demanding task of teaching (Al-Mahrooqi, 2011). Al-Mahrooqi (2011) argues that effective preparation needs a substantial teacher preparation course that provides necessary teaching skills for student teachers to face the challenges of life in the classroom. Field & Field (1994) and Cheng, Chow & Tsui (2001) emphasise that in the past in Australia, for instance, only about 25% of the initial teacher education courses had been conducted in the form of teaching practice in schools. In other words, student teachers did not have the opportunity to spend much time in schools teaching and interacting with pupils, which is certainly the case in present-day in Libya.
As indicated by several Libyan teacher educators (Batilmal, 2012; Swuaed, 2014; Swuaed & Rahouma, 2015), teacher Education in Libya has been struggling for decades and in teacher education institutions in particular, teachers, have been criticized for the way student teachers are prepared for teaching and have been blamed for pupils’ underachievement. Students in the Department of English at the School of Education within the case university take courses specifically covering theoretical content areas such as linguistics, culture and pedagogy, curriculum and methodology. The pedagogy and methodology components include courses on psychology, curriculum theory, teaching approaches and methods of language teaching and learning and limited if any practical experience within schools. As a teacher educator at Azzawia University in Libya, the researcher had always been intrigued to learn how teacher education courses were being organised and taught since herself and many others graduated from the same School of Education without any type of practical teacher training and were left to sink or swim once faced with actual teaching. After the daunting experience of practically having to teach herself to teach, the researcher wondered how other university students felt and thought about their teacher education courses. Thus, the researcher decided to speak informally with a number of students and university colleagues in the Department of English at the School of Education about the teacher education course. Colleagues expressed concerns about the current ways in which the teacher education course was organised (in particular during Year 4) and had doubts about whether the sequence of the programme was organised and arranged appropriately. They argued that what the School of Education lacked was an effective teacher education programme, which would equip student teachers with sufficient pedagogical knowledge and practice experience in order to teach effectively, and thus achieve positive outcomes for pupils. During these interactions, student teachers expressed their frustration about what they saw as too much emphasis by university tutors on the ‘theory’ of becoming teachers and insufficient if any persisting emphasis on more practical elements and school-based teaching opportunities in the programme. By this, the researcher found it necessary to first, examine student teachers’ concerns, perceptions and experiences during a teaching practice placement opportunity. Second, to reflect on the implications of the findings of this research study, to determine the extent to which these can improve the teacher education provision at the target university in addition to other universities around Libya by reviewing the programme aims, scope and sequence. By conducting such research, student teachers might possibly have a smoother transition into the classroom, find their coursework more relevant and beneficial, and may be able to transfer more of their university-based learning into the classroom. There is no doubt that research that provides data on Libyan student teachers’ concerns, perceptions and experiences of their initial teacher education and examines their levels of preparedness and confidence to undertake the task of teaching in schools in Libya, is very much needed and will hopefully make a major
contribution to the underdeveloped area of research related to teacher education in Initial Teacher Education programmes in Libya and provide new ideas and perspectives to restructure and reform initial teacher education programmes in Libya.

1.5.2 Scope of the Study

This study is limited to investigating the concerns, perceptions & experiences of fourth year student teachers of English at one university in Libya. One of the reasons behind choosing this particular university is that it is the only university in the targeted city that has a School of Education. Another reason for choosing this university is their interest in improving their teacher education programme and a sense of full cooperation and commitment to my research.

1.5.3 Proposed Research Methodology

In order to gather the data required to answer the above research questions, and hence, achieve the aim and objectives of the research study, both primary and secondary data was obtained through a series of stages. The first stage involved piloting the instruments intended to be used during fieldwork. The researcher visited Libya in June 2014 and the Libyan school in London in 2015 to conduct her pilot work. The first part of the procedure involved observing classrooms and classroom teachers in order to obtain as much information as possible on what the observation process involved, as this was the researcher’s first attempt in observing another teacher’s class for rehearsal purposes. The second part of the procedure involved interviewing student teachers and classroom teachers in Libya and in the Libyan school in London to test out planned protocols. More details on what this stage involved is provided in Chapter 4. The second stage involved administering the ‘Teacher Concerns Questionnaire’ (TCQ) in January 2015. The main aim of this stage was to obtain as much information as possible from the participants related to the issue under investigation, which relates to their concerns, opinions and attitudes towards Initial Teacher Preparation. Further details on the administration of the TCQ are also discussed in Chapter 4. The third and final stage involved the conduct of ‘Fieldwork’. Fieldwork was conducted over a period of 7 (originally 12) weeks, between March and May 2015. A sequence of progressive school-based experiences have been developed with due reference to the literature and frameworks on teacher education programmes, student teaching and student teacher development. Fieldwork was originally based in two different public schools, however, one of the schools declined. For the purpose of the study, the researcher used the following methods to collect data:
1) Semi-structured Interviews with student teachers (before, during, and after Teaching Practice)

2) Observations of lessons

3) Questionnaire (Teacher Concerns Questionnaire, TCQ, George, 1978)

4) Field notes

5) Phone and online interviewing with student teachers (follow-up interviews)

For more details on how the researcher used these methods of data collection see Chapter 4 (Methodology Chapter).

1.6 Organisation of Thesis

This research is divided into **EIGHT** chapters. **Chapter One** introduces the research study. It presents a description and argument for the research and what the study intends to achieve. The objectives and research questions to be answered are also presented. The researcher provides an outline of the research study, which includes the rationale for pursuing the study, the scope of the study and the proposed research methodology used in the research. The chapters concludes with a presentation of the organization of the research. **Chapter Two** provides the context chapter where the researcher presents background information about Libya. This information provides the reader with a better understanding of Libya as one of the many developing countries in North Africa. First, it provides the reader with a historical background to its political and educational development. It also outlines the current situation in Libya after the conflict and describes how it might reform its educational system during this transitional phase. **Chapter Three** is the review of literature chapter. This chapter provides the reader with a review of literature on initial teacher education including the practical component, ‘teaching practice’. It discusses and reviews the importance & value of teaching practice in teacher education programmes and how TP contributes to pre-service teachers’ concerns and development. Theories of teacher development are also discussed. **Chapter Four** is the research methodology chapter. A mixed method approach is proposed, using questionnaires, interviews, observations, field notes and reflective journal entries as a means of collecting data from the participants. This chapter also provides a description of the research design and describes in specific detail the steps the researcher takes in each stage of the study. An account of the theoretical framework used in the study is also presented. **Chapter Five** represents the analysis and interpretation of the research data whereas **Chapter Six** provides the reader with a discussion of the findings derived from the data. **Chapter Seven** provides the reader with the ‘Reflexive Chapter ‘in which the researcher gives a detailed narration of her experience during field-work in war-torn Libya. **Chapter Eight** is a representation
Chapter 1

of the research conclusions and suggested recommendations and further studies. Figure 1.1 below illustrates how the research study was divided.

Figure 1-1: Organisation of Thesis
In the next chapter, the researcher provides a current picture of Libya and the historical background to its political and educational development. In addition, to a description on how Libya could reform and restructure its educational system during a time of war. The researcher explains in some detail the current situation in Libya after the conflict and the consequences of the 2011 war.
Chapter 2  Context

2.1  Introduction

Chapter Two provides a detailed overview of Libya, focusing on its geographical location, population, language and religion, in addition to its economic and political status. This chapter then outlines the history and development of the Libyan Education system across time and the current education situation now. Furthermore, it describes the Libyan Government’s attempts at reforming and restructuring its educational system during the years and through the transitional phase following the 2011 War. This chapter concludes with a brief description of the 2011 Libyan War, the country’s current situation, and the more recent developments in the Libyan conflict and how they ultimately overlapped with the research in this thesis.

2.2  Libya’s Geographical Location and Population

Libya is a country situated in the North of Africa on the coastline of the Mediterranean Sea. Amongst one of the largest countries of Africa and countries of the world, Libya ranks the fourth largest country in Africa and seventh among countries of the world. Libya is 1.8 million square miles in area which makes it relatively larger than Alaska, three times the size of France (Library of Congress, 2005) and seven times the size of the United Kingdom (Almansory, 1995). It also has the longest coastline in Africa with a length of roughly 1.770 km (Library of Congress, 2005). Libya shares its borders with a number of neighbouring countries, Chad, Sudan & Niger for instance in the South, Egypt & Sudan in the East, and Tunisia & Algeria in the West (Zambakari, 2016). Figure 2.1 below shows an illustrated map of Libya and the neighbouring countries surrounding it.

![Map of Libya](image-url)

Figure 2-1: Map of Libya
According to the Encyclopedia of the Nations, the Arabs & Arabic speaking Berbers make up 97% of the Libyan population. Before the 2011 war against Mummar Gaddaffi, Libya's population was approximately 6,310,434 but due to thousands of lives lost during the war, Libya’s population is roughly around 6,002,347 (July 2013 est.) which is considered a relatively small number compared to the country’s size (1.8 million square miles in area). This number not only includes Libyan citizens but also includes a large number of non-citizens (Egyptians, Tunisians, Indians, Turks, Italians, Maltese, Pakistanis, other nationalities) who migrated to Libya in search of work opportunities, particularly after the discovery of oil. In 2011 alone, there were an estimated 60,000 Bangladeshis, 30,000 Chinese, 30,000 Filipinos and many more.

2.3 Language and Religion

Arabic is the official language spoken and used by the majority of Libyan citizens. There are three varieties of Arabic used in Libya, there is the language used in our Holy book (The Quran) which is classic Arabic, standard Arabic which is used on television, formal speeches, media, magazines, newspapers, etc. and the spoken Libyan dialect which is the language used in everyday life and at home (Suwaed, 2011). In addition to Arabic, some Libyans in some parts of the country speak other languages that not all Libyans understand. Berber for example (which does not have an official status) is spoken by 2% of Berbers & Tuaregs (Imsaalem, 2001) who mostly live either in the NafuusaMountains region formally known as Tripolitania or in Oujlla & Ghadamas. Tuaregs speak Tamahaq and people from Kufrah and Gatroon speak Toubou (KPMG Africa Region, 2013). Italian is also spoken and understood amongst the older generation as some had lived with the Italians during their rule in Libya. English is spoken amongst both the younger and the older generation. English is taught in schools from primary school at the age of 9-10 up to university level and beyond (Imsaalem, 2001). English is also the language of instruction in a variety of faculties such as Faculties of Education, Humanities, Economics, Medicine, Science, Engineering etc. since using Arabic in these faculties had proven to be unsuccessful (Suwaed, 2011).

The official religion in Libya is Islam with 97% of the population being Sunni Muslims and 3% are other religions (Library of Congress, 2005). A minority between five and ten percent who live in the Nafusa Mountains and the city of Zware, support Ibadism which is a branch of Kharijism (KPMG Africa Region, 2013). The previous Gaddafi government had publicly supported a preference for a moderate practice of Islam in which most Libyans lived in peace and harmony. However, the current Libyan Government has a quite different view of how Islam should be practised.
2.4 Libya’s Economy

Prior to the late 1950s, Libya was regarded or recognised as one of the poorest countries on earth (Suwaed, 2011) however, the country’s economic status drastically transformed in 1959 when oil was discovered. The oil industry then became Libya’s main source of wealth and considered vital to Libya’s economic survival (Siebens & Case, 2012; the Encyclopedia of Nations; Batilamal, 2012). Within a decade of the 1969 Gaddafi Revolution and prior to the 2011 war, Libya was regarded as Africa’s largest and one of the world’s leading oil producers (Batilamal, 2012; Siebens & Case, 2012). Libya pumped 1.6 million barrels of light crude oil a day, a substantial amount of a particularly high quality oil (Siebens & Case, 2012). In 1998, an estimation of 29.5 billion barrels of crude oil was pumped and Libya’s oil reserves ensured exports until 2053 at the export level of 1,137,000 barrels per day (Encyclopedia of Nations). Libya was able to improve its economical and international rankings by establishing a developed social welfare from the profits earned from these oil sales (Siebens & Case, 2012). Libya also owns five massive oil refineries situated in Libya alongside a chain of oil refineries in many countries worldwide such as Germany, Italy, Switzerland, and other countries. As a result of Libya’s booming oil industry, it was given membership of the Organization of Petroleum Exporting Countries (OPEC) (Siebens & Case, 2012).

Libya is also wealthy in natural gas in which most of its reserves were under-developed in the past (Siebens & Case, 2012). The previous Government successfully developed Libya’s natural gas reserves and the country has more than two gas pipelines that connect four gas powered electricity generators to the national grid. Moreover, the government developed on-shore and offshore gas reserves and built an undersea pipeline in which gas is exported to Italy. An estimation made in the year of 2005 positioned Libya’s natural gas reserves at 52 trillion cubic feet (Library of Congress, 2005). Libya has several other significant resources aside from oil and gas such as gypsum, limestone, marine salt, potash, and natron (Library of Congress, 2005).

Libya is also known for its enormous water pipeline project, the ‘Great Man-made River (GMR)’, considered the world’s largest water supply project, was initiated in 1984 and expected to take 25 years to complete yet the project was completed roughly within five years after its initiation. This massive pipeline cost Libya over $25 billion. The pipeline was manufactured to carry water from 225 underground wells to a 3.3 million litre (880,000 gallons) reservoir that provides the whole country with fresh water. In addition to supplying the entire country with fresh, clean water, the previous government extended its pipelines to reach several parts of Tunisia and some boarding African countries and supplied them with pure drinking water free of charge (Vandewalle, 1998; www.encyclopedia.com). The Government at that time also believed
that the water pipeline would enable Libya to maintain itself and achieve self-sufficiency in the grain industry.

2.5 Historical Overview of Libya

The name “Libya” is derived from the name of a Berber tribe known as the “Lebu” (Simons, 2003, p.1). Libya gained its independence in the year 1951 after 40 years of occupation by foreign powers, the Ottoman Empire’s occupation that lasted from the year 1551 up until 1911; the Italians who invaded Libyan territory in 1911 (Orafi, 2008, Clark, 2004). Libyans resisted the invading forces for more than twenty years but lost thousands of lives defending their country. Towards the end of the year 1943, Britain established a military government in Libya. The French also entered the Southern region and established their military rule. From 1942 to 1951, Libya was under temporary British military rule (Orafi, 2008; Clark, 2004), however, in 1951, the independence of the country was acknowledged by the United Nations (2012, Home Office, UK Border Agency, COI Service) and the new country was then established as a Kingdom (Alhmali, 2007) governed by King Al-Sennusi, referred to as Idris, (Siebens and Case, 2012). Despite the fact that King Al-Sennusi was not as popular amongst all Libyans at the time, he did receive a fair share of support from those who lived in the East of Libya close to his hometown around Benghazi. However, after a short-lived governing of Libya, a bloodless military coup overthrew the Monarch while King Al-Senussi was being treated overseas and Libya was declared a Republican on the 1st of September 1969 (Siebens & Case, 2012). Muammar Gaddafi, an army officer at the time, soon declared himself as the Leader of the country (Siebens & Case, 2012). Muammar Gaddafi ruled Libya for more than 42 years until the 2011 uprising in Libya, which led to his assassination on the 20th of October 2011 by US-NATO secret services and Libyan rebels (United Nations). After the death of Gaddafi, Libya had become a failed state (Cafiero and Wagner, 2015) and had been left to face the aftermath and consequences of the 2011 war. Further details on the 2011 war are discussed in the following sections of this chapter.

After presenting a brief overview of Libya’s geographical location, languages spoken in Libya, the religion practised and Libya’s economy, the following sections focus in some detail on education in Libya before and now and the challenges encountered during the years.

2.6 Historical Overview of Education in Libya

Formal Education in Libya during the Ottoman Empire rule, Italian occupation, and the Franco-British administration was limited to a few Quranic schools and a small number of Turkish and Italian schools in the Tripoli (Elhensheri, 2004; Batilmal, 2012). During the Arab rule, Islam became
the religion of Libya, and Arabic was the only spoken language. During that period, education was mainly in religious schools referred to as 'Kuttab' where children were taught how to read and write, and recite verses from the Qur'an (Elhensheri, 2004; Batilmal, 2012). When Libya then gained its independence in 1951, around 90% of its population was illiterate, and not many had had the opportunity to study and graduate from schools and universities (Alhmali, 2007). The Al-Senussi government (the Monarchy) at the time, decided that drastic measures had to be taken to educate Libyan citizens and vowed to guarantee all Libyans the right to education. Therefore, the Monarchy decided to invest to a great degree in education by establishing schools at all levels in several cities around Libya (Orafi, 2008; Clark, 2004). After the establishment of schools, student enrolment rose rapidly from 34,000 pupils in 1951 to roughly around 360,000 in 1969 (Alhmali, 2007). In 1955, Libya’s first university was established in Benghazi and a branch was opened in the capital city, Tripoli. In 1973, these two campuses were separated and became individual campuses on their own. In 1969, the Gaddafi regime also placed great emphasis on education by continuing and expanding programmes which initiated under the Senussi Monarchy. By the 1980s, despite Libya making evident progress, Libya still suffered from a lack of qualified teachers and this shortcoming resulted in the government relying on foreign professionals (mainly Iraqis, Egyptians, British and Americans) to fill teaching posts at schools and universities (Orafi, 2008).

2.7 The Education System in Libya

As mentioned in the previous section, formal education in Libya during the Ottoman Empire rule, Italian occupation, and the Franco-British administration was restricted to only a few Quranic schools and a small number of Turkish and Italian schools in the capital city of Tripoli (Elhensheri, 2004; Batilmal, 2012). However, since its independence in 1951, the Al-Senussi government at the time, invested heavily in education and all Libyans were guaranteed the right to education (Orafi, 2008; Clark, 2004). During the Gaddafi era, Libya developed at a rapid pace in not just economical and industrial arenas, but in the education arena as well. The government believed that education was a necessity for the development of Libya, therefore embarked on educating as many Libyans as possible in a short space of time. This rapid growth created by a common issue developing countries encounter which is the quality of education versus quantity of education (Alhamali, 2007). Several attempts by the Libyan government have managed to tackle this issue and find solutions to this. These attempts will be discussed further on in this chapter.

Education is free to all Libyan citizens from primary school up to university and postgraduate education, both in Libya and overseas (Bukhatowa, Porter, and Nelson, 2010; Alhmali, 2007). Education in Libya is offered to children in public or private schools with some preferring to be home-schooled (Bukhatowa, Porter, Nelson, 2010). The Libyan education system comprises of
many stages, and all levels of education consist of two semesters each year. Both primary and secondary stages are compulsory. Children in the primary stage, for instance, enter school at the age of six and spend six years at this level. Whereas, children in the secondary stage, spend three years in this level and are obliged to succeed in a National Examination to be eligible to enter high-school (Bukhatowa, Porter, Nelson, 2010). In the third stage, students attend either high school (general or specialised), or an intermediate vocational centre or a teacher training institute (The General People’s Committee of Education, 2008). In general high-school and vocational centres, studies last for three years, whereas students spend four years in specialized high schools and five years in teacher training institutions. Along with students attending preparatory level, students attending high school, intermediate vocational centre or teacher training institutions also need to pass a National Examination with sufficiently high grades (65% and above) in order to move onward to higher education institutions through one of the 9 universities, 16 higher technical and vocational institutions, and seven higher learning institutes available in Libya (Clark, 2004; Arabsheibani & Manfor 2011 in Suwaed and Rahouma, 2015); Batilmal, 2012). Figure 2.2 below illustrates the structure of the Education system in Libya.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Education Level</th>
<th>School / Level</th>
<th>Grade From</th>
<th>Age From</th>
<th>Grade To</th>
<th>Age To</th>
<th>Years</th>
<th>Notes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Primary</td>
<td>Primary School</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>The first 9 years of school education in Libya are compulsory and free. This basic education program includes lessons in Arabic, Islamic languages, Jamahiriyat, society, mathematics, natural sciences, history, geography, art, music, and technical and physical education. The first 6 years of this take place at primary school.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary</td>
<td>Secondary Education</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>14</td>
<td></td>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
<td>Students attend Vocational or Technical schools for secondary education. The other alternative is religious secondary school.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary</td>
<td>Specialised Secondary</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>19</td>
<td></td>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
<td>Extends for 3-4 years. Considered A levels</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tertiary</td>
<td>Higher Education</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Higher Education extends from 3 years at Technical Colleges on to 6 years at other colleges. Higher education in Libya is provided by both general and specialized universities, and polytechnics, higher institutes and teacher training colleges too in addition to Open Universities</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2-1: Structure of Education System in Libya (Foreign Credits, 2012)
2.7.1 Higher Education in Libya

The appearance of Higher Education is considered relatively recent development in Libya in comparison with other countries around the world with the first HE institutions being established in the city of Benghazi and another branch in the capital city of Tripoli in 1955 (Orafi, 2008; Alhmali, 2007; Clark, 2004). These campuses then chose to separate and become individual campuses on their own in 1973, known as the University of Benghazi and the University of Tripoli. Higher education in Libya is governed by the ‘Higher Education & Scientific Research Ministry’ which is also the highest decision making power in regards to education (Suwaed and Rahouma, 2015). It is also financed by government and the higher education sector operates mainly under State supervision and control (Batilmal, 2012).

Higher education in Libya is offered within various institutions such as public and private universities, technical and vocational higher institutions, Open University, in addition to petroleum training and qualifying institutions (Arabsheibani & Manfor, 2001 in Bukhatowa, Porter, Nelson 2010; Suwaed and Rahouma (2015). Higher education offers three types of degrees, the Bachelor degree (undergraduate), Master’s degree, and PhD degree. The Bachelor degree usually requires four years of study in the majority of specialities but in some such as Architecture, Dentistry, Pharmacy, and Engineering, it requires five years of study, while in Medicine the bachelor degree requires six years of study. The degree of ‘Higher Diploma’ and Master’s (MA or MSc) require 2-4 years of study and may often require 5 to 6 years depending on the specialization (Clark, 2004). The third degree offered is the Doctorate, which requires around 4-5 years of research and a submission of a dissertation. Both undergraduate (BA, BSc) and postgraduate degrees (MA & PhD) are offered through either Libyan universities, the Academy for Postgraduate Studies in Tripoli and Benghazi or abroad.

2.7.1.1 Issues related to Higher Education

As discussed in previous sections of this chapter, the Al-Senussi government (1951-1969) and the Gaddaffi government (1969-2011) vowed to invest in the education of Libyans and regarded it as an essential factor in the development of the country (Orafi, 2008; Clark, 2004). The Gaddaffi government was determined to educate as many Libyans as possible in a very limited time space (Alhamali, 2007) on the grounds that by educating Libyans, Libya would not need to rely on expatriates of different nationalities to staff Libyan schools and universities. Despite the fact that by the 1980s, Libya had made evident progress in education, the country still suffered from the lack of sufficient, qualified and trained Libyan teachers with advanced degrees to teach (Batilmal, 2012). As indicated earlier, this short coming resulted in the government relying on foreign professionals (mainly Iraqis, Egyptians, British and Americans) to fill teaching posts at schools and
universities (Orafi, 2008; Batilmal, 2012) until it could develop and train Libyan teachers. Acknowledging this issue, the State started funding large numbers of Libyans to undertake higher degrees overseas in their countries of preference to qualify them to teach various disciplines in Libyan universities. As a consequence of this step, the percentage of Libyan university staff members increased from 54.5% in 2002 to 75.68% in 2008. Almost ten years later and the percentage has reached in 2016/2017 alone. Although there was a clear increase in the number of Libyans achieving advanced degrees (which led to Libya’s reduced dependence on foreign staff members in universities around Libya) higher education was still struggling, and pupils were underachieving in some subjects. The main reason was that many university staff members were not trained to teach despite their specialised and distinguished skills (Batilmal, 2012). These same university teachers graduated from university without receiving enough higher education teacher training. In other words, teachers in Libya have been struggling with the fact that they are not given enough training before they embark on teaching and as a result encountered several challenges along the way. Swuaed (2014) offers an example of the challenges university teachers face while teaching writing at the university level in Libya. She states that the teachers have struggled with the lack of enough training to teach subjects such as writing and thus, depending on their previous experiences as students as their source of pedagogical information. Their past experience of learning and teaching forms their knowledge and is considered an important factor in the way they teach. In other words, when teachers do not receive any training, they tend to apply their own previous teacher’s model of teaching (Winer 199:62). In addition to the lack of training at university level, Libyan university teachers face the challenges of teaching large numbers of students at one time. From the researcher’s experience of working as a university tutor at Azzawia University in the past, she always struggled with the high numbers of students in classes. It was quite difficult at times for the researcher (university tutor at the time) to maintain control and achieve lesson objectives with the amount of noise and disruptions that occurred in crowded classrooms. In addition, in contrast with basic and secondary education, there is no consistent syllabus to teach in higher education. Therefore, university teachers are left on their own to develop a syllabus they think is appropriate for the students even when they lack practical knowledge about designing courses and lack of knowledge to select appropriate materials. Swuaed (2014) argues that as teachers have few opportunities for professional preparation, some often depend on textbooks or their own previous experiences as students as their source of knowledge. Others pedagogical information and other pedagogical knowledge about teaching through self-development such as attending seminars, attending teacher training courses at the British council or through informal learning through the internet (Swuaed, 2014; Swuaed and Rahouma, 2015). Swuaed and Rahouma (2015), argue that the ministry of education does not provide a clear policy and training courses for university teachers mainly due to the fact that they
assume that since most university teachers hold MA/PhD degrees, they are qualified enough to teach. Of some relevance to this thesis, the reality is that these same university teachers graduated without any prior teacher training during their undergraduate studies (Swuaed and Rahouma, 2015). By this, there is an urgent need for reform and expansion of opportunities for teaching as part of pre-service teacher education in Libya. In addition to, restricting and reforming the Libyan education system in order to improve pupil achievement and to keep the pace with the world developments (Batilmal, 2012).

Although the situation and future of Libya are unclear, there is a great hope that the future will be one of development. Among all the changes, taking place in Libya now, there is an urgent need to reconstruct and reform the Libyan higher education system to keep in pace with the developments in the world (Batilmal, 2012). Nevertheless, even before the armed uprising, there were a few initiatives, started through bilateral arrangements between UNESCO and the Libyan government that aimed at establishing research networks, for example, the Libyan higher education and research network (LHERN), established by UNESCO that will connect 149 university faculties (UNESCO, 2005). Such projects need to be renewed and fresh ones established (Batilmal, 2012). There is much to be done in Libya and repairing the Libyan education system and reconstructing depends on a great deal of time and patience from Libyan officials and teachers, and depends on the stability of the country, but it is one welcomed by many in Libya.

2.8 History of Teacher Education in Libya

Libya has received tremendous support and assistance from various areas since its independence in 1951. UNESCO provided much assistance to Libya in the 1950s and 1970s to establish different educational systems, including establishing higher teacher training colleges (Shibani, 2001:353). The Faculty of Education in Tripoli began as a Higher Teacher’s Training College in 1965 with the help of UNESCO to help improve the quality of teaching and teachers. The faculty of education departments offered a variety of specialists such as language and linguistics which offered Arabic studies, English and French, social sciences offered philosophy, geography and history, and science departments offered biology, chemistry and mathematics (Clark, 2004). Education courses in theory, methodology and psychology were compulsory. Teaching practice, which is the main interest of this research, was then offered from Year Three on to Year Four in which students spent a sustained periods of 12 weeks observing experienced teachers and teaching in schools. This was in the early 1970’s and 1980’s. Whereas now, no sustained teaching practice is currently required and students graduate and are awarded a Bachelor’s degree and go on to teach.
In the 1970s and 1980’s, the educational system included a teacher-training programme; general teacher training institutes, directly after the primary stage for five years for preparing students to be teachers for different subjects in the primary school. At the end of this stage, the students got a diploma for teaching in primary schools, i.e. the first six years of the fundamental education (Mohsen, 2014). Another system, which led to the same result, is that a student who had already finished his preparatory stage could join a teacher-training programme in which he/she studied only two years. This system led to the same result as the first one. In this college, students studied different courses that provide them with the necessary backgrounds for different courses in the primary stage. They also study teaching methods. In the last years, students have two periods of practical training at school. This system did not aim at graduating students to be teachers of English or other special courses. They were prepared to be able to teach all primary school courses (Mohsen, 2014).

In regards to Training of English teachers as an example, the Ministry of Education through cooperation with UNESCO and the British Council in the 1960s organised training courses for teachers of English in the preparatory stage extended over the period of 1960s and 1970s (Mohsen, 2014). For supplying teachers for the preparatory stage, there was a system; specialised teacher training institutes, that received students who have finished the preparatory stage. These institutes had different specialisations; e.g., Arabic, social sciences: history, geography, English, science and mathematics. Students spend four years in these institutes during which they study different courses besides concentrating on their specialisation. At the end of this stage, students get a diploma that enables them to teach in preparatory schools. There is a third system at the university level; i.e. higher teacher training colleges, after the secondary stage. It receives students who have finished their secondary study besides it also receives students who have got a diploma from specialised teacher training institutes. In the 4-year system of a specialised secondary school or the current 3-year system, students study different courses that prepare them to be qualified teachers in secondary schools. These colleges have different specialisations. Later on, these colleges were changed into faculties that teach different courses. There were also in-service courses for preparatory school teachers in July 1966 (Barton, 1968). Barton states that another type of training was provided by the British Council through courses in the orientation of teachers in July 1966. A course for some preparatory teachers at the University Faculty of Teacher Training was conducted in July 1966. In 1968, a course for 30 preparatory school teachers in the English language was held in the United Kingdom. There was also a training department in the Ministry of Education which bore too many responsibilities in the field of training of English teachers in Libya. At the same time, the ministry continued sending teachers of English abroad
every year (Barton; 1968:3-4). Along the 1970s and 1980s there were three faculties of education in the Libyan universities in Tripoli, in Al-Beida, and in Sabha.

According to the National Report on the Development of Education in Libya (2008), the government and the ministry of education has emphasised a great deal on the importance of training teachers. It was determined to prepare and develop teacher skills and knowledge for teachers to be capable of keeping up with global developments in areas of curriculum and teaching methods and the use of modern educational techniques. For this reason, the Libyan government established a specialised centre for this purpose under the name (The General Centre for Teacher Training) in 2006. The aim of the General Centre for Teacher Training was to improve the quality of the educational system, improve the quality of education; qualify non-educationally qualified teachers; promote the performance of all members of the ministry through training programmes; upgrade the performance of the workers in the educational field; use and train teachers on the use of new technologies in the field of telecommunication (Batilmal, 2012).

The unfortunate truth is that although the government has provided training centres such as these, teachers are no longer emphasising on the practical aspect of teaching. They are burdened with overloaded timetables, the intense amount of theory that has to be covered in addition to other responsibilities has led to the neglect of student teaching opportunities, and students are no longer provided with a sustained period in schools. There is much to be done in Libya in regards to improving education. Improving, reforming and reconstructing the education system, in addition to teacher education in Libya depends a great deal on the stability of the country in addition to patience from Libyan officials and teachers. Some attempts have been made in the last few years such as the September 2012 EAIE Conference in Dublin, ICEF Monitor who presented a session entitled "The Arab Spring: implications for educational reform in Egypt and Libya." Through this conference, it was pointed out that if Libya was to achieve substantive education, it would have to focus on particular areas of improvement such as, the overall educational system, physical infrastructure, quality of education, teacher training and teacher quality (hence the study in question), quality control at university level, curriculum redesign, and greater partnerships with private sectors as well as institutions overseas. Another attempt was made to improve the quality of education in Libya when the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation along with the Libyan Ministry of Education organised a workshop to train trainers on 'Managing Quality Education and INEE Minimum Standards'. This project was organised in September 2012 and was funded by the Japanese Government. The aim of the Training of Trainers workshop was to build the capacity of the Libyan Education System and Ministry of Education staff to improve the quality of education and teaching.
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Having given a thorough historical overview of Libya and Libya’s education system, it is necessary to discuss the current situation in Libya and its impact on everyday life, education, teaching and most all, its effect on this thesis. The thesis, the ethical approval process and the difficulties designing this study and the challenges over the collection of data all took place within a wider context.

2.8.1 The Organisation of the Teacher Education Programme at Azzawia University

Prior to re-developing the final semester of year 4 at the target university, the teacher education programme at the university included two major components: formal coursework and teaching practice. The formal coursework comprised the vast majority of the credits earned in the programme. Student teachers attended regularly scheduled classes and learned about their academic discipline, foundations of education, and curriculum and instruction. The academic discipline refers to the subject that student teachers intend to teach. In the case of the participants in the study in hand, the subject they will be teaching is English. The other courses consisted of philosophy, psychology, and sociology as these disciplines apply to education. The inclusion of educational foundation courses in the programme are based on the premise that teachers have to know and appreciate past events, develop a philosophy that guides their actions and understand how their pupils learn or fail to learn. The courses in curriculum and instruction focus on the aims of education, the structure of knowledge, means by which the knowledge to be learned has to be sequenced and integrated, ways of assessing learning, and methods or strategies that could be used to transmit knowledge and facilitate learning.

2.8.2 The Organisation of Teaching Practice at Azzawia University

As referred to in Chapter One of this thesis, teacher education in Libya has been struggling for several years now and TE institutions and in particular, teachers, have been criticized for the way they prepare student teachers for teaching and have been blamed for pupils’ underachievement as well (Suwaed, 2014; Suwaed and Rahouma, 2015; Batimal, 2012). In Libya, student teachers spend the majority of their initial teacher education programme on theoretical courses at universities and are provided with little opportunities to spend a sustained time in schools where they can make sense of theory learned in class (Cohen, Hoz & Kaplan, 2013). The researcher is a university tutor at the same target university and is well aware of how university tutors are burdened with the amount of theory to cover in the teaching practice syllabus. As a consequence of this burden, some university tutors unintentionally neglect the most important aspect of teacher education, which is actual teaching in schools (Ong’ondo & Jwan, 2009; Tang 2004; Zhang & Cheng 2011; Smith & Ulvik, 2011; Percara, 2013; Kiggundu & Nayimuli, 2009; Ranjan, 2013;
Mok, 2010). The extent of school-based experience offered is currently minimal (2 days a week). Specifically, in the College of Education, student teachers are taken to primary or secondary schools to observe occasional lessons and later assist classroom teachers with handing out homework or activity sheets. Little or no actual team or independent teaching occurs. This initial position served as the starting point for consulting the literature on student teaching and teacher education programming in order to develop a sustained and progressive period of time in schools that would conclude with English student teachers having opportunity to independently teach classes for an extensive period of time. A description of this element of the teacher education degree is presented later in the chapter with due consideration to the literature which was reviewed in the previous chapter.

2.9 The Current Situation in Libya and the Implications for the Thesis

“We will come house by house, room by room, ally by ally...we will find you in your closets. We will have no mercy and no pity.....” (Colonel Muammar Gaddafi, 17 March 2011).

A famous statement uttered by Gaddafi, misinterpreted at the time by his own people and by the international community, was the beginning of the end of his regime and the collapse of a nation. More than six years after the death of Muammar Gaddafi, Libya has become a failed state (Cafiero and Wagner, 2015). The country is no longer an effectively governable state as it suffers from the lack of a functional military and security system (Ronen, 2017). Wedgwood and Dorn (2015) state that while the fear characterising Gaddafi’s nearly 42-year reign disappeared, so too, did his iron-fisted stability. As a consequence, the country has been slipping deeper into chaos, violence, human rights violations, a refugee crisis, economic instability, the collapse of the social welfare systems and disintegration (Jebnoun, 2015; Siebens & Case, 2012). Since then, Libya has turned into a breeding ground for armed jihadist groups, or there has been an obvious increase and a growing presence of armed jihadist groups in Libya and the potential challenges these may pose. (Eriksson, 2016). This instability has contributed to the increase of terrorism and radicalisation, a worsening humanitarian situation, a sharp increase in migration and trafficking, arm flows, illicit trade, and much more (Eriksson, 2016). The consequences of the vacuum left behind by the Gaddafi regime has created a safe haven for all sorts of radical groups, from Al-Qaida-affiliated groups to Islamic State groups (Zamabakari, 2016), which were marginalised and suppressed by the Gaddafi’s regime. The lack of a powerful security system that once existed has contributed to the creation of a governmental vacuum which led to the flow of these radical groups from countries all around the world who are now competing to gain power and authority over the country (Ronen, 2017).
2.9.1 Civilian Displacement and Death Toll

As mentioned previously, the Libyan war has had an immense impact on the stability of Libya. This in turn, has caused an increase in the number of civilian displacements and death toll. According to Siebens & Case (2012), the Libyan civil war and the international intervention during the war has contributed to the human fatalities amongst Libyan citizens. Just days after the uprising in Libya, between the 20th of February and the 2nd of March 2011, an estimated 180,000 Libyans either fled to seek refuge in neighbouring countries such as Tunisia or Egypt or were displaced within the country (Siebens & Case, 2012). This number was tripled within the three to four months following international intervention as the conflict intensified and spread to a number of major cities in Libya (Siebens & Case, 2012). By the year 2014, Libya experienced one of the highest fatalities during the 2011 war, an estimation of 2900 death fatalities caused alone by sustained violence (Libya Body Count). This sad reality has also been reflected by Ann M. Lesch, Professor Emeritus of Political Science at the American University in Cairo, cited in Zambakari (2016), and said that today the estimates of those who died on both sides of the conflict is around 15,000 civilians and fighters out of an estimated population of six million.

In December 2014, the Internal Displacement Monitoring Centre (IDMC) revealed that the number of internally displaced Libyan civilians rose from an estimated 180,000 people in 2011 to an estimated 400,000 people in 2014. Figure 2.2 below illustrates the internal displacement of Libyan citizens and the cities most affected by the conflict as indicated by the Internal Displacement Monitoring Centre (IDMC).

![Figure 2.2: Internal Displacement Monitoring Centre (IDMC), Libya, internal displacement as of March 2015](image-url)
According to the Internal Displacement Monitoring Centre (IDMC), despite the fact that Libya continues to be destabilised by conflict and violence, there has been an evident improvement in the situation of internally displaced Libyan citizens during the first half of 2017. Libyan citizens from the northern regions of the country began returning home to their towns after a decline in hostilities. In 2017, the number of internally displaced Libyans in the country dropped from 294,000 people in February to 257,000 in March and then more than 240,000 as of the beginning of May 2017. Since ISIS lost control of one of Libya’s most significant cities and Gaddafi’s former hometown, Sirt, after years of exercising their extreme political and religious views, large numbers of Libyan citizens finally were able to return to their town, homes and lives. As life was improving in the town of Sirt during the first six months, fighting around Tamenhint airbase near the city of Sebha, resulted in 34,000 new internal displacements of Libyan citizens in 2017.

2.9.2 Centralised or decentralised, that is the question?

The Libyan education system since the Gaddaffi era has remained highly centralised (Batilmal, 2008, Swaed, 2014, Abdulhamid, 2011). The Ministry of Education is seen as the highest administrative power in Libya with regards to education. The Committee Secretary is the person responsible for the educational system in Libya, meaning that she/he is responsible for developing the nation’s educational policy (Batilmal, 2008, Swaed, 2014). The planning and design of the syllabus and the choice of textbooks used in schools remain the responsibility of the Senior Inspectorate. In sum there is only one central power that guides, proposes and makes decisions on behalf of all educators in Libya in regards to the education system in Libya which means that there is currently no place for any move towards decentralisation. Since 2011, however, Libya has made numerous attempts to transition from a centralised authoritarianism to a more decentralised nation. However, due to the disintegration of the central state, instability, the ongoing military conflict, weak governments, fierce competition between political parties, the process of decentralisation in Libya has been hindered or in other words, has been put on hold (Kherigi, 2016). Unless sustainable mechanisms for decentralising power are developed in Libya, ‘the alternative is further chaos and fragmentation’ (Kherigi, 2016:9). Decentralisation has often been introduced as a solution in divided countries to help maintain political stability (Toaldo, 2016; Kherigi, 2016). According to Harb and Attallah (2014), the Arab region has been found to be the most centralised countries in the world (Harb and Attallah, 2014). However, several considerable attempts at decentralisation have been made in a number of developing countries in the Middle East and North Africa such as Morocco, Egypt, Yemen, Palestine and Tunisia (Tosun and Yilmaz, 2008). Tunisia, for instance, a country that had witnessed and experienced the Arab
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spring, is transitioning from a centralised authoritarianism to a more decentralised position faster than any other Arabic country in North Africa and the Middle East (Kherigi, 2016). An argument can be made here that Tunisia could be setting a model for how to solve the dissatisfaction of the centralised Arab state and Libya is in desperate need for a strong central state more than ever so a progressive shift to decentralisation might potentially be a solution to the on-going instability and chaos in Libya (Kherigi, 2016).
Chapter 3  Review of Literature

3.1  Introduction

According to Norris & Ortega (2006:5):

The value of reviewing the existing literature is to get a sense of what we already know about a particular question or problem, to understand how it has been addressed methodologically, and to figure out where we need to go next with our research. (p.5).

With the aim of fully understanding the concerns and experiences student teachers go through during teaching practice, it is necessary to review the existing literature (Raworth, 2016) in order to familiarise ourselves with the available knowledge in our areas of interest (Kumar, 2011). By this, the researcher of this study begins this chapter by visiting the existing literature on Teacher Education in general followed by the significance of incorporating a teaching practice placement within initial teacher education. The researcher also visits existing literature on student teachers’ perceptions, experiences and concerns during teaching practice, which is the main focus of this study. Given the drastically changing context in which this research was undertaken, it is pertinent to undertake a thorough review of research in conflict areas.

3.2  Concept of Teacher Education

The National Council for Teacher Education (1998) has defined teacher education as an education programme in which individuals are trained to teach from pre-primary levels to higher education levels, in addition to being a programme that involves the development of the proficiency and competence of a teacher. Darling-Hammond (2006) views teacher education as a process that starts with a phase of initial teacher training and continues throughout a teacher’s professional life (Darling-Hammond, 2006). According to Northfield & Gunstone in Loughran & Russel (1997), teacher education not only involves the professional development of a teacher but also involves the development of both personal and social development of a teacher. Amade-Escot & Amans-Passaga (2007) view teacher education as professional education where both theory and practice are combined through situated and contextualised experiences of teaching.

3.3  Conceptual Orientations of Teacher Education

Volante and Earl (2004) argue that despite the fact that effective teacher education programmes require adequate time for student teachers in schools, adequate time on its own, does not
guarantee quality. All preservice teacher education programmes should all reach an agreement on what is considered knowledge for teaching and decide how to integrate it in a preservice curriculum as suggested by Feimen-Nemser (1990). A significant starting point in this regard is the description of a programme’s conceptual orientations. Unlike structural models, ‘conceptual orientations are not tied to particular forms of teacher preparation’ (Volante and Earl, 2004:29).

Conceptual orientations reflect different views of teaching and suggest different approaches to a student teachers’ development (Volante and Earl, 2004). Each conceptual orientation has a particular focus that highlights ‘certain aspects of teaching, learning and learning to teach; directs attention to a central goal of teacher preparation; and results in particular practices’ (Feimen-Nemser, 1990:31). Researchers have argued that these orientations can either shape a single component of an initial teacher preparation programme or apply to a whole series of professional development courses (Feiman-Nemser, 1990; Turner-Bisset, 1999; Shulman, 1986, 1987, Calderhead & Shorrock, 1997). Calderhead & Shorrock (1997:2) for instance, propose that these orientations ‘refer to the body of values and beliefs about teaching and teacher education that at different points in history have been particularly influential in shaping the nature of initial teacher education courses’. In agreement, researchers such Turner-Bisset (1999), Villegas-Reimers (2003) and Opfer, Pedder and Lavicza (2010) have argued that different conceptual orientations about the teacher’s role and their preparation shape the nature of the initial preparation of teachers and that these orientations influence on their professional learning. They argue that teachers bring an orientation to their professional learning and this orientation contributes significantly to whether teachers’ professional change results from that learning (Volante and Earl, 2004).

Researchers have proposed several frameworks to examine conceptual orientations in preservice programmes or developed frameworks for examining conceptual variations in teacher education programmes (Shulman, 1986, 1987; Feiman-Nemser, 1990; Turner-Bisset, 1999, 2001; Zeichner, 1993). The first influential work on teacher knowledge was conducted by (Shulman, 1986, 1987) who categorised teacher knowledge into 7 categories, among which were the concepts of general pedagogical knowledge (principles and strategies of classroom management and organization that are cross-curricular) and pedagogical content knowledge (the knowledge which integrates the content knowledge of a specific subject and the pedagogical knowledge for teaching that particular subject). Fieman-Nemser (1990) when discussing conceptual orientations, she meant the cluster of ideas about the goals of teacher preparation and the means for achieving them. Feiman-Nemser’s (1990) framework, allows practitioners and researchers a simple and effective way of organising the underlying themes that drive any particular programme. She highlighted some of the traditions of thought and practice that have characterised the field of teacher education and provided a comprehensive scheme that addresses all the major elements that
define teacher education programmes. This scheme includes the academic, practical, technological, personal, and critical/social orientations. Villegas-Reimers (2003) argues that ‘clarifying the conceptual orientations of any particular teacher education programme is an important research aim’ and that a well defined conceptual framework helps identify a programme’s central tasks, such as helping teachers become intellectual leaders, promoting the primacy of experience, or developing a progressive social vision in all teachers (Feiman-Nemser, 1990: 227). This type of conceptual clarity provides guidance to teacher educators in programme development and evaluation by identifying issues or tasks that specific programmes should address (Feiman-Nemser, 1990). Researchers other than Shulman (1986, 1987) and Feimen-Nemser (1990), Zeichner (1993) also developed a framework for examining conceptual variations in teacher education programmes. Zeichner (1993) called these orientations “traditions of practice” and a set of four major categories were identified; academic, social efficacy, developmentalist, and social reconstructionist. In 1999, Turner-Bisset also developed a comprehensive model of knowledge essential for teaching. This model like any other framework or model has strengths and weaknesses. The work of Turner-Bisset’s (1999, 2001) has uncovered the many facets of what teachers need to know in order to practise their profession (Volante and Earl, 2004). Turner-Bisset’s model has proved that it is more comprehensive than Shulman’s list of knowledge bases, or the groups of three or four or five categories which some researchers have suggested (Fiemen-Nemser, 1990; Zeichner, 1993). Her model also includes knowledge of self which is arguably an important element of reflection on practice. It distinguishes between different kinds of knowledge of learners, both of which are essential for teaching. The model can be criticised for presenting what seems to be a static view of teaching knowledge, but the vision of knowledge as interacting sets implies that teaching knowledge is constantly being revised, and that, moreover, one’s pedagogical content knowledge varies in the exact composition of the sets of knowledge bases according to the subject being taught. Furthermore, the model based on esearch literature and empirical evidence from a doctoral study.

3.4 Models of Teacher Education

The field of education is currently driven by a prevailing interest in preparing teachers (e.g. pre-service) to become ‘effective’ teachers (Darling-Hammond, 2006; 2017). Therefore, some teacher education programmes have been developed in order to enhance the process of learning how to teach. These teacher education programmes investigate potential approaches that encourage student teachers in service towards learning focused teaching activities (Darling-Hammond, 2017).
Research has shown that several educational theorists have proposed various view points on possible models for teacher education (Wallace, 1990; Hodkinson and Harvard, 1995; Zeichner, 1980). They have also discussed the tension between theory and apprenticeship models in teacher education (Hodkinson and Harvard, 1995; Garm and Karlsen, 2004). The Craft Model is considered the oldest form of professional education (Day, 1991; Bailey, 2006). In the craft model of teacher education “the wisdom of the profession resides in an experienced professional practitioner… the trainee learns by imitating the expert’s techniques and by following the expert’s instructions and advice” (Wallace, 1991, p. 6). The training procedure of the model is described as ‘sitting with Nellie’, where teachers are found learning their trade by working in schools alongside more experienced colleagues (Hodkinson and Harvard, 1995). The apprenticeship model puts emphasis on training and ‘on-the-job’ performance (Bailey, 2006). In this model, ‘knowledge derived from practice is emphasized and utility is used as a criterion for validity’ (Garm and Karlsen, 2004:47). One criticism of the model is that teachers are perceived as technicians who need a tool box of skills (Bailey, 2006). Although the apprenticeship can lead to acquirement of skills, however, these acquired skills might go misunderstood as student teachers might not understand their principles. When a new teacher moves to a new context, they have no basis for adapting these skills in a proper way. This in turn, could be overcome if experienced teachers discussed their rationales with student teachers, but experienced teachers are not in a context where they are obliged to do this routinely (Garm and Karlsen, 2004). Hence, the main criticism of the apprenticeship model, is that it tends to be ‘difficult to sustain where the educational context, methodologies and syllabus are rapidly changing’ (Wallace, 1991:19; Stones and Morris, 1972).

![Figure 3-1: Craft Model (Wallace, 1991:6)](image)

Different terms have been used in literature to describe the ‘theory 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 applied science model is based on student teachers’ learning about educational theory in order to later apply this theory to practice. As stated by Wallace (1991:8) ‘the whole issue of the practice of a profession is therefore merely instrumental in its nature’. In the traditional model, ‘teachers are seen studying academic educational theory, alongside teaching practice in a higher education institution and
could be viewed as a non-technician mode where teachers learn theory in order to interpret and criticize their own action’ (Eraut, 1989:57). In practice ‘the traditional model encouraged learning of theory as if it were fact... sometimes as a result of pressure of time’ (Hodkinson and Harvard, 1995, p. 4). The traditional model is based on the assumption that ‘knowledge is acquired during time spend at university, and when students are given opportunity to teach in the classroom the knowledge is used’ (Russell and McPherson, 2001:33). Those in support of the model argue that teaching problems can be solved by the application of empirical science (Wallace, 1991). They claim that if things do not work, something might be wrong with the scientific knowledge, however, ‘new knowledge is the prerogative of the scientists and scholars who are experts in generating theory and not practitioners’ (Wallace, 1991:38). The main criticisms of the applied science model are that professional problems remain despite a proliferation of scientific knowledge, and the model downgrades the value of classroom practitioners (Russell and McPherson, 2001:33). Moreover, the tendency of experts to be at a distance from the classroom has resulted in separation of theory and practice.

A third model of professional development, reflective practice, ‘attempts to overcome the main criticism of the applied science model discussed above because it considers both ‘received knowledge’” (Wallace, 1991:9), sometimes referred to as ‘research-based theories and techniques’ e.g. Schön (1983); and ‘experiential knowledge’ (Wallace, 1991). Schön (1983) labelled experiential knowledge as ‘knowledge-in-action’ which works in the space between theory and practice. See Figure 3.3 below.
In section 3.4, the models of teacher education were outlined. Using that outline as a guide, the researcher has classified the current teacher education programme at the Azzawia University as a reflective model because specific subjects and classroom methods are theoretically studied, reflected upon, an examination is written, and a Bachelor’s degree is conferred. However, certain aspects of the University of Azzawia programme fit into the applied science model, because of the highly academic nature of the programme where theory is first transmitted to the participants, and upon completion of the course, the participant applies the theory. The craft model implies
observing and copying master teachers, much like an apprentice learning a trade from who has mastered it. Currently, pre-service teachers in Libya do not have a master teacher model in the schools to observe and copy. The craft model is therefore unsuited to the current TE programme at the University of Azzawia.

Research has shown that reflection is crucial to the success of any teacher education programme (Freese, 1999; Collin, Karsenti and Komis, 2013; Richardson, 1990; Fox, Campbell and Hargrove, 2011; Mok, 2010; Stenberg, 2010; Clarke, 2007). Stenberg (2010:332) states that ‘if student teachers are given opportunities to reflect on their actions and life experiences and to expand their insights and understanding, then they have a chance to become more aware of beliefs, values and understandings that underlie decision making in their teaching practice’. Results from Clarke’s (2007) study revealed that the reflective model was effective in bridging the gap between theory and practicum. Therefore, establishing reflective practice is important in pre-service teachers’ learning development.

After the discussion of the various types of models of teacher education suggested by several researchers such as Wallace (1991), the craft model, applied science model and the reflective model, the researcher examines the characteristics of effective teacher education.

### 3.5 Characteristics of Effective Teacher Education

Tokmak & Karakus (2011) state that initial teacher training is extremely crucial in the preparation of pre-service students for their teaching professions. Darling-Hammond (2006) argues that in order for teachers to meet the demanding challenges of today’s classrooms, it is vital to have effective and strong teacher education programmes in place to assist teachers in becoming effective and sufficient teachers from the very first days on the job. What does an effective teacher education programme entail. Darling-Hammond (2006) and Boyd, Grossman, Lankford, Loed & Wyckoff (2008) discuss the three major components any effective teacher education programme should include. First, it is essential for a TE programme to have a tight coherence and integration among courses and between course work and fieldwork in schools. Second, TE programmes should entail extensive supervised fieldwork integrated with course work using pedagogies that link theory and practice. Finally, it is vital for a teacher education programme to have a stronger partnership with schools that model good teaching. Bhargava (2009) and the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education (2010) confirm that in order for a teacher education programme to be effective and powerful, schools and universities need to work together in partnership.
Darling-Hammond (2006) proposes two versions of initial teacher education. She begins with the ‘traditional versions’ of teacher education in which theory learned at university is isolated from practice and then adding a short period of student teaching to the end of the programme usually in classrooms that are different from in some ways to real classrooms. This is similar to how initial teacher education is provided in Libya nowadays. By contrast, effective programmes require students to spend an extensive period of time in schools throughout their entire programme, in which they examine and apply theories learned through university courses with the assistance of an experienced teacher usually known as the ‘cooperating teacher’ who usually guides them in understanding the role of a teacher and show teachers how to teach in ways that are effective to learners (Darling-Hammond, 2006; Tuli & File, 2009; Darling-Hammond and Heiberman, 2012). Darling-Hammond (2006) confirms that teachers in training who are fortunate to have the opportunity to spend extensive time and experience the classroom culture, tend to be better prepared to make sense of the theories and concepts addressed to them through their university academic courses and are also able to thoroughly understand and integrate theory and practice especially if they are taking university course work in conjunction with fieldwork. In other words, student teachers will be capable of bridging theoretical and pedagogical knowledge learned in universities to actual teaching in a real school setting with real students. By that end, teacher education programmes should be designed to provide pre-service teachers with the necessary skills to develop their teaching skills and prepare them for the world of teaching (Harvard & Hodkinson, 1994 & Darling-Hammond, 2006).

Given the above, it is, therefore, argued by the researcher that the current teacher education programme in Libya at the targeted university might benefit from a school-based experience which could provide student teachers with early field experience and some sustained teaching experience to understand the full scope of a teacher’s role (Darling-Hammond, 2006).

3.6 Does Teacher Education play a significant role in Teacher preparation? Purpose of TE and its role in student teachers’ learning

Al-Mahrooqi (2011:243) argues that:

‘The role of the teacher in all formal educational settings is a vital one. Therefore, it is important to adequately prepare the teacher for the challenging task of teaching’

Villegas-Reimers (2003:42) indicates that:

‘The first step in any process of developing a professional in any field is the initial professional preparation of that person’.
Teachers are considered to be the most important element of any educational institution as they are the ones mainly responsible for helping pupils make progress and succeed (National Council for Teacher Education, 1998; Department for Education (DfE, 2015; Darling-Hammond, 2006). Teaching can be a rewarding and exciting profession but can also be a very demanding one (Azeem, 2011). In order to address these demands of teaching, it is vital to invest in the preparation of teachers not just to secure the future of our pupils but also the future of our countries. According to the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education (AACTE) (2009), well-prepared teachers have a positive impact on their pupil’s achievement and on their confidence from a perspective of being prepared for the teaching profession and on their longevity in the classroom. Darling-Hammond (2000) in Kosnik & Beck (2009) is also in agreement that teacher education does indeed play a significant role in teacher preparation, not only by improving teachers’ teaching skills but also by ensuring that they remain in the profession.

Darling-Hammond (2006) argues that in order for teachers to meet the demanding challenges of today’s classrooms, it is vital to have effective and strong teacher education programmes in place to assist teachers in becoming effective and sufficient teachers. Darling-Hammond (2006) and Boyd, Grossman, Lankford, Loed and Wyckoff (2008) discuss three major components of any effective teacher education programme. First, it is essential for a TE programme to have tight coherence and integration among courses and between course work and fieldwork in schools. Second, TE programmes should entail extensive supervised fieldwork integrated with course work using pedagogies that link theory and practice. Finally, it is important for teacher education programme to have strong partnerships with schools that model good teaching. Effective programmes require students to spend an extensive period of time in schools throughout their programme, in which they examine and apply theories learned through university courses with the assistance of an experienced teacher who guides them in understanding the role of a teacher and show teachers how to teach in ways that are effective to learners (Darling-hammond, 2006; Tuli and File, 2009; Darling-Hammond and Hiberman, 2012). Darling-Hammond (2006) confirms that teachers in training who have the opportunity to spend extensive time and experience the classroom culture, tend to be better prepared to make sense of the theories and concepts addressed to them through university academic courses and are also able to understand and integrate theory and practice especially if they are taking university course work in conjunction with fieldwork. By that teacher education programmes should be designed to provide pre-service teachers with the necessary skills to develop their teaching skills and prepare them for the world of teaching (Harvard and Hodkinson, 1994; Darling-Hammond, 2006).
Models such as Teach First and Teach America are predicated on the grounds that an apprenticeship/craft model is seen by some to be the most effective form of training because of the practical nature of such programmes, whereas others claim that programmes that combine universities and schools in partnership are more effective whether it is an accelerating move to an entirely school-based form of training on a Teach First programme (the UK version of Teach for America) model (Freedman, Lipson and Hargreaves, 2008). The Teach First model, for instance, which is currently being expanded in England, is a teaching and leadership development programme. This programme sees students receive six weeks of training from a university provider prior to entering a classroom. Student teachers are then trained and supported to teach in a partner school for two years. They would then be expected to develop the rest of their own skills, knowledge and understanding whilst ‘on the job’ (DfE, 2010). Although the Teach First model/programme appears, upon entry, to address the issue of how to attract the highest performing graduates, both Smithers et al (2012) and Scott (2016) reported that those on Teach First Programmes had the poorest retention compared to those who entered the former Graduate Teacher Programme (GTP) which provided the highest percentage of graduates who were retained. Very recently Teach First has decided to replace its current teacher programme with a two-year postgraduate diploma (PGDE), which will give its paid participants two thirds of a master’s degree.

Teach for America, according to Darling-Hammond (2000), was created to recruit bright college graduates to disadvantaged schools who were en route to careers in other professions. Although created as a response to those who voiced dissatisfaction with their preparation especially if they were assigned to work with children who needed skillful teaching (Darling-Hammond, 2000), four separate evaluations revealed that Teach for America’s three to eight week summer training programme did not prepare candidates adequately (Grady et al., 1991; Roth, 1993 in Darling-Hammond, 2000), despite the intelligence and enthusiasm of many of the recruits. Many recruits knew that their success, and that of their students, had been compromised by their lack of access to the knowledge they needed to teach (Darling-Hammond, 2000). These feelings led to the programme’s high attrition rate. Even though many recruits report they initially entered the programme with the intention of exploring teaching as a career, many also indicate they left because they felt unsuccessful. Aside from high attrition, studies of short-term alternative programmes have also noted that what little pedagogical training they provide tends to focus on generic teaching skills rather than subject-specific pedagogy, on singular techniques rather than a range of methods, and on specific, immediate advice rather than research or theory (Stoddart, 1992 in Darling-Hammond, 2001). The lack of traditional coursework and student teaching in these programs is generally supposed to be compensated for by intensive mentoring and
supervision in the initial months of full-time teaching. Teach for America along with Teach First were also for integrating troops in classrooms.

### 3.7 Status of Teacher Education

‘...the key to better schools is better teachers’ (Darling-Hammond, 2006:29)

For the last two decades or so, teacher education has been an essential topic of discussion in the field of educational research amongst teacher educators around the world (Darling-Hammond, 2006; Hopkins & Reid, 2012; Malinen, Vaisanen and Savolainen, 2012; Trippestad, Swennen and Werler, 2017; Trippestad, Swennen and Tobias, 2017) and has been through its best and worst of times (Cheng, Chow & Tsui, 2001). In a number of countries around the world, there is a strong interest in how teachers are prepared, in the content of their preservice education and training programmes and in measuring and monitoring their effectiveness (Trippestad, Swennen and Tobias, 2017).

Ong’ondo & Jwan (2009:16) states that:

"Teacher education has been recognised in many countries around the world as having the potential to make a major contribution to the education sector as a whole, especially in the achievement of the goals of education set by these countries".

Evidence has revealed that a number of countries around the world, top the list of having high performing education systems (Darling-Hammond and Lieberman, 2013; Darling-Hammond, 2006, 2012). Amongst these countries are Singapore, Finland, Australia, China, Canada, Korea, Japan, the UK, the US, and the Netherlands. A growing body of research has found that high-performing countries have in common a set of strategies for developing, supporting, and sustaining the ongoing learning and development of their teachers and school leaders (Barber & Mourshed, 2007; Darling-Hammond, 2017; Darling-Hammond et. al, 2017). These high-performing education systems create a coherent set of policies designed to ensure quality teaching in all communities and how the results of these policies are manifested in practice (Darling-Hammond et. al, 2017). Barber and Mourshed (2007) found that these countries had several commonalities. The first common feature of these systems are that policies were designed to find people with the right skills and attributes to become teachers. Competitive salaries helped make the profession attractive to potential candidates, and high standards were set for entry into and graduation from initial teacher education programmes. Barber and Mourshed (2007) argue that together these helped raise the status of teaching and created a cycle for on-going recruitment. The second commonality proved that these systems were able to develop teacher education programmes...
that promoted the integration of theory with the building of practical skills, and they established policies for ongoing learning that helped teachers identify areas for growth, where they might learn from each other, and improve their instructional practices. A third commonality was that these systems created strategies to ensure that all students, not just some, had access to high quality instruction. Darling-Hammond et al. (2017) and Darling-Hammond (2017) similarly argue that these countries are keen to identify and select individuals with the right blend of academic abilities and personal attributes to become effective teachers. Furthermore, these countries not only provide candidates with deep content knowledge and understanding of pedagogy, together with the clinical learning that translates these into quality teaching, but they also deliberately organize the sharing of expertise amongst teachers and administrators within and across schools so that the system as a whole becomes more effective (Darling-Hammond, 2017). These countries also ensure that early-careers teachers have the opportunity to observe, plan with and learn from experienced teachers as they enter the profession. Moreover, they ensure ongoing learning opportunities for teachers to continually develop and improve their practice and to share their expertise. In addition to providing pathways for teachers that support individual growth and the development of strong educational leaders. These high-performing education systems create a coherent set of policies designed to ensure quality teaching in all communities and how the results of these policies are manifested in practice (Darling-Hammond et al, 2017).

Due to word limit, the researcher chose to review only three of these high-performing teacher education systems: Finland, Singapore and the UK. The jurisdictions the researcher chose to review have made considerable investments in developing teaching and learning systems that include a coherent approach to supporting teaching quality (Barber & Mourshed, 2007; Darling-Hammond, 2017; Darling-Hammond et al, 2017). These systems have also demonstrated considerable success on international indicators of education quality that emphasise the kinds of higher-order skills needed in contemporary societies, such as OECD’s Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA) (Barber & Moursched, 2007; Darling-Hammond et al, 2017). Research has shown that countries such as Finland, Singapore and the UK promote effective practice in ITE programmes with concurrent procedures and policies that give emphasis to the recruitment of qualified individuals into the profession; their preparation; their induction; their continuing professional development; their evaluation and career development; and their retention over time (Sahlberg in Darling-hammond and Lieberman, 2012; Ingavrson, Reid, Buckley, Kleinhenz, Masters, Rowley, 2014; Darling-Hammond, 2017). With reference to Finland and Singapore, the 'quality of education system cannot exceed the quality of its teachers' (McKinsey and Company Report, 2010:5). Finland attributes its success to their approach to teaching and how teacher educators' approach the delivery of teacher education. Consequently, many countries have tried
to simulate Finnish policies and practices (Sahlberg in Darling-Hammond and Lieberman, 2012; Tirri and Ubani, 2013). Some have indicated that Finland permits its teachers much autonomy, trust and responsibility (Tirri and Ubani, 2013; Hart, 2017, The Guardian; Sahlberg in Darling-Hammond and Lieberman, 2012). Finland has developed a successful model for research-based initial teacher education, over the past 30 years operating within a collaborative system of curriculum reform, based mainly in schools and universities (Caena, 2014; tryggvason, 2009; Tirri, 2014; Darling-Hammond & Lieberman 2012). This research based model has revealed outstanding results according to international surveys (Tryggvason, 2009) and with its implementation, teachers in Finland is in a ‘good place’ to meet the demanding challenges of today’s schools and classrooms (Ingvarson, Reid, Buckley, Kleinhenz, Masters, Rowley, 2014; Tirri, 2014). Singapore, like Finland, ranks amongst the top five countries in the world in the international benchmarked tests of mathematics, science and reading achievement, making it, one of the countries with a high performing education system (Barber and Mourseshed, 2007; Tan, Liu & Low, 2017). A feature that makes Singapore’s teacher education system unique are values, skills, and knowledge underpinning teacher education through its student-centered education model. Another very unique feature of Singapore’s teacher education is the comprehensiveness and coherence of the system. Good teacher education programmes entail a vision and mission of being able to prepare and equip teachers with the relevant values, skills and knowledge (Tan, Liu and Low, 2017).

In comparison to Singapore and Finland, the UK and the US for instance are not ranked at the top of the list for the highest performing education systems, however are still considered countries with high performing education systems around the world according to PISA results. The UK education system for instance has been known for its long history of school based training and partnerships (Robinson, 2006) in addition to the range of routes to qualification available to suit potential candidates needs and interests which makes it a unique education system. The main goal of the education policy in the UK at present is to strengthen the role of schools in the development of teachers. The UK’s Coalition Government declared that it would like to see schools take the lead in teacher training in England (Universities’ Council for the Education of Teachers, 2013; Gove, 2010 White Paper Produced by the Department of Education). An obvious shift was made and schools began taking greater control and leadership of ITE in England (Gove, 2010). It is necessary to note that the university-school partnership that has been the ITT situation for many years will continue to play a substantial role in ITT that has now been shifted from school-based ITT to a more partnership ITT to Provider-led training or School Direct (Carter, 2015). Carter discusses that ITT providers can either be universities or School-Centred. He states that some programmes may be ‘Provider-led’ which means programmes are led and managed by a provider at the same time working in partnership with schools. If the provider was to be a
university for example, the course leads to Postgraduate Certificate in Education as well as QTS. Carter (2015) adds that ‘School-centred’ ITT could also partner with universities as well to offer either a PGCE as well as QTS. On the other hand, ‘School-Direct’ courses are led by a number of schools in which these schools choose a provider either (SCITT or university) to work with and this has led to schools taking increased ownership over ITT. According to Carter (2015), this school partnership should play a significant role in the recruitment and selection of applicants as well as designing courses and delivering parts or perhaps all of these courses.

After reviewing some of the many teacher education programmes around the world, it is necessary to argue that Libya imitating Singapore or Finland for example, would be a huge step for the country. Therefore, Libya first needs to establish an effective/standard teaching placement by exploring the concerns and experiences student teachers go through during a teaching practice placement. This is where this research can make a major contribution to initial teacher education programmes in Libya. By learning about student teachers’ concerns before, during and after a teaching practice placement and their experiences during teaching practice, teacher educators can re-evaluate and redesign their teaching practice syllabus. In turn, can provide Libyan student teachers with effective student teaching opportunities. In the next section, the researcher attempts to raise important issues in regards to the nature of teaching practice.

3.8 Notion of Teaching Practice

3.8.1 What is Teaching Practice?

Many institutions which offer initial teacher education (ITE) programmes require student teachers to participate in a teaching practice experience usually in schools, or a university college or any other learning institution where these student teachers can interact with actual pupils (Ong’ondo & Jwan, 2009). This is the session that is usually referred to as ‘teaching practice’ or ‘practicum’ (Hobson, 2003) or internship (Darling-Hammond, 2006). In this research, the terms teaching practice & practicum are used to refer to the practical component of ITE of student teachers.

Choy, Wong, Goh, Low (2014) defines teaching practice as school attachments for the purpose of either, observing expert teachers and reflecting on that observed teaching, or being involved in teaching and being observed and assessed by a mentor or university tutor. Ranjan (2013) says that the term teaching practice represents the range of experiences to which student teachers’ are exposed to when they observe and teach in classrooms. Teaching practice is regarded as an important component of teacher education (Ranjan, 2013; Rosemary, Richard & Ngara , 2013) and it is considered as one of the most useful components of a teacher education programme and
highly valued by student teachers and teacher educators (Smith & Ulvik, 2011; Percara, 2013; Kiggundu & Nayimuli, 2009; Ranjan, 2013; Mok, 2010). It provides an opportunity for student teachers to apply theories learned at university to the classroom setting (Rosemary, Richard & Ngara, 2013; Kiggundu & Nayimuli, 2009). Wallace (1991) views teaching practice as an opportunity given to a pre-service teachers to develop and improve their professional practice in the context of a real classroom, usually under guidance and supervision of some form. Of particular relevance to this study in Libya, teaching practice is considered to be a stage which is often regarded as a demanding, complex and overwhelming experience by teacher trainees as it may cause stress and anxiety (Percara, 2013).

3.8.2 The Significance & Value of Teaching Practice in Teacher Education

Nuland (2011:89) states that:

‘through the practice teaching component of their programme, teacher candidates observe and practise teaching in a school and apply theoretical, practical and experiential knowledge to construct understanding of professional issues’ (p. 413).

According to Tuli & File (2009), in order to achieve the goal of training effective teachers, different approaches to teacher education have emerged in initial teacher preparation programmes around the world. One of such approach is the introduction of practicum in initial teacher education programs. For the last five decades, the process of becoming a teacher, has been highlighted extensively in the academic world (Caires, Almeida & Vieira, 2012). They emphasize that research into the complexity of becoming a teacher has been increased significantly especially with regard to teaching practice, which has been recognized as playing a crucial role in teachers’ initial education and their early development (Caires & Almeida, 2005; Capel, 1997). The significant benefits of teaching practice in teacher education programmes and its contribution to preparing pre-service teachers for the realities of teaching in a real school setting has been discussed by several many (Choy, Wong, Goh, Low 2014).

Teaching practice is considered as one of the most important aspects of a student teacher’s education (Ong’ondo & Jwan, 2009). It provides student teachers with an opportunity to gain practical and professional teaching experience under the supervision of cooperating teachers by going into the field and becoming immersed in a school environment (Wallace, 1991; Mukeredzi & Mandrona, 2013). According to Tang (2004) & Zhang & Cheng (2011), teaching practice provides student teachers with opportunities to internalize the theories learned in their university courses into their own beliefs and ideas about practice and reflect upon their teaching with support from their university supervisors and cooperating teachers, in addition to learning how to
teach in complex and authentic learning situations. By that end, it is fair to say that, teaching practice can bridge the gap between theory & practice in initial teacher education and this is what teacher education programs should aim to achieve in order for student teachers to learn how to teach effectively as Darling-Hammond (2006) suggests. Smith & Ulvik (2011) state that the main objective of the practicum is to provide student teachers with hands on experience in teaching. In other words, it is not enough to read about teaching through university course work nor to observe expert teachers teach, something student teachers have done for years in Libya. According to Hascher, Cocard & Moser (2004) cited in Percara (2013), teaching practice is viewed as a safe field for experimentation and socialization within the process of learning, it also sets the stage for student teaching success or failure. The practicum does not only serve as a bridge between theory and practice in the learning of teaching, but through it teacher trainees can develop personal teaching competence (Smith & Lev-Ari, 2005).

Although research has revealed that teaching practice is regarded as an important component of teacher education (Ellis, 2010; Darling-Hammond, 2017) and is highly valued by student teachers and teacher educators (Smith and Ulik, 2011; Percara, 2013; Kiggundu and Nayimuli, 2009; Darling-Hammond, 2017), some studies have revealed that teaching practice was often problematic. Of particular relevance to the context of this study in hand, Ozdemir & Yildirim (2012) studied the effects of a teaching practice course on the professional development of student teachers in Turkey. The findings revealed that student teachers had difficulties with their supervisors and cooperating teachers in which students stated that their supervisors and cooperating teachers did not carry out the theoretical part of the courses and did not observe them in schools nor evaluate them systematically nor did they receive any feedback from them related to the process of the course. Another important finding of this research is that the teaching practice course only made certain contributions to student teachers’ professional development. In another study conducted Kiggundu and Nayimuli (2009), findings revealed that despite the positive experiences during teaching practice, student teachers experienced challenges which affected their perception of the teaching profession. Participants of this study indicated that the timing of the teaching practice at the end of the year was inappropriate. They also revealed that they had to play a dual role of being teachers in schools and students at university. This put tremendous pressure on the student teachers and rendered them ineffective both as teachers and as students. Another issue participants raised was that although some indicated that mentors were supportive, others felt exploited and unsupported by mentors.
3.8.3 Organisation & Length of the Practical Experience Period

In the past, universities had ultimate responsibility for organizing and planning the student teaching experience; arranging student teachers placements, selecting the cooperating teachers and assigning university supervisors (Tannehill & Goc-Karp, 1992). The location of placements has also been acknowledged as being important and influential on the benefits for the student teacher (Jeong & Mc Cullick, 2001). Zeichner (1992) noted that most field sites were selected on the basis of convenience and offering student teachers the best learning experiences. Larson (2005) explored student teachers’ experiences and found that students were placed in schools geographically convenient to the university which helped students get to and from the university.

Timing of teaching practice can also influence student teachers learning opportunities. Hynes-Dusel’s (1999) study for example, revealed that cooperating teachers suggested that pre-service teachers should participate in an “internship” prior to teaching practice. They go on to discuss that by doing this, student teachers would be involved in observing and teaching on a smaller scale (e.g. micro-teaching). This literature was helpful in informing the initial plan for a student teaching experience in Libya.

According to Malderez and Bodoczky (1999) and Perry (2004) cited in Kiggundu & Nayimuli (2009) the duration of teaching practice varies from one country to another and from one institution to another. Some initial teacher education programmes offer teaching practice once a day each week; others offer teaching practice over a semester; while others offer teaching practice as a 2-6 weeks block placement. In Singapore, teaching practice is offered up to 22 weeks over the four years of the study (Manzar-Abbas & Lu, 2013). In the past, by the 1920’s in Australia, for example, Colleges of Education sent their student teachers to schools one day a week, for a period of 14 weeks in which student teachers observe and critique teaching practices of experienced teachers. Then, they send the students one day a week to practice teaching under the supervision of cooperative teachers (Aspland, 2006). In China, the practicum begins in the fourth year and for a period ranging from eight to ten weeks, and the number of hours ranging from 4 % and less than 6% of the number of credit hours (Chen & Mu, 2010). Darling-Hammond (2000; 2017) suggests that the extent and quality of teacher education matters for teacher’s effectiveness, perhaps now more than even before. Studies of teachers admitted with less than full preparation find that recruits tend to be less satisfied with their training, and they have greater difficulties planning curriculum, teaching, managing the classroom, and diagnosing students’ learning needs. They are less able to adapt their instruction to promote student learning and less likely to see it as their job to do so, blaming students if their teaching is not effective (Darling-Hammond, 2000). In many parts of the world, student teachers now spend more time in schools during their initial teacher...
preparation programmes than they did a decade or two ago (Darling-Hammond, 2017). This additional time has usually been accompanied by greater attention to the quality of that school experience—the quality of the cooperating teachers selected, their training for the role and the creation of something beginning to resemble a clinical curriculum—an intentional set of experiences and learning during the clinical part of the programme (Darling-Hammond, 2017).

By reviewing the organisation and length of the practical experience period, it is fair to say that time spent in school has been found to shape student teachers’ understandings of how schools work and that student teachers can become socialised into these organisations. Therefore, it is necessary to understand the socialisation stages student teachers go through during their learning development, which now follows.

### 3.9 The Socialisation of the Student Teacher

According to Moscatelli (2008), the socialisation of pre-service teachers is considered a vital part of preparing teachers for the teaching profession and takes place during initial teacher education programmes and teaching practice experiences. She argues that while student teachers attend their university courses, they are being socialised and introduced into their academic discipline they intend to teach (Meyers, 2006). Once university courses are completed, pre-service teachers then proceed to the student teaching experience which is considered an additional form of socialisation into the teaching profession (Johnston and Wetherill, 2002). The student teacher is welcomed and introduced into a certain school and classrooms in which they will be observing and teaching with expert teachers. Moreover, student teachers build social relationships with school staff and pupils and improve their teaching skills during this process.

Research has revealed that student teachers experience three forms of socialisation during their teacher education programme and during their induction year into the teaching careers (Meyers, 2006). Professional socialisation for instance, is ‘the process in which the individual becomes part of a group, organisation, or community’ (Austin, 2002:95). The socialisation into a profession takes place over a period of time, which varies depending on the profession and the individual. According to Utley-Smith, Phillips and Turner (2007:425), the goal of professional socialization is to “instil the values, behaviours, and norms of the profession that are essential for the survival of that profession”. Another division is, the ‘socialisation into the teaching profession’. Socialisation into the teaching profession according to Angelle (2002), is an orientation process, an introduction to teaching which will provide the needed social and professional support to keep new teachers in the classroom and teaching profession. Due to teachers’ increased workloads and pupils’ challenging behaviours in classrooms, teachers are leaving the teaching profession to
pursue other careers outside the education arena. As for the third form of socialisation, referred to as the apprenticeship, the focus is mainly on inducting and socialising the trainee into their respective profession (Zeichner, 1986). Much of the socialising process during the teacher education experience is guided by the cooperating teacher (Maynard & Furlong, 1993). From this perspective, the socialisation process would follow an ideal path from the cooperating teacher taking a strong role in guiding the practice on the student teacher, followed by co-teaching in the classroom, concluding with the student teacher taking full responsibility for the teaching of the pupils. Another form of student teacher socialisation is the ‘student teaching experience’ which takes place during the teaching practice experience, which usually takes place within a school and classroom setting of an expert teacher (Johnston and Wetherill, 2002).

According to Moscatelli (2008), the socialisation of pre-service teachers is considered a vital part of preparing teachers for the teaching profession and takes place during initial teacher education programmes and teaching practice experiences. She argues that while student teachers are attending their university courses, they are being socialised and introduced into their academic discipline they intend to teach (Meyers, 2006). Once university courses are completed, student teachers then proceed to the student teaching experience that is considered an additional form of socialisation into the teaching profession (Johnston and Wetherill, 2002). Student teachers build social relationships with school staff and pupils and improve their teaching skills during this process. Although socialisation can be a positive thing, one of the concerns about teaching practice could be the ‘wash out effect’ i.e. ‘good’ practice student teachers may learn through university might get washed out as they get socialised into the ways schools do things (Lortie, 1975; Zeichner and Listen, 1987). Lortie (1975) and Zeichner and Listen (1987) found that pre-service teachers education washes out during the induction years, and they suggested several factors that impede the development of reflective teaching. Among these factors are reliance on apprenticeship models of teacher preparation and the ideological eclecticism and the structural fragmentation found in many teacher education programmes than and now. Although teacher preparation standards call for a coherent curriculum that tightly couples theory and practice, the conventional wisdom is that theory taught in education schools is disconnected from the reality of the classroom (Lortie, 1975; Zeichner and Listen, 1987). The prevailing belief is that when prospective teachers graduate and go off to their first jobs, the theory quickly washes out. This so-called wash out effect is documented in the teacher research literature (Lortie, 1975; Veenman, 1984; Zeichner and Listen, 1987; Zeichner and Tabachnik, 1981). Student teachers have a mind full of teaching techniques recently embedded from their university coursework, so it should not be a surprise that student teachers would be excited to experiment and implement those practices in a real educational setting (Levin, 2003). In some cases, however, research has noted a
student teacher’s enthusiasm for attempting new techniques and approaches in the real classroom are dampened by the constraints placed upon them by the mentor teacher and being required to follow particular practices that operate in schools (Doppen, 2007; Dunn et al., 2000). This is one situation where conflict between student teachers and mentor teacher can arise. This was the case in this research study. Student teachers were not given the freedom to explore new teaching styles especially in the two incidents when class teachers attended their lessons (Siebert et al., 2006).

After discussing the socialisation process student teachers go through during their initial teacher education and induction year, it is necessary to acquaint ourselves with the developmental stages these student teachers go through during their initial teacher education experience.

### 3.10 Theories of Teacher Development

Extensive research has discussed some of the theories on the process of learning to teach and the changes student teachers go through during the process of learning to become teachers (Fuller, 1969). As this research is associated with the experiences of Libyan student teachers as a function of opportunities to spend a sustained period in schools with specific interests in the perceptions and the learning development process of these student teachers, it is only essential to review the developmental stages student teachers go through during their initial teacher education and theories of teacher development in regards to preservice teachers.

Spalding, Klecka, Lin, Wang and Odell (2011:3) have identified the complexity of learning to teach as ‘a major obstacle to student teacher learning that teacher education programmes must address if they are to be successful’. According to Borko, Whitcomb and Liston (2009:3), learning to teach is indeed a “wicked problem”, not only because student teachers learn to teach by drawing on a complex array of internal and external resources, which are difficult for researchers to disentangle and understand, but also because the process occurs over time and is contextualized, unpredictable, and idiosyncratic’ (Borko, Whitcomb and Liston, 2009:3). Caires and Almeida (2005:111-120) argue that over the last three decades, an emergence of approaches have appeared in the study of the process of becoming a teacher. They claim that these approaches explain the complexities of the process of becoming teachers. This research in hand, is associated with the experiences of Libyan student teachers as a function of opportunities to spend a sustained period in schools, with specific interests in the perceptions and development of these students. Therefore, the main purpose of this section is to review the developmental stages student teachers go through during their initial teacher education.
There are multiple theories in the literature that describe the process of learning to teach and the changes that a teacher experiences during these processes (Fuller, 1969; Fuller and Bown, 1975; Maynard and Furlong, 1995; Burn et al, 2000). One of the most well-known models for pre-service teacher development is that of Fuller (1969) and Fuller and Bown (1975). Fuller (1969) was the first to develop a concerns based model of teacher development. His model suggests that in the course of teaching practice, student teachers progress through three discrete stages of concern. In the first stage, referred to as the 'pre-teaching stage' by Fuller, student teachers worry about their personal adequacy and survival in class. In the second stage, referred to as the 'early teaching stage', student teachers were concerned with the teaching task, in addition to concerns with the support that might or might not be offered in schools and whether they would get along with schoolteachers and faculty, and of course, how they would present themselves as professionals. However, during the third stage of preservice teacher development, student teachers’ concerns tend to shift away from being concerned about self and become more concerned about their pupils and their needs (Fuller 1969; Conway & Clark, 2003). Fuller (1969) highlights that student teachers during this stage are immensely concerned about their ‘abilities to understand pupil’s capacities; specify objectives for them; assess student gains; partial out their contributions to pupil difficulties and gain and to evaluate themselves in terms of pupil gain’ (Fuller, 1969: 222).

In 1975, Fuller and Bown re-examined Fuller’s original model of 1969 and their results revealed that teachers during different stages of their careers focus on certain concerns more than others, and they subsequently developed a four stage developmental model outlining the concerns pre-service teachers experience during the process of learning to teach. According to Fuller and Brown, the first developmental level is the ‘fantasy’ or ‘pre-teaching stage of no concern’, in which pre-service students identify more with the students than they do with the teachers. Pre-service teachers in this stage have had little or no experience in the classroom with actual teaching responsibilities and their major concerns are with non-teaching activities such as to which teacher they are assigned to for their student teaching experience. The second level of concern is the first stage where actual teaching occurs and dominated by anxiety regarding personal adequacy and concern with self. Pre-service teachers in this level are mostly concerned with their own survival in the classroom. The third level, maturity, finds pre-service candidate's concerns turning toward the teaching task, specific situations in the classroom, and his or her ability to perform competently. During the fourth stage, impact, pre-service teachers are finally able to divert their concerns from themselves to the needs of their students. It is during this stage that novices are typically able to attend to student differences (Fuller and Bown, 1975, 38-39). In
view of the context of teacher education in Libya, this study will explore the relevance of the theoretical framework as the Libyan student teachers talk about their student teaching.

Other researchers besides Fuller (1969) and Fuller and Bown (1975) have identified models focusing on pre-service teachers’ developmental stages as well (Maynard and Furlong, 1995; Caruso, 1977; Sacks and Harrington, 1982; Yarger and Mertens, 1980; Burn et al., 2000). Maynard and Furlong (1995) presented their teacher development theory in which they suggest that teachers go through five stages of development during their first years (‘early idealism stage’, ‘survival stage’, ‘recognizing and dealing with difficulties stage’, ‘reaching the plateau stage, and ‘moving on stage’ (Maynard & Furlong, 1995:12–13). During the early idealism stage, teachers tend to identify themselves with their students and reject the ‘image of the older cynical teacher’ (Furlong and Maynard, 1995:74). Student teachers have precise images and beliefs about the type of teacher they wish to be and the type of relationships they wish to develop with their pupils, images of what they would like their classrooms to look like and the atmosphere they would like to create (Furlong and Maynard, 1995). During the survival stage, student teachers are faced with reality of the classroom environment known as ‘reality shock’ (Veenman, 1988) and tend to focus on their personal survival. Once they enter the classroom, they realise that regardless of the amount of training and education they have received at university, teaching is a demanding task. During this stage, student teachers become overwhelmed with the demanding task of teaching and realise that they are unable to manage their classroom and pupils, or follow the progress of each individual student as effectively as they thought they could in the ‘early idealism’ stage (Furlong and Maynard, 1995:76). During the third stage, ‘recognising and dealing with difficulties’, according to Furlong and Maynard (1995) students learned to make personal sense of what was happening in the classroom, identified some of the difficulties they faced and gained some measure of classroom control. They started to recognize that teachers are limited in terms of what they can achieve and what they can change in the system and their classrooms. They are focused on their performance as a teacher. In this stage, the teacher enters a self-doubt stage and wonders if she can make it as a teacher. During the ‘reaching the plateau’ stage, student teachers begin to develop effective coping skills to different situations and find themselves able to manage their classrooms and gain more confidence as teachers (Furlong and Maynard, 1995). Although student teachers begin to establish routines of teaching within their own classrooms, they tend to resist any new approaches and methods and ‘stick with the teaching that worked for them’ (Furlong and Maynard, 1995:89). This suggests that the survival mode still lives within them. They become more concerned about successful classroom management than on student learning. During the last stage ‘moving on’ of Furlong and Maynard’s teacher development theory, student teachers begin to develop as teachers as they shift their concerns from classroom management to
the quality of pupil learning. Student teachers are in need of immense support during this stage in particular. Maynard and Furlong (1995) claim that if student teachers lack support during this stage, they might end up becoming exhausted and break down trying to cope alone.

Along with Fuller (1969), Fuller and Bown (1975), Maynard and Furlong (1995), Schwebel et al. (2002) also gave a description of four stages of development typical in the life of the student teacher and the kinds of concerns, issues and problems they are likely to encounter at each. This is not to say that your experience will follow each stage exactly, or that each will be equally prominent, but you can expect to find at least elements of each stage—perhaps of some than others during your teaching assignment.

Like the pre-service models, stages of in-service teachers all flow through the same hierarchical concepts that move from concrete to abstract, and in the teachers’ development. The stages discussed above are typically relevant to student teachers and it begs the question whether these sequential stages are pertinent to the Libyan experience. Katz’s (1972) study of teacher development, for instance was based on pre-school teachers, but she suggested ‘it could be applied to other teachers’ (Katz, 1975: 53). Katz studied teacher development in order to outline the training needs’ of teachers at different points in their careers (1975:51). She found that there are a minimum of four developmental stages, and that individual teachers spend different amounts of time in each. During the ‘survival stage’ which lasts through the first year of teaching (and this could be of relevance to pre-service, teachers were shocked with what they found in the actual classroom had connection with what they studied during their university courses. Although teachers may feel prepared upon entering the classrooms, teachers actually tend to lose these feelings of preparedness and simply wish to survive in the classroom which Katz describes this wish for survival as a ‘preoccupation’ (1975:50). During Katz’s second stage of teacher development, which takes place through the second year of teaching and continue into the third year, teachers try to make sense of what they gained from the ‘survival stage’. Teachers focus is more on teaching students rather than the subjects they teach. Teachers begin to recognise specific goals for pupils and organise specific tasks and skills on which pupils should work (1975:51). According to Katz (1975), teachers during the ‘renewal stage’ aim at learning new methods of teaching in order to break away from using the same methods. Results from Katz’s study (1975) showed that because teachers felt that their present teaching was not competent or efficient/not skilled, not expert enough they become concerned with new teaching ideas, approaches and new material, even when students were learning well and were quite happy with their teachers’ teaching methods. Teachers felt that it was important to keep up-to-date with the latest teaching methods and material so teachers can refresh and renew their views on teaching. Katz (1975) claims that only some teachers hit the maturity stage within the first 3 years of
teaching however others may take longer in some cases up to 5 years. During this stage teachers have already learned the basics of teaching and had confidence in their teaching. Katz summarizes her theory in saying, "It is useful to think of the growth of pre-school teachers and perhaps other teachers, also as occurring in stages, linked generally to experience gained over time" (1975:53).

Although research has highlighted a number of common features in the development of student teachers over time exemplified by Fuller and Bown’s (1975:45) concern theory claiming that ‘student teachers move from an initial preoccupation with themselves, through a concern with managing the class to an eventual focus on the impact of their actions on pupils’ learning’, and despite some partly supporting his model (Piggie and Marso, 1997), others have expressed their disapproval (Burns et al., 2000). Researchers have expressed little agreement concerning some of Fuller and Bown’s (1975) concern theory’s key assumptions, criticising the theory’s generalisibility, sequence and hierarchy (Kagan, 1992; Conway and Clark, 2003; Conway, 2014). Kagan (1992) cited in Ashby et. al (2008) for instance, reviewed forty research studies on professional growth among pre-service teachers and newly qualified teachers. Findings from Kagan’s research revealed that the majority of pre-service teachers appeared to be mostly concerned with the image of self as teacher at the beginning of their training, however, as their self concerns are resolved, their attention shifts towards concerns about task and the impact of their teaching on students. In recent research, Peters, Cowie, Menter (2017), warn that beginning teachers may not necessarily follow common stages of development. Watzke (2003, 2007) similarly states that ‘teacher concerns may indeed not be universal for all teachers, but rather dependent on the individual teacher’s experiences and surrounding contexts’ (2003:57). Guillaume and Rudney (1993) argue that the many aspects interrelating with the past and present experiences of student teachers may have an influence on student teachers’ concerns and development. Findings from the DEBT project in particular (Burns et al., 2000, 2003, 2015) suggest that both the hierarchy and the sequence of teacher concerns are inaccurate at times. Alternatively, it is proposed that impact, self, task concerns overlap in an uncategorised order (Burns et al., 2000). Findings from the DEBT project also propose that while these concerns might all appear at some point in a student teacher’s learning journey, few student teachers in fact work through them in an ordered sequence. As a result of the findings from the DEBT project, a unique feature of student teachers’ learning ‘was the complexity of their thinking, indicated by the range of issues with which they were grappling at any one point’ (Burn, Hagger, Mtton, Everton, 2000:29). Despite the fact that there was an evident increase in student teachers’ concerns with pupil achievement over time, more than half of their aims were from the initiative, concerns with pupil progress. Rather than assuming that all student teachers go through a series of sequential stages as suggested by Fuller and Bown (1975), Burn et al. (2000, 2003, 2015) proposed that it would be more effective for
mentors to emphasise on two important aspects of beginning teachers' learning; preconceptions student teachers bring with them and their orientations towards learning from experience.

As a reminder, the title of this thesis makes mention of ‘concerns’ of student teachers. Therefore, the researcher felt it necessary to review the literature on student teacher concerns, which now follows.

3.11 Student Teachers’ Concerns during Teaching Practice Experiences

It is considered to be a natural thing during a period of block placement for teaching practice for student teachers to experience a number of worries and concerns (Kyriacou & Stephens, 1999). In an interesting study by Rosalind Mau (1997) in which she examined the concerns of student teachers during their initial school-based training in Singapore. Fuller’s (1985) teacher concern model was used. The study contributed to school-based training by examining the personal, teacher and pupil-needs concerns of student teachers through analyses of two teacher concerns inventories and focus group interviews. One after their first primary school practicum and another after a course on pedagogy and through information from the focus groups with the student teachers. The students were first year students. The results revealed that the main concerns the student teachers in this study had which are maintaining class control, meeting pupils needs and concerns about evaluation. This thesis in hand is in line with Mau’s (1997) study as it has also made use of the teacher concerns model produced by Fuller in 1985. Similarly, Kyriacou & Stephens (1999) explored the concerns of a group of student teachers at the University of York in the UK during a period of school placement for teaching practice. Nine main areas of concerns were identified by the student teachers in the study. They were concerned that they may not be regarded as real teachers by the pupils; making sure they get teaching right; in addition to making sure they get planning of lessons right; dealing with pupils who misbehave; becoming a disciplinarian; concerned about teaching sensitive issues; their ability to cope with a heavy work load; concerned of not having enough preparatory teaching practice; and finally their concern of being assessed. Furthermore, Capel (2001) examined student teachers’ concerns in a cohort of students on a one year secondary PGCE course in England in which she administered a questionnaire at three different points, before they had undertaken any school experience, during their school experience in one school, and then after they had completed all school experiences. Findings of the study revealed that both self and impact concerns were ranked high as a cause of concern during the three administrations of the questionnaire, whereas task concerns were ranked low as causes of concern. Zounhia, Hatziharistos, Emmanouel (2004) and Zounhia & Hatziharistos (2005) also examined student teachers’ concerns during their ITE in Greece. George’s (1978) Teacher Concerns Questionnaire was used as a means of gathering data. The
results revealed similar results to Mau’s (1997) study. Goh & Matthews (2011) investigated 14 Malaysian student teachers’ concerns and experiences during their practicum. Student teachers involved in the study were asked to keep a reflective journal throughout their teaching practice experience in order to voice their teaching concerns & confidence in teaching. Results of the study showed that student teachers identified eighteen main concerns which were then placed into four themes: (a) student learning; classroom management and pupil discipline; (b) institutional and personal adjustment; and (c) classroom teaching.

After reviewing research conducted on student teachers’ concerns during their initial teacher education in various countries around the world such as Singapore, the UK, Greece and Malaysia, it is necessary to argue that to the researcher’s knowledge, no empirical work on the concerns of Libyan student teachers has ever been conducted in Libya or elsewhere, which this research aims to investigate. The researcher feels it is also necessary to review literature on the aspects student teachers bring to their initial teacher education in terms of their preconceptions, expectations and beliefs about the process of learning upon which they are about to embark, which now follows.

3.12 Research on Preconceptions, Expectations & Beliefs of Student Teachers’ during their Initial Teacher Education

Several studies have discussed various aspects of what student teachers in bring to their ITE in terms of their preconceptions, expectations and beliefs about the process of learning upon which they were about to embark. For example, Hobson et. al. (2006) studied student teachers’ preconceptions and concerns about initial teacher preparation in England. Results showed that student teachers found their initial teacher education demanding and required considerable commitment and engagement. Student teachers were concerned during their ITE with their identity and relationships with others. Hobson (2002) found that the majority of student teachers enrolled on four one-year secondary PGCE programmes in England expected to learn more from time spent in schools and with school-based mentors than from time spent in universities and with university tutors. Shulman (1987) cited in Farrel (2008) says that pre-service teachers also come to any teacher education program with prior beliefs. These beliefs have been acquired through various sources including their past experiences as students themselves and may act as filters (Lortie, 1975) to what they have been exposed to in the teacher education programme. Ashby et, al. (2008) note that an understanding of student teachers early perceptions and beliefs may enable teacher educators to offer student teachers more appropriate support and help them to learn and gain more from their initial teacher education programs.
Gowrie & Ramadas (2012), for example, examined the beliefs and expectations of preservice teachers during a teaching practice placement at the University of Trinidad and Tobago in Africa. Findings suggested that some changes occurred in the student teachers’ beliefs and expectations once they started their teacher-training programme. Flores & Day, 2006 cited in Gowrie & Ramadas (2012) studied student teachers’ beliefs and expectations recognized the influences of such beliefs on the ways beginning teachers think about teaching. The research indicated that student teachers’ personal beliefs sometimes come into conflict with the realities of teaching that may lead to a sense of resignation that may shape their teacher identity. Therefore, professional guidance by mentoring teachers is needed in order to expose them to the theoretical and practical aspects of teaching which could play an important part in changing their perspectives about the teaching.

Hagger & McIntyre (2006) cited in Ashby et al (2008) discuss that when student teachers start their training, they are no more empty vessels than are children as they enter classrooms. Several researchers such as Wubbels (1992) and Korthagen et al. (2001) confirm that student teachers’ preconceptions about teaching and student learning can impact on their experience of initial teacher education and their early professional development. Cole & Knowles (1993) state that most student teachers when going into their field work, have hopes, images and expectations that all too often are shattered by exposure to certain realities of schools, classrooms, and teaching. Difficulties often arise and that may result or lead to failure especially when student teachers have images of teachers and teaching and schools and at the end these do not match what they actually encounter referred to as reality shock by (Veenman, 1988). Cole & Knowles (1993) state in their work that those who enter formal teacher education institutions accompany with them perspectives which represent beliefs about teachers’ roles and practices in addition to beliefs about classrooms and schools. Those entering formal preservice preparation programs bring with them beliefs, attitudes, ideals, influences, and expectations developed over years of life experience and exposure to a wide variety of teaching-learning situations and contexts. Preservice teachers’ images are usually images of past experiences or based on memorable individuals (e.g. a teacher) and events (e.g. a school play).

According to Feiman-Nemser, et. al, (1989), they state that student teachers from their years as pupils in elementary and secondary schools, they bring with them many ideas about teaching, learning subject matter, and students. Their learning during teacher preparation is an interaction between the conceptions they bring and the knowledge and experiences they encounter. So, it is the teacher educators’ role to help these student teachers to surface and examine initial beliefs and assumptions so these taken for granted ideas do not affect the student teachers learning during teacher preparation. Seymen (2012) explored the beliefs and expectations of student
teachers in Turkey about their self & role as teacher during teaching practice of student teachers’ role as teacher in their initial teacher education. She claims that there are various ways of improving teacher training process and one of them is identifying the beliefs and expectations of student teachers because ‘there is considerable evidence that the entering beliefs of teacher candidates strongly affect what and how they learn, eventually how they approach teaching in the classroom’ (Calderhead, 1991: 9). Hence, these beliefs before the training process in practicum schools sets the ground for the new knowledge and beliefs and have an influence on the performance of those students during the practice they have (Fischl & Sagy, 2005). In this respect, research dealing with the beliefs about student teachers have been conducted and ‘...qualitative differences in types of teacher beliefs and related the role of each of them to teacher education was somehow ignored in field’ (Zheng, 2009:75). However, five main areas in teachers’ beliefs are defined by Calderhead (1996). These main areas are “...beliefs about learners and learning ; about teaching ; about subject ; about learning to teach ; about self and about teaching role, in which teachers have been found to hold significant beliefs” (Calderhead, 1996 cited in Zheng, 2009, p. 75).

According to Fischl & Sagy (2005) cited in Seymen (2012) there are two elements that might shape the beliefs and images of student teachers. The first one is teachers from the past who are seen as models and the second one is the students’self-images as learners. In agreement with Fischl & Sagy (2005), Choy, Wong, Goh, Low (2014) also state that pre-service teachers bring certain expectations with them to the practicum, partly formed by their prior experiences and observations of teachers, and partly cultivated by their on-campus preparation and certain assumptions about the environment where the practicum takes place.

### 3.13 Student Teachers’ Perceptions and Experiences during Teaching Practice

Tang (2004) explored seven student teachers’ professional learning experiences over two years in school placements in Hong Kong. The results revealed the advantages and strengths of teaching practice and how it had supported student teachers’ learning experiences. Similarly, Mtika (2008) undertook research into student teachers’ experience in Malawi. The study employed perspectives from an ‘activity theory framework which has been used to investigate the area of professional development (Engestrom, 1999). The findings reveal that student teachers valued the teaching practice component and argued that it had made a great impact on the way they perceive teaching. A study by Chow & Fry (1999) explored the perspectives and experiences of pre-service physical education students in which a questionnaire on ‘Teaching Practice
Experiences’ was administered to 120 student teachers in 3 teacher preparation programs within 2 weeks following their teaching practice. The results revealed that although they encountered some difficulties during teaching practice, success was achieved during this learning experience. Caires & Ameida (2005) also investigated 224 pre-service teachers’ experiences and perceptions during their first encounter with the teaching profession in Portugal. They believe that through exploring the needs, concerns, fears, frustrations, and expectations, they can learn more about what happens during the process of learning. The ‘Inventory of Experiences and Perceptions of Teaching Practice (IEPTP) was used in order to assess the range of experiences of the population. This inventory was at two different occasions during the study and the results revealed the significance and impact of TP on the personal and professional development of student teachers.

According to another study by Caires, Almeida & Vieira (2012), the authors’ intention was to build a stronger understanding of the complexity involved in becoming a teacher. They studied 295 student teachers’ feelings, cognitions and perceptions regarding teaching practice. ‘The Inventory of Experiences and Perceptions of Teaching Practice (IETPTP) utilized in Caires’s (2005) study was also used to analyse student teachers’ feelings, cognitions and perceptions regarding TP. The results of the study revealed that some student teachers experienced some difficulties during TP such as stress, vulnerability and sense of weariness, as well as positive perceptions regarding their development process. The results also confirm that several gains and achievements took place during the TP experience.

Slightly closer to the context of this thesis, Hamaidi et al.,’s (2014) study intended to understand the reality of the teaching practice experience from the perspectives of student teachers in Jordan in addition to exploring student teachers challenges during their teaching practice experience. The findings of the study revealed that student teachers involved in the study confirmed negative results as they revealed that they were not provided with an effective teaching practice experience. Smith & Lev-Ari (2005) focused on the importance student teachers attribute to the practical experiences of their teacher education program in Israel. The results confirm that the student teachers valued the practicum highly in addition to the appreciation of the theoretical elements of the initial teacher education program. Schoeman & Mabunda (2012) examined the complexities involved in learning to teach in South Africa. A questionnaire based on the “inventory of experiences and perceptions of teaching practice was used to collect data (Caires & Almeida, 2005).

Research conducted by Kiggundu and Nayimuli (2009) and Perry (2004) on student teachers’ experiences during a teaching practice placement indicated that student teachers’ regarded teaching practice as an essential component of their initial teacher education. Participants indicated that by being present in a school environment, teaching practice enabled them to make
sense of the theoretical knowledge gained through their university programme and apply this knowledge to practice. Results despite the positive experiences during teaching practice, student teachers experienced challenges, which affected their perception of the teaching profession. Ranjan (2013) studied student teachers’ experiences during practice teaching programme. Results indicated that the student teachers indicated that they had benefited from the practice teaching programmes. However, the majority of student teachers felt that in as much as the theory acquired during lectures provided them with enough information on how to teach, it was teaching practice teaching that helped expose them to the experiences of actual teaching. However, practice teaching provides student-teachers with the opportunity to integrate the theory of education in the practice through the first hand experiences of teaching. The findings from the research indicate that student teachers view practice teaching as an important component in their training because it exposed them to the actual teaching and learning environment in which they are enabled to contextualise their theoretical knowledge gained during training.

The remainder of the literature review covers a body of research that at the outset of this thesis was not anticipated but during the process of undertaking this thesis became very apparent and which in time and retrospectively also informed the reflexive chapter (see Chapter Seven). This literature refers to undertaking research in conflict areas around the world encompassing the experiences and challenges of conducting research in such areas, followed by ways of coping with such challenges.

3.14 Research Conducted in Conflict Zones

3.14.1 Why do research in Conflict Settings

Conducting research in areas of conflict and during times of war is not a new topic from the early work of Van Maanen, 1988 and Lee, 1995 to recent work of Ice, Dufour, Stevens, 2015; Skaras, 2016; Bahou, 2016) and many others. An increasing number of researchers are conducting research studies in countries in crisis and experiencing on-going conflicts in which large populations flee these areas to become refugees in neighbouring countries or displaced within their own (Mazurana, Jacobsen, and Gale, 2013; Marais & Meier, 2004; Wood, 2006; Hellmann-Rajanayagam & Korff 2010; Amour 2012; Dixit 2012; Goodhand, 2000; Foncha, Abongdia & Adu, 2015; and Skaras, 2016).

Although countries going through conflict can be characterised by instability and insecurity (Annan, 2014; Ford, Mills, Zachariah and Upshur, 2009), it is necessary to consider conducting research in such settings for several reasons (Wood, 2006). Wood (2006) for instance, emphasised
the importance of conducting research in areas of instability and conflict and encourage researchers to go out in the field and reflect on their experiences and challenges and see the research through to the end. Moreover, Sriram, Lekha, King, Mertus and Martin-Ortega, eds. (2009) spoke about their experiences during field research and how these experiences helped them survive field research working in violent and difficult circumstances. Helbardt, Hellmann-Rajanayagam & Korff (2010), also highly recommend and advocate conducting research in conflict and war zones as they believe that “only making such zones public can shape perceptions, give voice to the voiceless and so prevent these conflicts becoming invisible—war without witness” (p.349). Amour (2012) conducted research in the Middle East which has long been a conflict zone such as the case of the Palestinian-Israeli conflict. He reports and reflects on his experiences in order to propose potential solutions to the problem of on-site research in unstable areas. Furthermore, Ice, Dufour, Stevens (2015) examined the experiences of numerous researchers and students conducting field research and published a book titled “Disasters in field research: preparing for and coping with unexpected events” as a guide to what can go wrong while conducting field work and what you can do to avoid or minimise the impact of unexpected events. Ford, Mills, Zachariah and Upshur (2009) also emphasise the importance of conducting research in areas of conflict. They argue that there is a great need to improve the quality of research methodologies applied in conflict settings through validating survey tools and set down clear protocols, in addition to training in a broader use of research methodologies that can be applied in such settings. This could only happen through extensive research in the field.

Despite the ever increasing body of literature referred to previously regarding the conduct of research in conflict areas, and to the best knowledge of the researcher, no research has been conducted nor published on field research during the conflict in Libya. This thesis might be the first in the field to report on lived experiences of researchers’, student teachers’ and pupils’ in field research during a time of war in Libya. Therefore, in the hope of contributing to further research in conflict areas in different parts of the world, the researcher draws on her experience and the experience of four student teachers during a sustained period of teaching practice (7-weeks) and illustrate their resilience and determination to learn in a war-torn country.

3.14.2 Experiences and Challenges of Conducting Research in Conflict Settings

Undertaking fieldwork within regions experiencing military or armed conflict involves the same challenges as research in stable settings though in a more heightened form (Wood, 2006). These challenges (ethical, methodological, emotional, practical, etc.) cannot only affect the conduct of the research but the researcher and the researched as well. Ice, Dufour and Stevens (2015) for instance, state that such challenges arise from factors unique to the research setting and such
challenges faced by researchers regularly lead to either exciting new experiences or frustrating delays as experienced by the researcher in ‘getting things done’ and regardless as will be evident later in the thesis of how well a researcher plans, there will always be unexpected issues that can affect both the process of data collection and the outcomes of the research. Despite these challenges, there is an increasing body of research being conducted in conflict zones all over the world; for instance, in El Salvador (Wood, 2006); Sri Lanka, Burma and Southern Thailand (Helbardt, Hellmann-Rajanayagam and Korff, 2010); Middle East (Cohen and Arieli, 2011); Middle East (Amour, 2012); India & Sierra Leone (Dixit, 2012); Syria (Hett & Hett, 2013); South Africa (Foncha, Abongdia & Adu, 2015); South Sudan (Skaras, 2016).

Although carrying out research in conflict settings is challenging and demanding (Cohen & Arieli, 2011), researchers are still being encouraged to conduct research in such settings. During the course of field research, they are confronted with numerous challenges such as practical, emotional, ethical, methodological, logistical and security challenges, which were the same challenges faced by the researcher (Wood, 2013; Mazurana, Jacobsen, and Gale, 2013; Thomson, Susan, An Ansoms and Murison, eds. 2013; Haer & IBecher, 2012; Barakat, Chard , Jacoby & Lume 2002; Skaras 2016).

Begley (2009) for instance, reflected on the experiences and challenges that occurred during fieldwork in the border area of Rwanda/Eastern Congo and addressed the impact of these challenges and experiences on the research and the research process as well as the influence they have on researchers. Similarly, Hett & Hett (2013), reflected on the experiences and challenges of two British doctoral students conducting field research in war-torn Syria. These British researchers suggested that researchers are often unprepared for the complexities they may be confronted with in the process of gaining access to settings, participants and collecting data. In the case of this thesis in hand, the researcher was advantaged because of her Libyan background, which meant that she could see things from a different perspective than another national. Wood (2007, 2013) also shared these concerns and added that field research in conflict zones is demanding and challenging for both methodological and ethical reasons and argued that the typical requirements of research such as collecting and analysing the accurate data to are intensified. Sriram, Lekha, King, Mertus and Martin-Ortega, eds. (2009) also spoke about their experiences and how they survived field research working in difficult circumstances.

Despite numerous researchers such as Wood (2006); Sriram, Lekha, King, Mertus and Martin-Ortega, eds. (2009); Skaras (2016); Dixit (2012); Campbell (2008) and other researchers mentioned previously exploring ethical, emotional, practical, methodological, and several other challenges while conducting research in areas of conflict, Thomson, Susan, An Ansoms and
Murison, eds. (2013) claim that literature has rarely shed light on specific challenges such as the emotional and ethical challenges researchers are confronted with before, during and after being in the field. They argue that in order to assess the quality of any research findings and to understand researcher bias in the field, it is necessary to provide researchers with proper attention and preparation. This is entirely significant due to the fact that several war zone researchers are affected by what Wood (2006) calls ‘fieldwork blues’. These so called fieldwork “blues” hit particularly hard in conflict zones where the addition of stress, fear and grief can create difficulty in handling research information and may even lead to misunderstandings and errors in judgement (Wood 2006:384).

3.14.3 Managing a Research Project in Locations of Difficulty & Conflict

Researchers such as (Nilan, 2002; Ford, Mills, Zachariah and Upshur, 2009; Mazurana, Jacobsen, and Gale, 2013), believe that although conducting research in areas of conflict can have its risks and challenges, and can cause inconvenience for both the researcher and participants, it can also provide rich and valuable rich data. Nilan (2002) for instance, conducted a study on how researchers can collect data while being in unstable settings or difficult circumstances in Bali. She argued that despite the evident increase in research, safety training has not yet become a regular part of graduate training in field-work based-disciplines, even though some universities (UK universities under the auspices of the Health and Safety at Work Act of 1974) have put into place standard procedures and policies to evaluate and reduce or limit risks to future researchers. In agreement, Barakat, Chard, Jacoby & Lume (2002) also argue that careful research training and planning is essential when preparing to work in areas of conflict. However, undertaking research in such dangerous settings, has serious consequences for the implementation of the research itself, in addition to the impact of conflict on both the research and participants (Ford, Mills, Zachariah and Upshur, 2009). Ford, Mills, Zachariah and Upshur (2009) argue that the impact of conflict can hinder several parts of a research study. An example can be illustrated in the impact conflict can have on research settings (e.g. schools, universities, etc.). Conflict and violence could cause damage or possibly destruction to the research setting resulting in the evacuation of researchers and the researched upon. For these reasons, Ford, Mills, Zachariah and Upshur (2009) argue that the design and conduct of any research should take into account the type of environment in which the research is conducted.

Recent research has emerged on ways of preparing for and coping with difficult situations in areas affected with conflict. Ice, Dufour and Stevens (2015) discussed the challenges they encountered during a number of field research projects in Kenya, Colombia, Madagascar and Uganda. They described their stories of success, failure, and real disasters and from these experiences,
proposed ways on preparing for and coping with unexpected events while conducting field-work in areas of conflict in their book “Disasters in field research”. This book is used as a guide to what can go wrong while conducting field work and what a researcher can do to avoid or minimise the impact of unexpected events, in addition to addressing the challenges confronting both students and researchers as they undertake field work. Sriram, Lekha, King, Mertus and Martin-Ortega, eds. (2009) also spoke about their experiences and how they survived field research working in violent and difficult situations across the Border of Rwanda and Democratic Republic of Congo. They addressed different challenges of conducting field research in conflict-affected or repressive situations and how they often overcame these challenges.

3.14.4 The Impact of Conflict on Schools, Pupils, Teachers and Researchers

Education and educational institutions are deeply affected by conflict and war in several ways. The devastating consequences of war are so severe that they may result in the displacement of pupils and teachers as well as put children and teachers at risk of injury or death (Bede Sheppard, 2009) such as the case of the Rwandan genocide (Buckland 2005 cited in UNESCO, 2011). Conflict can threaten the safety of schools including teachers and pupils and security while travelling to and from school (Bede Sheppard, 2009) which results into children’s attending school less often, increasing teacher absenteeism, or children completely dropping out because attending school might threaten their lives (Shemyakina 2006 cited in UNESCO, 2011). The UNESCO (2007) report “Education under attack” and Bede Sheppard (2009) highlight the increasing military and political targeting of educational institutions, their students and personnel. An illustration of this could be found in the armed militias destroy and damage school buildings such as the cases of countries of Afghanistan, Iraq, Somalia, Chad, Ethiopia, Zimbabwe, India, Pakistan, Guatemala, and the Democratic republic of Congo (Buckland 2005 cited in UNESCO) and Libya has been added to the list as well from after the 2011 war. A good example of such consequences are illustrated in an excerpt from a research conducted by Erik Van Ommering (2011):

“When we went back to school after the war, all windows were broken. Everyone was afraid [. . .] but the teachers said nothing about it [. . .]” says nine year-old Imad. “Why didn’t your teachers talk about it?” I ask him. “Because then the students would remember [. . .]”

(Elementary School, Beirut, Lebanon, January 2007).

The excerpt illustrates the impact and consequences of the 2006-armed conflict between Israel and Hazbollah on pupils and teachers in elementary schools in Lebanon (Ommering, 2011). The lived experiences of pupils, teachers and researchers in conflict zones have rarely been exposed in the past but recently has become a topic of interest amongst researchers (Ommering, 2011).
Teachers teaching in conflict zones are confronted with unpredictable situations that affect them and their pupils. Burnett & Dorovolomo (2008) for example, indicated in a study conducted in the Solomon Island that although teachers attempted in numerous ways to reassure frightened pupils and tried to maintain a sense of normality, they still continued teaching but under fear for personal safety and the safety of their pupils. This was the case of the student teachers involved in the research in hand. Teachers’ level of fear and worry varied depending on the situation they found themselves in that is, where they were teaching and whether they were of a particular ethnicity. One of the teachers interviewed in the study illustrates her resilience and strength through this particular point:

"Really pretended to the children that everything was OK. But, you know, the children kept telling me, “Teacher, I’m scared”. They were telling me all sorts of things and I said, “No, nothing will happen to us”. I just tried my best to tell them all the good things”.

3.14.5 Impact of Conflict on Researchers

Wood (2006) argues researchers conducting fieldwork in areas of conflict will probably experience intensive emotions during the course of their work, such as anger, grief, fear, outrage, and in some situations pity, usually through observing, or fearing the impact of conflict. Wood argues that without a doubt, field researchers in severe cases may experience ‘secondary trauma’, which is the prolonged effects of observing violations against human rights. In extreme settings, field researchers experience enormous stress when it comes to collecting and securing data since conflict may lead to restricted access to both physical locations and to the different parties involved in the research (Skaras, 2016; Helbardt, Hellmann-Rajanayagam & Korff, 2010). Wood (2006) states that in extreme settings, researchers may find difficulty in engaging in interviews with participants or with those involved in the research. In agreement, Perera (2017) explains that in conflict settings, restricted access to field locations or poor transportation and risk-averse security protocols can certainly limit a researcher’s ability to access information or collect data.

3.15 Researcher’s Role in Conducting Field Research in Conflict Areas

The role of researcher’s conducting studies in areas of conflict has been a significant concern in the methodology literature (Mazurana, Jacobsen and Gale, 2013); Raheim, Magnussen, Tveit Sekse, Lunde, Jacobsen & Blystad, 2016; Karnieli-Miller, Strier, and Pessach, 2009). According to Mazurana, Jacobsen and Gale (2013) contexts going through conflict often deteriorate fast and as a result, researchers are required to be flexible and have the ability to adapt their methodologies according to specific circumstances as experienced by the author of this thesis. They claim that
researchers working in areas of conflict are not only responsible for how they represent themselves in and out of the field, but should also carefully consider how they will represent their research communities, and the research findings. Raheim, Magnussen, Tveit Sekse, Lunde, Jacobsen & Blystad (2016) argue that although researchers’ and participants’ do not have fixed roles, these roles tend to evolve during the research or project. The authors examined the researcher-researched relationship in addition to how researchers often have both insider and outsider roles which “seemed to lead to power relations and researcher vulnerability” (p.1). Recent literature emphasize that qualitative traditions all have “…a common epistemological ground: the researcher determination to minimize the distance and separateness of researcher-participant relationships,” as echoed by Karnieli-Miller, Strier, and Pessach (2009:279). Slim cited in Mazurana, Jacobsen and Gale (2013) argues that research and writing on conflict should encompass real life experiences in order to attract the reader emotionally. Therefore, as a researcher, it is essential to carefully consider how these stories and experiences are told to ensure the safety and well-being of the participants.

In earlier research, Willson (1995) cited in Nilan (2002) describes the shifts researchers may go through during field research and supports his claim with an example of a qualitative research situation where an ethnographer is expected to be ‘simultaneously detached and yet intensely engaged’ (p. 255). Highlighting her experiences of conducting ethnographic research in dangerous and unpredictable fieldwork situations, Nilan (2002) describes how in some situations or incidents in which it was difficult she unintentionally shifted from a position of being an emotionally detached researcher to an emotionally immersed researcher as experienced by the researcher of this thesis. Similarly, in a recent research conducted by Raheim, Magnussen, Tveit Sekse, Lunde, Jacobsen & Blystad (2016) put emphasis on the relationship researchers have with their participants, in addition to the positionality of researchers and shed light on what it means to be an insider or an outsider while conducting fieldwork or while being in the field. The author of this thesis found herself playing the role of both the insider and outsider and was forced to move from one role to another according to the situation. The researcher’s role was intended to be of an observer (outsider), however, due to the absence and lack of cooperation from class teachers within the practicum triad, the researcher found herself unintentionally in a position playing multiple roles, quite similar to a cooperating teachers’ role as well as a supervisor’s role. She was responsible for student teachers participating in the study and accompanied them to the participating school where they were doing their teaching practice. The researcher acknowledges that her positionality may have affected her research, her understanding, interpretation and possibly her research findings/outcomes (Foote and Bartell, 2011), however this was mainly influenced by the research context (Savin-Baden and Howell Major, 2013: 71-73). In order to
reduce bias, the researcher made every attempt at operating as a researcher however there were times where she found herself as an insider unintentionally. She felt that she had to be there for the participants especially when there was a lack of support from school teachers. When there were periods of settlement, the researcher detached herself from the participants and collected her data in this capacity, however, when there were times of unsettlement, the researcher felt that supporting the student teachers who were willing to come to school to assist with her research, was just a natural thing to do during a time of conflict. During these times of unsettlement, the researcher attached herself to the participants and supported them through their experience. The researcher often responded to questions from the target student teachers about ‘how they did’ or ‘what they could have done differently’, ‘what to do in a situation where pupils were misbehaving’ and etc. The researcher at all times answered honestly rather than ignoring the requests from the target student teachers. In the reflexive chapter (see Chapter Seven), the researcher explicitly shows how and where she believes that her positionality had influenced her research through the incidents lived and experienced during fieldwork.

3.16 Resilience & Determination to learn during times of Conflict and War

An increasing body of literature has emerged on resilience in conflict settings (Punamaki, Qouta, & El Sarraj, 2001; Ward, Martin, Theron, & Distiller, 2007; Fernando & Ferrari 2013; Acevedo & Hernandez-Wolfe, 2014; Jordans, Pigott, Wietse A. Tol 2016). Bobek (2002) argues that individuals become resilient when they learn how to cope with negative circumstances from their past experiences and as a result of this adjustment, improve their resilience for dealing with future circumstances. She claims that this resilience affects and shapes one’s perspectives and influences his/her decision-making. Fernando & Ferrari (2013) for instance emphasise the importance of understanding the impact of war and conflict on children as they investigate how children and youth’s demonstrate incredible resilience in the face of conflict. They believe in the need for a multipronged strategy to help children who are caught in the middle of war and violence, a strategy that not only decreases risk factors but also strengthens protective factors that support the physical and psychological wellbeing of children. Similarly, Acevedo & Hernandez-Wolfe (2014) conducted research in Colombia in which they explored teachers’ and children’s resilience in extremely demanding settings. They explored how teachers working with pupils who experienced dislocation are affected by the children’s stories of resilience. Moreover, they examined teachers’ interpretations of pupil’s stories and how these stories have influenced their lives and how such research can help other teachers teaching in similar settings. While children were taught by the target student teachers, they were never interviewed in this thesis. However,
Chapter 3

these pupils’ comments and in-class behaviour may have indirectly given us some sense of how they were coping with the situation in Libya.

This chapter has reviewed the literature on teacher education in general and teaching practice in specific. It began with a review of some of the most significant models of teacher education, theories of teacher development and examined the characteristics of effective teacher education programmes around the world. Later, it examined student teachers’ concerns and experiences during their ITE in addition to the significance of teaching practice on student teachers’ learning development, which are the major focus of this research. It also reviewed the socialisation stages student teachers go through once they enter schools along with student teachers’ preconceptions, expectations and beliefs of their ITE programmes. The remainder of this chapter covered a body of research on undertaking research in conflict areas.
Chapter 4  Research Methodology

4.1 Introduction

"the method chapter of a dissertation describes the exact steps that will be taken to address your hypotheses or research questions... The goal... is to provide a clear and complete description of the specific steps to be followed... in sufficient detail to help a naïve reader to replicate your study" (Rudestam, 2015:87).

This chapter represents the methodology and theoretical framework of the research study commencing with an inclusive description of the study, the setting in which the study was conducted and background of the initial teacher education programme the Libyan student teachers were enrolled. A thorough description of the data collection instruments and procedures are also presented, followed by the data analysis methods. As has been pointed out in previous sections in this thesis, this chapter discusses in some detail how the context in which fieldwork was conducted, affected the fieldwork process and the research as a whole. This chapter concludes with a discussion of the methodological and ethical principles which played key roles in this thesis.

As referred to in previous sections of this research, the main purpose of this study is to examine the concerns, experiences and perceptions of student teachers during a sustained student teaching placement into the final year of a four-year Initial Teacher Education Programme in one university in Libya. This placement involves spending a period of 7 weeks (originally 12-weeks) in a local public school teaching a 40% timetable. This thesis adopted a mixed methods approach using a questionnaire, face-to-face interviews, online and telephone interviewing and observations as means of collecting data from the research participants. Quantitative data was gathered from one cohort of 40 (originally 150) student teachers from the English department using a ‘Teacher’s Concerns Questionnaire’ and then tracked in-depth, four student teachers’ development journey through some school-based teaching opportunities, encompassing their experiences within the school environment, their feelings about teaching practice (TP) and primarily their feelings of preparedness to become teachers. Qualitative data was gathered from four target student teacher participants, who were considered mini-case studies in this research, through interviews conducted prior, during and after observations and student teaching lessons during the teaching practice placement. Fieldwork provided valuable and rich data for analysis. The questionnaire administered at three different occasions was subjected to quantitative analysis procedures (Creswell, 2012) and the interview data was subjected to qualitative analysis.
procedures (Lichtman, 2013). Data collection and analysis were conducted within the pragmatic research framework adopted for this research study. Further details are presented later on in this chapter.

4.2 Philosophical Assumptions of Research

Researchers possess different beliefs and ‘ways of seeing the world and interacting within its surroundings’ (Litchman, 2013:10). Thus, the means in which researchers conduct their studies may differ from one researcher to another. However, there are strict standards and rules that influence the actions of any researcher (Litchman, 2014). These standards are regarded as paradigms. Kuhn, one of the first researchers that contributed to the field of paradigms and the importance associated to paradigms in social and behavioural sciences, states that a paradigm can be regarded as an ‘accepted model of pattern, as an organizing structure, a deeper philosophical position relating to the nature of social phenomena and social structures’ (Kuhn, 1962:23) cited in Feilzer, 2010). Several other researchers have also contributed to the field of paradigms and have given their interpretations of how they view and define a ‘paradigm’. Guba & Lincoln (1994) and Feilzer (2010), for example, view paradigms as a philosophy of life or conception of the world or a belief system that assists & guides researchers. Furthermore, Bryman (2004:453) identifies a paradigm as ‘a cluster of beliefs & dictates which, for scientists in a particular discipline influence what should be studied, how research should be done and how results should be interpreted’.

Denzin & Lincoln (2008:22) describe paradigms as ‘the net that contains the researcher’s epistemological (the relationship of the knower to the known), ontological (nature of reality), and methodological premises may be termed as paradigm...all research is interpretive; it is guided by the researcher’s set of beliefs and feelings about the world and how it should be understood and studied’.

Researchers such as Creswell (2009) emphasizes the importance of questioning the research paradigm applied in conducting research as it substantially influences how a researcher undertakes a study from the way of framing and understanding social phenomena. According to Migiro & Magangni (2011), the paradigm in which a researcher chooses depends entirely on the researcher’s philosophical beliefs (e.g. constructivist, post-positivism or pragmatist), type of knowledge sought (e.g. objective or subjective information or personal experiences) and methods for gathering data to be used to obtain this certain knowledge (e.g. questionnaires and experiments versus open-ended interviews and observations). Following these suggestions, the researcher of this study commences by discussing in detail the research method and paradigm that best fits the study in hand and a justification of why she chose to adopt this paradigm in her research.
4.3 Mixed Methods Research

Creswell (2003) points out that there are three recognised methods for conducting research: quantitative, qualitative and mixed methods. In qualitative research, the researcher mainly collects data in the form of words, which may be either views or opinions on a particular experience for example. Whereas, quantitative research is a type of research in which the researcher decides what to study and what specific questions to ask. This type of research involves collecting numerical data that is subjected to statistical analysis (Creswell, 2012; Litchman, 2013). As for mixed methods research, the researcher combines both elements of qualitative & quantitative methods & techniques into the methodology of a certain study (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 1998). This research has adopted a mixed methods approach. Further details for adopting this approach are discussed in the following section.

Plano Clark & Creswell (2011) argue that it is essential to fully understanding the nature of mixed methods before using mixed methods in any research. Plano Clark and Creswell (2011:256) view mixed methods research as ‘those that include at least one quantitative method designed to collect numbers and one qualitative method designed to collect words, where neither type of method is inherently linked to any particular inquiry paradigm’. Creswell (2014:2) adds that mixed methods research is ‘an approach to research in the social, behavioural, and health sciences in which the investigator gathers both quantitative (closed-ended) and qualitative (open-ended) data, integrates the two, and then draws interpretations based on the combined strengths of both sets of data to understand research problems’. Tashakkori & Teddlie (2003) voices that mixed methods research has increasingly advanced to a stage in which it can have its own identity and be considered as an individual methodological orientation that has its own specific vocabulary & techniques. Similarly, supporting Tashakkori & Teddlie’s claim, Johnson, Onwuegbuzie & Turner (2007) confirm that mixed methods research is becoming significantly attached to research practices and is currently referred to as ‘the third methodological movement’ (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003; Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004) or the ‘third main research approach’, along with qualitative research & quantitative research (Johnson, Onwuegbuzie & Turner, 2007). Creswell (2006, 2007) discusses that mixed methods research is a research design with philosophical assumptions as well as methods of inquiry. Creswell (2006, 2007) points out that as a methodology, mixed methods research involves the philosophical assumptions, analysis of data in addition to merging both qualitative and quantitative approaches during different stages of a research.
4.4 Justification of the use of Mixed Methods

‘Conducting mixed methods involves collecting, analysing, and interpreting quantitative and qualitative data in a single study or in a series of studies that investigate the same underlying phenomenon’ (Leech and Onwuegbuzie, 2009:265).

It is acknowledged that mixed methods has been practised since the early 1950’s and that an increasing number of researchers today identify with the importance of using such a method (Creswell, 2003; Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007; Dunning, Williams, Abonyi & Crooks, 2008; McKim, 2017). Creswell (2011) suggests that when employing mixed methods to a research study, the researcher needs to provide reasons for using such an approach. Mixed methods researchers have identified several reasons for conducting a mixed methods research (Punch, 2006; Creswell et al., 2008). For instance, Creswell (2006) and Creswell & Plano Clark (2007), state that the value of mixed methods research, is combining both quantitative and qualitative methods, with the goal of providing strengths of each methodology and minimising the weaknesses of both research methods on their own (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007; Schulze, 2003; Creswell et. al, 2008; Migiro & Magangi, 2011; Creswell 2006). Some researchers believe that the preferred means of providing accurate interpretation of research data is by using a mixed methods approach in research (Coyle & Williams, 2000; Bryman, 2006; Morse & Chung, 2003; and Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003). The reasons for this according to Creswell (2006) for instance, is that the mixed methods approach promotes the usage of multiple worldviews or paradigms rather than associating each individual method (qualitative & qualitative) to a particular paradigm. Moreover, mixed methods invites researchers to consider paradigms that might embrace both types of research (quantitative and qualitative), such as pragmatism, which is discussed further in the following sections of this chapter.

In the case of the study at hand and as referred to previously, the researcher’s intention is not only to collect qualitative data from interviews, observations, etc., nor the collection of quantitative data through a survey. The intention for this research is to integrate both the quantitative and qualitative data. Hence, the value of both approaches may contribute to understanding the research participant’s concerns and experiences during their initial teacher education than one form of data collection on its own as suggested by (Creswell, 2014). In the case of this study, the researcher surveys a cohort of 40 student teachers at three points during fieldwork, then follows up with an in-depth and intense study of a small sample of volunteers (4 target student teachers). In a situation such as this, the advantages of collecting both quantitative data and qualitative data may prove advantageous to best understand the research problem as mentioned above. It is necessary to mention that the decision to adopt a mixed method approach
was also informed by the potential risks of undertaking fieldwork in Libya where matters are unstable (see Chapter Two). Should travel to Libya be deemed too dangerous or fieldwork interrupted, the researcher deemed it necessary to include an opportunity to collect survey data that could be administered from distance, via email, telephone interactions, social media or through a third party. Please refer to the contingency plans in the appendices for further details on the risks of the fieldwork and planned contingencies (see Appendix M).

4.5 Philosophical Assumptions of Mixed Methods research

According to Teddlie and Tashakkori (2009), the more appropriate paradigm issue often relates to the question of “what philosophical paradigm is the best foundation for a mixed methods research?” Teddlie and Tashakkori (2009) state that the paradigm issue has more than one perspective. One perspective is that mixed methods research uses competing paradigms (i.e. qualitative and quantitative), giving each paradigm equal existence and value (Greene and Caracelli, 2003). Such perspective allows the researcher to determine the appropriate paradigm to use. Although, both qualitative and quantitative philosophies have contributed to the development of mixed methods research, pragmatism has been considered a significant philosophical foundation for justifying the combining of more than one method within one single study (Tashkkkori & Teddlie, 1998; Maxcy, 2003; Johnson, Onwuegbuzie, Turner, 2007; Migiro & Magangi, 2011). Many mixed methods writers (Tashkkkori & Teddlie, 1998; 2009; Maxcy, 2003; Johnson, Onwuegbuzie, Turner, 2007; Migiro & Magangi, 2011; Ihuah & Eaton, 2013; Creswell, 2009; Feilzer 2010) believe that pragmatism is the most appropriate philosophical basis and most useful paradigm for mixed methods research in addition to having to ability to bridge between methodology and paradigms (Greene and Caracelli, 2003). The authors (Tashkkkori & Teddlie, 1998; Maxcy, 2003; Johnson, Onwuegbuzie, Turner, 2007; Migiro & Magangi, 2011) agree that pragmatism is a well-developed philosophy for integrating approaches and can be used in a single study.

4.6 Justifying the Why and How Pragmatism—Mixed Method—Paradigm Fits this Research Study

Cohen, Manion, and Morrison (2011:26) report that pragmatism suggests that:

‘what works to answer the research questions is the most useful approach to investigation, be it a combination of experiments, case studies, surveys or whatever, as such combinations enhance the quality of the research’
As referred to in the previous section, mixed methods approaches, work beyond quantitative and qualitative and in a ‘pragmatist paradigm’ (Onwuegbuzie and Leech, 2005; Johnson et al., 2007; Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2009). As the main concern of this research in hand is to examine student teachers’ concerns and experiences during a teaching practice placement, the philosophical perspective adopted by the researcher and this research is that of a pragmatic approach. The rationale behind the choice of approach is the research questions, where the use of either quantitative or qualitative approaches does not completely address the research problem, whilst a combination of approaches does (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011; Saunders et al., 2009). Saunders et al (2009) state that the pragmatic approach is a better process to answering “what”, “why”, and “how” research questions which is, the case of this study. The pragmatic research philosophy provides for the adoption of mixed methods as the data collection method, which opens the opportunity to be objective and subjective in analysing the points of view of the research participants (Saunders et al., 2009). Feilzer (2010) states that pragmatism brushes aside the quantitative/qualitative divide and ends the paradigm war by suggesting that the most important question is whether the research has helped “to find out what the researcher wants to know” (Hanson, 2008:109). Moreover, Pragmatism offers an alternative worldview to those of positivism/post-positivism and constructivism and focuses on the problem researched and the consequences of the research (Brewer & Hunter, 1989; Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007; Miller, 2006; Tashakkori & Teddlie, 1998). In pursuit of the same argument regarding the logic use of pragmatism, Creswell & Plano Clark (2007:27) also state that pragmatism ‘allows the researcher, to be free of mental and practical constraints imposed by the forced choice dichotomy between post-positivism and constructivism’. In other words, researchers do not have to be ‘the prisoner of a particular research method or technique’ (Robson, 1993:291). The researcher’s intention in this study was not just to collect qualitative data from interviews, observations, nor solely the collection of quantitative data through a survey, the intention for this research was to integrate both quantitative and qualitative data. Hence, the value of both approaches may contribute to understanding the research participant’s concerns and experiences during their initial teacher education than one form of data collection on its own as suggested by Creswell (2014). In the case of this study, the researcher surveys a cohort of 40 student teachers at three points during fieldwork, then follows up with an in-depth and intense study of a small sample of volunteers (4 target student teachers). In a situation such as this, the advantages of collecting both quantitative data and qualitative data may prove advantageous to best understand the research problem as mentioned above. It is necessary to mention that the decision to adopt a mixed method approach was also informed by the potential risks of undertaking fieldwork in Libya where matters are unstable (see Chapter Two). Should travel to Libya be deemed too dangerous or fieldwork interrupted, the researcher deemed it necessary to include an opportunity to collect survey data.
that could be administered from distance, via email, telephone interactions, social media or through a third party.

It is necessary to argue that although both qualitative and quantitative philosophies have contributed to the development of mixed methods research, pragmatism has been considered a significant philosophical foundation for justifying the combining of more than one method within one single study (Tashkkori & Teddlie, 1998; Maxcy, 2003; Johnson, Onwuegbuzie, Turner, 2007; Migiro & Magangi, 2011). Many mixed methods writers (Tashkkori & Teddlie, 1998; 2009; Maxcy, 2003; Johnson, Onwuegbuzie, Turner, 2007; Migiro & Magangi, 2011; Ihuah & Eaton, 2013; Creswell, 2009; Feilzer 2010) believe that pragmatism is the most appropriate philosophical basis and most useful paradigm for mixed methods research in addition to having to ability to bridge between methodology and paradigms (Greene and Caracelli, 2003). The authors (Tashkkori & Teddlie, 1998; Maxcy, 2003; Johnson, Onwuegbuzie, Turner, 2007; Migiro & Magangi, 2011) agree that pragmatism is a well-developed philosophy for integrating approaches and can be used in a single study. From this, the researcher can argue that the main reason behind the choice of the pragmatic approach is the research questions, where the use of either quantitative or qualitative approaches does not completely address the research problem, whilst a combination of approaches does (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011; Sauders et al., 2009). Due to the fact that the research questions were mainly ‘what’, ‘how’ questions, the pragmatic approach is found to be better at answering these types of questions (Saunders et al. 2009). It provides for the adoption of mixed methods as the data collection method as mentioned previously, which opens the opportunity to be objective and subjective in analysing the points of view of the research participants (Saunders et al., 2009). By adopting and applying the pragmatism approach, the researcher was not forced to be a ‘prisoner of a particular research method or technique’ (Robson, 1993:291) in fact she was free to choose the methods, techniques and procedures that best met the purpose and need of the research (Cherryholmes, 1992; Murphy, 1990). She was able to use multiple methods of data collection (interviews, questionnaires and the spontaneous comments made by the student teacher participants) to best answer the research questions interviews (Feilzer, 2010), in addition to the different analytical instruments that the pragmatic approach allows to use such as the NVIVO and SPSS computer packages for qualitative and quantitative information analyses (Ihuah and Eaton, 2013) and focus on the practical implications of the research.
4.7 Setting of the Research Study: Azzawia University, Faculty of Education

This particular university was chosen for the study due to their positive interest in the topic and full cooperation and commitment towards the researcher and research (see Chapter One, rationale of study for more details). It is also necessary to point out that the researcher is a lecturer at the very same university and teaches English in the Faculty of Humanities, rather than the Faculty of Education. The researcher’s position and close relationships with other university lecturers and colleagues made obtaining access to the participants much easier and straightforward.

4.8 Organisation of the Teacher Education Programme at Azzawia University

Prior to re-developing the final semester of year 4 at the target university, the teacher education programme at the university included two major components: formal coursework and teaching practice as previously referred to in Chapter Two of this thesis. The formal coursework comprised the vast majority of the credits earned in the programme. Student teachers attended regularly scheduled classes and learned about their academic discipline, foundations of education, and curriculum and instruction. The academic discipline refers to the subject that student teachers intend to teach. In the case of the participants in the study in hand, the subject they will be teaching is English. The other courses consisted of philosophy, psychology, and sociology as these disciplines apply to education. The inclusion of educational foundation courses in the programme are based on the premise that teachers have to know and appreciate past events, develop a philosophy that guides their actions and understand how their pupils learn or fail to learn. The courses in curriculum and instruction focus on the aims of education, the structure of knowledge, means by which the knowledge to be learned has to be sequenced and integrated, ways of assessing learning, and methods or strategies that could be used to transmit knowledge and facilitate learning.

4.9 Organisation of Teaching Practice at Azzawia University

As discussed in Chapter Two of this thesis, teacher education in Libya has been struggling for several years now and TE institutions and in particular, teachers, have been criticized for the way they prepare student teachers for teaching and have been blamed for pupils’ underachievement as well (Suwaed, 2014; Suwaed and Rahouma, 2015; Batimal, 2012). In Libya, student teachers
spend the majority of their initial teacher education programme on theoretical courses at universities and are provided with little opportunities to spend a sustained time in schools where they can make sense of theory learned in class (Cohen, Hoz & Kaplan, 2013). The researcher is a university tutor at the same target university and is well aware of how university tutors are burdened with the amount of theory to cover in the teaching practice syllabus. As a consequence of this burden, some university tutors unintentionally neglect the most important aspect of teacher education, which is actual teaching in schools (Ong’ondo & Jwan, 2009; Tang 2004; Zhang & Cheng 2011; Smith & Ulvik, 2011; Percara, 2013; Kiggundu & Nayimuli, 2009; Ranjan, 2013; Mok, 2010). The extent of school-based experience offered is currently minimal (2 days a week). Specifically, in the College of Education, student teachers are taken to primary or secondary schools to observe occasional lessons and later assist classroom teachers with handing out homework or activity sheets. Little or no actual team or independent teaching occurs. This initial position served as the starting point for consulting the literature on student teaching and teacher education programming in order to develop a sustained and progressive period of time in schools that would conclude with English student teachers having opportunity to independently teach classes for an extensive period of time. A description of this element of the teacher education degree is presented later in the chapter with due consideration to the literature which was reviewed in the previous chapter.

4.10 Description of Semester Outline

4.10.1 Stage 1: Pilot Study

Teijlingen, Edwin & Vanora (2001) define pilot studies as mini versions of a full-scale study, as well as the pre-testing of certain research instruments such as interview schedules or surveys. Similarly, Polit, Beck, & Hungler (2001:467) note that a pilot study can be used as a ‘small scale version or trial run in preparation for a major study’. Pilot studies are considered to be an essential element of a good study design and as Simon (2011) notes that one of the advantages of conducting a pilot study is that it has the potential of giving advance warnings regarding potential weaknesses in a proposed study. These include where research instruments might not be followed accurately or whether proposed methods or instruments are inappropriate for the study. Although a pilot study may not guarantee success in the main study, it may increase the likelihood. Therefore, it can be noted that the main purpose of a pilot study is to provide information which can contribute to the success of a research study (Teijlingen, Edwin and Vanora, 2001).
It is necessary to point out that in the case of this study, the researcher’s initial plan was to conduct all pilot work in Libya, however, due to the delay in being granted full ERGO approval (see Appendix R for ERGO approval), and the on-going instability in Libya, (see Chapter Two) departure to Libya was delayed. As a consequence of this delay the researcher was unable to observe classes in schools or universities as there were no classes running due to final examinations. Had the researcher’s ERGO application been approved a month earlier, in addition to the conditions in Libya, the researcher could have conducted her pilot study, which would have involved visiting schools and classrooms and observing teachers teaching lessons in Libya itself.

Regarding the observation protocols, the rationale behind the observations was to pilot three different and existing observation protocols to record field notes about the teacher and classroom activities. The rationale for piloting the three observation protocols was to gain valuable experience of observation, see what was manageable, and to obtain as much information as possible on what the observation process involves especially as this would be the researcher’s first attempt in observing another teacher’s class. Although the researcher was not able to observe teachers teaching in Libya, she was fortunate to have the opportunity to ask two university tutors to kindly go through the observation protocols and give their professional opinions on the suitability of these. Both university tutors were happy with the protocols however pointed out that one of them had too many items to focus on while observing a lesson. The researcher took their advice into account at the time when deciding which observation protocol was considered the better option. As mentioned previously, although the researcher was not able to observe classes and teachers teaching in Libya, she discussed with her supervisor the possibility of seeking permission from the Libyan school in London to pilot the three observation schedules. The rationale for observing teachers teaching in the Libyan school in London was in fact that all teachers and students were Libyans and that the location was not too far from Southampton where the researcher lived. The majority of teachers were either postgraduate students who had years of teaching experience or those who had residency in the UK and were also qualified teachers. The Libyan school has strict criteria for those who seek to teach at the school. They only accept teachers who are certified and those who have experience in teaching all different types of subjects. Limited by the experience of teachers, it was more of an exercise to observe closely rather than what I am learning from the teachers. Another reason for seeking this school, was, that the curriculum was identical to that used in Libya and the timetable for examinations was also the same.

The researcher was granted permission and was able to conduct several observations in the Libyan school in London using the three previously validated observation protocols in November 2014. During the first visit different lessons were observed using each instrument. Following the
first visit, the researcher discussed the fieldnotes with her supervisor and indicated which she believed was more appropriate to her study purpose. The researcher returned to the London School and carried out a further day of observations using the instrument that would ultimately be employed in Libya. The outcomes of observing teachers in the Libyan school in London and the feedback given by the schoolteachers in London, allowed the researcher to make the necessary minor adjustments needed and to identify the observation schedule that was more appropriate for the researcher.

The second part of the piloting procedure that should have taken place while the researcher was in Libya, would have involved interviewing student teachers and classroom teachers (new and experienced teachers) and asking them questions about teaching in general and questions on teacher training. The researcher would have used the interview questions that were intended to be used in the main study however, she was not unable to do so. The duration of the interviews would have been approximately forty-five minutes. Due to final examinations in schools and universities in Libya, most teachers had busy invigilation timetables. The two university tutors who volunteered to go through the observation protocols, also volunteered to help with the interview schedules. The researcher invited them to look through the interview schedule and provide suggestions and recommendations or suggest any additional questions they thought would be appropriate to ask the participants given the purpose of the thesis. Upon the researcher’s return to the UK, she also invited the Libyan schoolteachers at the Libyan school in London in December 2014, to look through the interview schedules and provide feedback. The researcher showed them the same interview schedule shown to the two university tutors in Libya. The main aim of piloting the interview questions was to get a sense of their suitability, which as a result helped the researcher rephrase and modify some interview questions with the hope of obtaining richer data during the field-work. Pilot interviews were carried out with two university tutors and the goal was to ensure that the questions from their experience were appropriate for the student teachers. The university tutors pointed out that for some interview questions they felt students would have difficulty understanding and they suggested a change of wording of some questions. Such questions were: “Tell me some of the resources, be they tangible or psychological, that you need to successfully carry out learning to teach during teaching practice?”. They also suggested the researcher rephrase some questions... Questions such as: “What do you consider to be the attributes of an effective teacher?”. All obtained feedback was taken into consideration and the interview schedule was then divided into three separate interview schedules (before, during, after) the Teaching Practice experience. The school-teachers in the Libyan school in London also offered general feedback such as the interview schedules were in their view long and the time allocated for the interview in their opinion was not enough.
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The third part of the pilot study procedure was to pilot the survey. Although the researcher decided to use a validated questionnaire, she felt the need to pilot it with a similar group to the research participants to identify any possible vagueness or unambiguity in the questionnaire. While the researcher was in Libya, she was able to speak to a limited number of university students who were present at university to look through the survey. The reason for this was to see whether these university students had difficulty in understanding and answering the survey questions and if there were any terms they were not familiar with. The researcher also gave a copy of the questionnaire to the two university tutors who volunteered to help with the interview schedule. Feedback sought was helpful, however, by this questionnaire being a validated questionnaire by George (1978), changing any item or word was deemed unacceptable. However, clarifying words that might be confusing to students by referring to them at the bottom of the questionnaire was necessary according to the university tutors’ suggestions and feedback. The words the tutors pointed out might be vague to some of the students were: “adequate” in ‘Feeling more adequate as a teacher’ in the self-concerns scale; another word was “intellectual” in “Guiding students towards intellectual and emotional growth” in the impact-concerns scale. The following changes were made to the TCQ used in the fieldwork study (see Appendix A).

4.10.2 Stage 2: Administration of Teacher Concerns Questionnaire (TCQ)

4.10.2.1 The Teacher Concerns Questionnaire (TCQ)

As mentioned in several sections of this research, the main aim of this study is to investigate how student teachers perceive and experience their student teaching and what their concerns, opinions and views are towards their Initial Teacher Preparation. In order to achieve this aim, the researcher distributed a previously validated questionnaire known as the Teacher Concerns Questionnaire (TCQ) (George, 1978) to the entire population of 4th year students, 40 student teachers (originally 150 student teachers) before, during and after the teaching practice placement. The researcher was not able to administer the first questionnaire in person because she was not able to travel to Libya due to safety concerns; however, a third party distributed and collected the questionnaires. The researcher was present to administer and collect the second and third questionnaire. Due to the on-going conflict, the researcher administered the questionnaire to whoever was available at the time of fieldwork, which meant that the samples were not always the same in each administration. This instrument was selected for two main reasons. The first was, the researcher not only intends to learn about the concerns and experiences of the target students during teaching practice, yet is interested in learning about the concerns and experiences of the entire cohort of fourth year students during their initial teacher education. The original intention was for the researcher to administer the questionnaire to the
same sample of university students in order to see whether their concerns changed over the course of time. However, due to the on-going conflict, the second and third questionnaire was administered to whoever was available at the time of fieldwork. Second, it is necessary to remind the readers that undertaking fieldwork in a context that is potentially unstable carries a degree of risk. The plan for this thesis is for the researcher to spend some three months in Libya to conduct fieldwork. To counteract to travel and unexpected events that prevent data collection in schools, the researcher decided to have a survey element built in that would enable the researcher to collect data at three different times during ITE from distance and electronically. Further details on the TCQ are discussed in the ‘Questionnaire’ section in this chapter.

In the previous sections, the researcher had discussed the first and second stage of this research study. The third and final stage, which is, ‘fieldwork’ is discussed in specific details in the following sections.

4.10.3 Stage 3: Fieldwork

Fieldwork was conducted over a period of 7 weeks (originally planned for 12 weeks), between March and May 2015. Fieldwork was undertaken across two different sites, the university and one public school. Due to unexpected conditions, the researcher was required to conduct her fieldwork within a limited period of time and had to plan things carefully in order to ensure all of the necessary data were collected within the allotted time (for the research plan see Appendix M and Table 4-1 below). The researcher also had to revert to her contingency plan, which she and her supervisor had agreed upon had things not gone as planned. Although fieldwork was completed within a period of 7 weeks, it was anticipated that the negotiation of the interviews and classroom observations with the participants would go beyond that period. The original plan was to track the four target student teachers into their first teaching post; however, due to the aftermath of the conflict, student teachers were unable able to seek teaching posts at schools due to the delays in processing their paperwork. As a consequence, of student teachers not being able to secure teaching posts, the researcher was not able to gather data to answer the final research question until almost a year after student teachers completed their teaching practice experience. This data was gathered via telephone and online interviewing. Further details are discussed in the following sections. An illustration of the contingency plan used in the research is illustrated in the table below.
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Table 4-1: Contingency Plan for Phases of Teaching Practice Experience

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Week</th>
<th>Sunday</th>
<th>Monday</th>
<th>Tuesday</th>
<th>Wednesday</th>
<th>Thursday</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Week 1</td>
<td>Observing</td>
<td>Observing</td>
<td>Observing</td>
<td>Observing</td>
<td>Observing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Co-teaching</td>
<td>Co-teaching</td>
<td>Co-teaching</td>
<td>Co-teaching</td>
<td>Co-teaching</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Week 2</td>
<td>Observing</td>
<td>Observing</td>
<td>Observing</td>
<td>Observing</td>
<td>Observing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Co-teaching</td>
<td>Co-teaching</td>
<td>Co-teaching</td>
<td>Co-teaching</td>
<td>Co-teaching</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Week 3</td>
<td>Solo-teaching</td>
<td>Solo-teaching</td>
<td>Solo-teaching</td>
<td>Solo-teaching</td>
<td>Solo-teaching</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Week 4</td>
<td>Solo-teaching</td>
<td>Solo-teaching</td>
<td>Solo-teaching</td>
<td>Solo-teaching</td>
<td>Solo-teaching</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Week 5</td>
<td>Solo-teaching</td>
<td>Solo-teaching</td>
<td>Solo-teaching</td>
<td>Solo-teaching</td>
<td>Solo-teaching</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Week 6</td>
<td>Solo-teaching</td>
<td>Solo-teaching</td>
<td>Solo-teaching</td>
<td>Solo-teaching</td>
<td>Solo-teaching</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Week 7</td>
<td>Solo-teaching</td>
<td>Solo-teaching</td>
<td>Solo-teaching</td>
<td>Solo-teaching</td>
<td>Solo-teaching</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As illustrated in the table above, the teaching practice placement involved student teachers spending an unsustained period of time teaching in schools. The reason why the researcher describes it as an ‘unsustained’ period is due to the delays that occurred during fieldwork (conflict, school closure, road blocks, etc.) which led to many interruptions in the teaching practice placement. Student teachers spent the first two weeks observing class teachers teach in addition to co-teaching. In the Co-Teaching Stage in this research study, the classroom teacher and student teacher should have shared the planning, organization, and delivery of instruction as well as the physical space (Heck & Bacharach, 2010). Unfortunately, that was not the case in this study. Class teachers declined participation, did not want to be involved, and engaged in any aspect of the student teachers learning. Class teachers felt student teachers were invading their privacy and their presence in the school was disruptive to their timetables and timelines. The only source student teachers could go to for assistance was the researcher or the university supervisor. The university supervisor stepped in at times to assist them; however, the researcher was mostly providing them with modelling, coaching and feedback as they taught their lessons as suggested by Heck & Bacharach (2010). The researcher who should have been playing the role of the researcher, found herself providing models of good teaching and working collaboratively with the student teachers, helping them understand the complexities of the teaching profession. After two
weeks of observing and co-teaching, student teachers were about to embark on independent teaching where they were fully responsible for the classroom and teaching of lessons.

In the solo-teaching teaching stage, student teachers were given full responsibility of the classrooms and were planning the lessons on their own. The researcher met with the student teachers before they taught classes with advice from the researcher and university tutor to ask what they had planned for the lesson. After this brief meeting, the student teacher and researcher entered the classroom before the students arrived. The researcher who was meant to be a passive participant where she will be observing the student teacher while she teaches and taking notes along the way, became an active participant and took the role of the cooperating teacher. The researcher observed the student teachers using the observation protocol the researcher developed. The researcher observed student teachers twice per day three times per week during the 6 weeks of solo-teaching that would be a total of 36 lessons taught during the ‘Teaching Practice’ placement as shown previously in the example of the student teachers’ timetables. The number of lessons varied from student teacher to another due to the circumstances discussed earlier in this research.

Although fieldwork was completed within a period of 7 weeks, it was anticipated that the negotiation of the interviews and classroom observations with the participants would go beyond that period. Therefore, follow-up interviews were conducted almost a year after the research participants graduated and began teaching in schools.

4.10.3.1 Criteria for Sampling

‘in order to address a research question or hypothesis, the researcher decides which people and research sites can best provide information, puts a sampling procedure in place, and determines the number of individuals that will be needed to provide data’. (Creswell, 2006:112)

Sampling is a process of choosing a group of individuals, events or behaviour to conduct research on (Burns and Grove 2003:31). According to Hammersley and Atkinson, 1995 cited in Ritchie and Lewis, 2003), sampling is necessary in research due to the fact that researchers are unable to observe and record everything that goes on in the setting. Rudestam (2007) argues that the issue of sampling is a complex one. Rudestam (2007) explains that quantitative studies generally rely on random or representative sampling to generalize findings from the sample to the population. The qualitative researcher is ‘more apt to elect purposive or theoretical sampling to increase the scope or range of data exposed (random or representative sampling is likely to suppress more deviant cases) as well as to uncover the full array of multiple perspectives’ (Lincoln & Guba,
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1985:40). Creswell (2006) suggests that when conducting qualitative research, researchers should select a small number of individuals that could provide them with in-depth information on each person or site instead of selecting large numbers of people or sites. These individuals can later represent a population so that the results can easily be generalised to other individuals (Creswell, 2006).

Because this research study used a mixed methods approach, the researcher sought various mixed methods sampling approaches to consider for this study. Teddlie & Tashakkori (2009) cited in Cohen, Manion, and Morrison (2011), draw on the work of Teddlie and Yu (2007). They argue that ‘it is common for a mixed methods research to use more than one kind of sample (probability, non-probability) and to use samples of, different sizes, scope and types (cases: people; materials: written, oral observational; other elements in social situations: locations, times, events, etc.) within the same piece of research’ (p.180-181). Teddlie and Yu (2007) explain that ‘even though mixed methods may be used in a piece of research, this is not to rule out the fact that, in some research, the numerical approach may predominate whilst in other mixed methods approaches qualitative data may be predominate’ (p.85). In the case of this research, qualitative data is predominate, therefore, sampling was purposive and non-probable. Purposive sampling is an approach in which participants or settings are selected based on certain criteria (Mason, 2002; Patton, 2002). Patton (2002) explains that, through purposive sampling, a researcher can obtain greater depth of information from a smaller number of participants whom are carefully selected based on a certain criteria, whereas in the case of probability sampling, a researcher obtains greater breadth of information from a larger number of participants whom were selected to be representative of the population (Patton, 2002). The main participants in this research were selected through purposive sampling from Year 4 student teachers enrolled on the teacher education programme and have covered the theoretical aspect of their teaching practice course at university (see section 4.10.3.2 for the sampling procedure).

4.10.3.2 Sampling Procedure

Sampling of the participants was done as follows. The researcher sought the assistance of the Head of the English Department and university tutors from Azzawia University to identify potential participants. The researcher was introduced to an entire cohort of student teachers in their final year at university. The research study was explained to them thoroughly and they were invited to take part in the research, which would involve either completing a questionnaire at three different occasions and/or being a participant in the school-based placement experience. The entire cohort were informed that in order for them to participate in the study, they had to meet certain criteria. They would have to be committed to the research study one hundred
percent, in addition to being geographically close to and therefore having access to and from the participating school. The researcher’s rationale for using a certain criteria was that it would have been unpractical to use the whole population to conduct an in-depth study into student teachers’ concerns and experiences during a teaching practice placement since the process would take up a lot of effort and time plus data can be collected more quickly if the sample was smaller (Lohr, 2010).

Many in the cohort were interested in taking part in the research, however, only a sample of four student teachers were selected purposively according to a certain criteria to be involved in this study and were regarded as the target population. More details are explained in the following section.

4.10.3.3 Participants

In the case of this research study, participation was purely voluntary and the sampling of the participants was completed as follows. The researcher sought the assistance of the Head of the English Department and university tutors from Azzawia University in Libya to identify potential participants. The researcher was introduced to an entire cohort of student teachers in their final year at university. These student teachers were fourth year students who were studying on a four-year education programme at Azzawia University in Libya. All participants were majoring in English language teaching, meaning they belonged to the same “subculture” of teachers of English. The researcher’s rationale for purposefully selecting these participants was based on the following characteristics. The whole cohort of student teachers were all in their final year at university and had no previous teaching experience in schools, thus creating an opportunity to examine their concerns and perceptions of teaching (through a Teacher Concern Questionnaire which is further discussed in following sections) before exposing them to actual teaching in schools. A further reason for selecting 4th year trainees was due to the fact that they would have completed about 80% of the BA in ELT studies including a theoretical course in teaching practice, so would be in a position to provide the researcher with some insight into their experiences of the course to date.

The research study was explained thoroughly to the potential participants and they were invited to take part in the research, which would involve completing a questionnaire at three different occasions, being observed, teaching pupils, and taking part in interviews. The cohort was informed that in order for them to participate in the study, they had to meet certain criteria of a more practical nature. They would have to be committed to the research study, in addition to being geographically close and therefore having access to and from the participating school. The researcher’s rationale for using certain criteria was that it would have been impractical to use the
whole population to conduct an in-depth study into student teachers’ concerns and experiences during a teaching practice placement. Many of the cohort were interested in taking part in the research, however, only a sample of four student teachers were selected purposively according to a certain criteria to be involved in this study and were regarded as the target population. The researcher was of the view that such a number was manageable given the investment of time, which would need to be made for data collection and was guided by the work of Lohr (2010). However, due to a miscommunication between the researcher and the university tutor responsible for the four participants chosen for the teaching practice experience. These participants were no longer going to be involved in the research. Fortunately and with the help of the Head of the English Department, the researcher was introduced to another university tutor whom introduced her to another group of 4th year students he was responsible for during teaching practice. The researcher repeated the explanation of the study, what participation would involve and criteria for selection. The researcher explained what the research would involve and chose four other participants who met the criteria. These were the four target students that were involved in the teaching practice placement.

Despite this, the sample size can be considered relatively small compared to a larger scale studies of concerns (e.g. Capel, 2000). Although in Capel’s study, unlike this thesis, student teachers were not observed teaching in schools. Four student teachers was considered a reasonable number of participants to manage considering the exceptional conditions in which field work was conducted and the extent of data that would be collected. Although the researcher encountered some challenges when interviewing, observing and monitoring the progress of all four target student teachers, but managed to collect as much data as possible to help answer the research questions. It is accepted that the size of the samples of participants was small and may reveal some limitations on the possibility of generalising the findings of the study to a larger population.

### 4.10.3.3.1 Target Student Teachers’ Profiles

The researcher deemed it necessary to introduce and include a brief description of the four target student teachers involved in the research study. The researcher assumes by this, the reader can become more acquainted with them before reading about their experiences during TP in the coming chapters. All four participants were given pseudonyms to protect their identities.

#### 4.10.3.3.1.1 Case Study One: Seham

Seham comes from a city called Fazan located in the Southern part of Libya. She moved to the city of Azzawia after their hometown was affected during the 2011 war. Most people from this city
have a dark skin and the majority of male locals were members in the Libyan Army. During the war, these army soldiers fought alongside the Gaddafi regime and were either executed or jailed after Gaddafi was murdered. Seham’s brother died during the war in a horrific accident and left behind a one-year-old infant, which Seham then took full responsibility of at a very young age. The aftermath of the war not only took a toll on Seham, but her mother as well. Her mother was so affected by the death of her son, that she developed diabetes that affected her eye-sight and health in general. Her mother’s illness added to Seham’s already heavy responsibility of taking care of her niece as she became the sole provider for her family.

When the researcher met Seham, she was in her twenties. She seemed to be very quiet yet extremely wise. She had a strong personality and was very passionate about teaching. During fieldwork, she showed a lot of confidence in herself as a person and as a teacher. When she enrolled in the Teacher Education programme at university, she was unsatisfied with the way university tutors taught her. She complained that there was too much of theory given to them in a short space of time, which made their coursework unbearable. It was evident from the beginning she was committed to the Teaching Practice programme and was a strong advocate for research that could contribute to the improvement of the Libyan Education System. She was also committed to break the cycle and teach in more creative and effective way.

4.10.3.3.1.2 Case Study Two: Hala

Hala is in her twenties and comes from the city of Azzawia, the target city in which the research was conducted. Hala has a great sense of confidence which sometimes comes across as controlling. She comes from a family of educators who have truly influenced her into getting into the teaching profession. She always expressed her passion for teaching and that she would never imagine herself in any other career. She has a great desire to make teaching more joyful for pupils and is interested in having a good relationship with her pupils when she becomes a teacher.

4.10.3.3.1.3 Case Study Three: Zara

Zara is also in her twenties and has lived in the city of Azzawia her entire life. She has a good sense of humour and was fun to be around. She comes from a family with a teaching background. Some are English teachers and others were Science and Maths teachers. Her decision to teach was influenced by her family. Zara was very passionate about teaching and was determined to make a difference in the Libyan education system as she was disappointed with the old traditional methods of teaching used by most teachers. She was determined to challenge herself and break the cycle and incorporate new methods of teaching when she one day becomes a teacher.
4.10.3.3.1.4  Case Study Four: Khola

Khola is in her twenties. She is very friendly and has a bubbly sense of humour. Despite her circumstances, she willingly chose to participate in the research study. Khola lived in a city called Warshafana, where she grew up and where all her close and distant family members live. Due to the conflict in Libya, the city of Warshfana had been under siege for more than three years. During times of heavy fighting, whenever Khola and her family had the opportunity to flee the city of Warshafana, they would stay with family members in the city of Azzawia. However, there were times, when they were forced to remain in their hometown as during times of battle would prove dangerous. This conflict between her hometown and neighbouring cities caused considerable physical, emotional and psychological problems for the people of this city. Khola’s everyday life was both a struggle and a challenge. She was torn between her self-safety and her passion to go to university and learn. Despite all the challenges she had gone through, Khola had a constant smile on her face no matter what life brought her way. She was always positive and considered to be the ‘fun’ teacher among pupils. She remained the most humble and optimistic of all target student teachers. In spite of everything, Khola was a great example to other students who had to live daily with conflict.

After giving a brief summary of the target student teachers, the researcher moves on to discuss her role and the role of others in this research study.

4.11  Researcher’s Role in the Study

Bailey (2006) suggests that because teaching practice is considered to be an essential element of many teacher preparation programmes for teachers, pre-service teachers should be provided with guided practice in the process of learning how to teach. She argues that in teacher training programs, pre-service teachers are placed with expert teachers but are also observed by a university or institute supervisor. The main participants in a traditional teaching practice context of a teacher-training programme are the student teacher, the classroom-based cooperating teacher and the university-based supervisor as shown in Figure 4.1.
In the case of this study, student teachers were the only participants present in the teaching practice triad. The researcher’s role was intended to be of an observer (outsider), however, due to the absence and lack of cooperation from class teachers within the practicum triad, the researcher found herself unintentionally in a position playing multiple roles, quite similar to a cooperating teachers’ role as well as a supervisor’s role. She was responsible for student teachers participating in the study and accompanied them to the participating school where they were completing the teaching practice. Foote and Bartell (2011:46) stated:

“the positionality that researchers bring to their work, and the personal experiences through which positionality is shaped, may influence what researchers may bring to research encounters, their choice of processes, and their interpretation of outcomes”

From this, researcher positionality can impact on all aspects and stages of the research process (Foote and Bartell, 2011). The researcher acknowledges that her positionality might have affected her research, her understanding, interpretation and possibly her research findings/outcomes (Foote and Bartell, 2011), however this was mainly influenced by the ‘research context’ (Savin-Baden and Howell Major, 2013: 71). In order to reduce bias, the researcher made every attempt at operating as a researcher however there were times where she found herself as an insider unintentionally. She felt she had to be present for the participants especially when there was a lack of support from school teachers. When there were periods of settlement, the researcher detached herself from the participants and collected her data as normal, however, when there were times of unsettlement, the researcher felt that supporting the student teachers
who were willing to come to school to assist with her research, was just a natural thing to do during a time of conflict. During these times of unsettlement, the researcher attached herself to the participants and supported them through their experience. The researcher often responded to questions from the target student teachers about ‘how they did’ or ‘what they could have done differently’, ‘what to do in a situation where pupils were misbehaving’ and etc. The researcher at all times answered honestly rather than ignoring the requests from the target student teachers.

In the reflexive chapter (see Chapter Seven), the researcher explicitly shows how and where she believes that her positionality had influenced her research through the incidents lived and experienced during fieldwork.

4.12 The Role of the Class Teachers

Being mentored by an experienced teacher is central to most the development of pre-service teachers. It has also been demonstrated to assist with the socialisation of teachers into the school culture, enhance their self-confidence and sense of belonging (Anthony, Haig, and Kane 2011 cited in Kane & Francis 2013). This was not the case in the research in hand. Although the school agreed to take in student teachers, schoolteachers declined participation in the teaching practice placement. The researcher assumes their reasons have to do with an overloaded timetable or perhaps just a lack of interest.

4.13 The Role of The University-based Supervisor

Recent research has found the university supervisors play a valuable role during teaching practice (Burns, Jacobs & Yendol-Hoppey, 2016; Bates, Drits, & Ramirez, 2011) because they are in a position to help student teachers make sense of the theory learned during university courses and incorporate that theory to practice. The university supervisor was very cooperative and assisted the researcher in every way possible. He was very attentive to his students (student teachers) and made efforts to attend all the student teachers lessons, however, there were days when he was unable to attend and asked the researcher to assess the student teachers on his behalf, which was not merely part of her mission. The university supervisor was interviewed (informal conversation via online interviewing) after the teaching practice placement was completed. The interview schedule and responses can be found in (Appendix Q).
4.14 Approaches to Collecting Data

According to Kumar (1996), there are two major approaches when gathering information about a person, situation, problem or phenomenon. These approaches are primary and secondary data. The researcher gathered both primary and secondary data for her research. She used interviews, observations, a questionnaire and generated data from field notes gathered during observations. More details on the justification for the use of these data collection methods and how they were employed in the research study, are presented in the upcoming sections of this chapter. However, in the following section, the researcher provides a detailed description of the developed semester outline for the research study in addition to discussing each method of data collection used from the point of view of its applicability and suitability to the study.

For the purpose of this study, the researcher used the following methods to collect data for the research:

a) Interviews with student teachers
b) Observations of lessons
c) Collection of written material (field notes from observations)
d) Questionnaire (Teacher Concerns Questionnaire (TCQ), George, 1978)
e) Online Interviewing with student teachers
f) Informal conversation with university supervisor via online interviewing
g) Informal conversation with a high school colleague (school teacher at the teaching practice school)

4.14.1 Interviews

Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2011:409) define the interview as a:

‘Flexible tool for data collection, enabling multi-sensory channels to be used: verbal, non-verbal, spoken and heard’.

Many researchers consider interviews to be a common means of collecting qualitative data in research studies (Atkins & Wallace, 2012; Drever, 1995; Burns, 1999; Kumar, 1996; Boudah, 2011). Kvale (1996:14) for instance, views interviews as ‘... an interchange of views between two or more people on a topic of mutual interest, sees the centrality of human interaction for knowledge production, and emphasizes the social situatedness of research data’. In other words,
interviewing is a way of collecting data as well as gaining knowledge from individuals about a particular topic of interest. Interviews allow researchers to engage with their participants individually face to face in a way that questionnaires or focus groups do not (Burns, 1999; Kumar, 1996). Richards & Farrell (2011) & Boudah (2011) state that an interview is an opportunity for researchers to obtain information about beliefs, perspectives, and views from participants. The authors previously mentioned, have pointed out to the fact that when there is an interest in gaining insight into the opinions, feelings, and experiences of participants in a particular situation, the method that would be most appropriate to use would be ‘interviewing’. Taking these suggestions into consideration, the decision to use interviewing in the researcher’s study was based on the fact that she is interested in gaining insight into the concerns, feelings and experiences of student teachers during their teaching practice experience.

Lichtman (2013) provides a brief overview of different types of interviewing. She explains that each interview is designed to provide researchers with the entire story from the participants’ point of view. The first type of interview she discusses is ‘individual interviewing’. This type of interview allows researchers to engage in a conversation with their participants. The interview format can be from highly structured to one with little or no structure at all. Burns (1999) proposes three types of individual interviewing; structured interview, guided (semi-structured) interview & the in-depth interview. He emphasizes that for each of these different types of interviews, it is useful to record the interview responses. The researcher intends to audio record all the interviews she conducts as audio recording has the advantage of capturing verbal responses and allows the interviewer to participate in a more spontaneous way. The researcher will also be taking notes while audio recording the interview. The second type of interviewing according to Lichtman (2013) is ‘focus group interviewing’ discussed in the previous section. Whereas, the third type of interviewing is ‘online interviewing’. These types of interviews can be from informal chat rooms, Skype to organized and planned email interviews with a single individual. According to Litchman (2013), the purpose of such type of interview is similar to other forms of interviewing, it gathers information from participants about a particular topic the researcher is interested in. Lichtman (2013) argues that today online interviewing has grown tremendously fast and has become very popular among researchers. However, Litchman (2013: 213) states that ‘there are issues and challenges with online interviewing…there are both technological and substantive issues connected with online interviewing’. In view of the setting for this research, online interviewing by email/Skype is deemed part of contingency plans. As mentioned above, Burns (1999) proposed three types of individual interviewing. One type of individual interviewing is the structured interview. Lichtman (2013), Kumar (1996) & Burns (1999), note that interviewers who use structured interviews in their studies, use a set of pre-
determined short and clear questions. Burns (1999) goes on to add that structured interviews represent a relatively closed interview, therefore, there may be limited opportunity to probe more deeply into the participants views or beliefs. Lichtman (2013), Kumar (1996) & Burns (1999) all agree that this type of interviewing is easy to conduct and is carefully read from a prepared schedule. Given the researcher wishes to probe responses from participants in Libya regarding student teaching, structured interviews were not deemed appropriate.

Another type of individual interviewing, is the **semi structured or the guided interview**. Researchers using this type of interview are involved in developing a general set of questions and format that the interviewer follows and uses with all participants. Although the general structure of the interview for all the interviewees is the same, the interviewer can use prompts or cues to encourage the interviewee to consider the question further especially if the interviewee has difficulty in answering the questions or provides only a short answer (Hancock, Ockleford & Windridge, 2009). Litchman (2013) finds that some researchers may not be interested in this type of format as they may feel uncomfortable with not having a clear set of guidelines to follow. Since the primary aim of the study is to examine the experiences and perceptions of student teachers during their initial teacher education, the researcher has chosen to conduct semi-structured interviews in her study because according to Drever (1995), semi structured interviews can explore in some depth student teachers experiences, concerns, and expectations of their teaching practice experience.

The third type of interview that Lichtman (2013) refers to is the **in-depth interview** also referred to as the **unstructured interviewing**. Kumar (1996) says that in an unstructured interview, the interviewer develops a framework called an ‘interview guide’ within which to conduct the interview. Kumar notes that within this structure, the interviewer prepares questions spontaneously during the process of interviewing. Some interviewers might find using this type of interview challenging but others favour it as the interviewer has the freedom to prepare questions according to the flow of the interview.

In the case of this study, **semi-structured interviews** were used because they can provide indepth information needed to answer the research questions as suggested by Crewell (2000). In this type of interview, the interviewer has some freedom of choice on the order in which questions are asked, however, the interview questions are standardised and probes are used to guarantee the interviewer covers all the material (Harrell and Bradley 2009). In structured interviews, on the other hand, interview questions tend to be fixed and are asked in a particular order (Harrell and Bradley, 2009). This means that all research participants are given the same questions in one specific order. Unlike unstructured interviews, in structured interview, if participants are unable
to comprehend a question, the interviewer is unable to help them aside from probably repeating the question (Harrell and Bradley 2009). In the case of this study, semi-structured interviews were conducted at three different occasions before, during and after teaching practice. The researcher used a conversational style which allowed the student teachers to not only respond to her questions but also provide the scope for them to express their own concerns and issues.

4.14.1.1 Validity and Reliability in Interviews

Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2011) claim that presumptions regarding validity in interviews are often made on the grounds of face validity (Cannel and Kahn, 1968), which means, researchers need to ensure that the proposed interview questions measure what they are meant to measure. One of the most common causes of invalidity, is bias. Lansing et al., (1961:57) described bias as ‘a systematic or persistent tendency to make errors in the same direction, that is, to overstate or understate the ‘true value’ of an attribute’. One way to reduce bias in interviews is to carefully formulate the questions so that there is no ambiguity (Silverman, 1993). Silverman (1993) argues that it is deemed necessary that all interviewees understand the questions in the same way. In regards to reliability of interviews, Silverman (1993) suggests that it is necessary to pilot the interview schedules before they are used in the actual research. In the case of this study, the researcher maintained validity by piloting the interview schedule allowed the researcher to make the adjustments needed to the interview schedule before conducting the actual interviews with the research participants. In regards to interviewing reliability, Creswell (2009:153) claims that interviewing reliability is "elusive" and he adds that; ...no study reports actual reliability data". Therefore, the researcher in this study followed the specific techniques suggested by Creswell (2009) to help maintain the reliability and validity of interviewing. The researcher avoided asking leading questions, took notes during interviews (did not only rely on the audio recordings), conducted a pilot interview as referred to earlier in this chapter, and provided the target student teachers with the opportunity to clarify the accuracy of points made during interviews.

In the case of this study, the researcher piloted the interview schedule during her pilot study in Libya and here in the UK (see Appendix N). Piloting the interview schedule allowed the researcher to make the adjustments needed to the interview schedule before conducting the actual interviews with the research participants.

After discussing the interview method as a means of data collection in some detail, in addition to the validity and reliability of the interview, the researcher discusses the interview procedures taken in this study.
4.14.1.2 Negotiating Access

In order to obtain access to the research participants and invite them to take part in the study, the researcher made a verbal request to obtain permission to conduct the study from the Head of the English Department at the Faculty of Education in Azzawia University. Upon obtaining permission from the head of the department, the researcher then requested permission to access the student teachers from the university tutors who were teaching the theoretical course of teaching practice. Once the researcher was given access to the student teachers, she introduced herself first, then explained what the researcher involved and then invited them to participate.

In regards to conducting interviews with student teachers, the researcher once again explained the purposes of the research to the participants and made clear the uses to which the research will be put and to provide the necessary assurances of confidentiality. She also explained to the student teachers how long the interview lasts and provided a copy of the interview schedule to them in order to reduce any anxiety and so there would be no surprises. She also sought their approval to audiotape and record the interviews for research purposes and assured that these recordings would only be used for research purposes as suggested by Rudestam (2007). The researcher made sure that the student teachers were comfortable with the setting in which the interviews took place and if changes needed to be made.

4.14.1.3 Interview Procedures

All interviews were conducted either on the participating school premises or the university premises in an office or an empty classroom which was provided by both the school and the university authorities. The interviews were all audio-recorded with the participants’ consent. The researcher started off the interview by briefly explaining the purpose of the interview which is to learn about their concerns and perceptions of TP, in addition to emphasizing the confidentiality and the voluntary nature of the study. The researcher then provided the interviewee with a consent form, which was signed off, by both the interviewee and the researcher. A sample of this consent form can be found in the appendices (see Appendix R). With the participant’s permission, the researcher asked the participants if they preferred the interview to be carried out in English or Arabic. The majority decided to be interviewed in Arabic as they claimed it was much easier for them to respond in Arabic and it was easier for them to use more expressive words that they do not know in English. The advantage of this was clear that the researcher was able to obtain much more information and details from the participants, however the downside was that the researcher had to translate the interviews from Arabic to English before transcribing them. With regards to translation, what was challenging was to translate some Arabic quotes from the transcripts of the interviews into English without losing the essence and context of the views.
expressed by the participants. My translation was not done on a word-to-word basis, but in the context of the meaning expressed by the participants. Nevertheless, for the interviews that were conducted in English, the researcher tried most of the time to keep them exactly as they were recorded, she did not attempt to correct the language in order to preserve originality of the recording. The pre-observation interview protocol can be found in Appendix D.

Interviews were recorded using a digital audio recorder, transcribed and then analysed. The researcher also found it necessary to make notes after each interview in order to record additional information (student teachers’ feelings, behaviours, reactions, etc.) in the form of field notes. These notes were then made use of during the writing up phase. Each participant was interviewed according to how many lessons they taught during teaching practice. The researcher first conducted a 1-hour pre-observation in-depth interview with the participants in order to establish a profile of their educational background, reasons for becoming a teacher, experience of teaching, and general views about teaching and their teacher education course. A copy of this interview schedule can be found in the appendices (see Appendix D). The post-observation interviews took half an hour and they involved questions based on the classroom observation data (see Appendix E). Here, participants were presented with key episodes from their observation lessons and prompted to comment and reflect on these. Both the pre-observation and post-observation interview scripts were given to the participants to approve. The researcher continuously reassured the participants that her intention was not to assess their performance (although they asked her to assess their performance), but to obtain information in regards to theory and practice on the teacher education course. The pre-observation and post were conducted over a number of sessions according to how many lessons the participants taught. Some were able to teach more lessons than others were. The maximum number of lessons taught were 8 independent lessons and the minimum number of lessons taught, was 1 independent lesson. Seham, for instance taught 6 co-teaching lessons and 8 independent. Zara on the other hand, taught 6 co-teaching and 6 independent. Hala taught 5 co-teaching lessons and 5 independent teaching, whereas Khola only taught 2 co-teaching lessons and 1 independent lesson. Further details on the number of lessons taught by each student teacher were referred to in the ‘Fieldwork’ section of this chapter. The reason behind this, was due to the on-going conflict which affected their access to and from the teaching practice school. Another issue that affected the interview stage, was the noise and distraction of the conflict outside the school walls. This problem was never solved as the conflict continued all through fieldwork and after. Further details on this can be found in the Discussion Chapter.

Once fieldwork was completed, and upon the researcher’s return to the UK, interviews were translated and transcribed in full, TCQ responses were examined and field notes were reported.
After a full examination of the data gathered during fieldwork, the researcher contacted the participants via email with follow-up questions based on what had emerged from the interview transcripts and the classroom observations.

After discussing the interview method and its procedure, the researcher moves on to discuss the second method used in her study, ‘observations’.

4.14.2 Observations

‘Observation is a highly flexible form of data collection that can enable the researcher to have access to interactions in a social context and to yield systematic records of these in many forms and contexts, to complement other kinds of data.’ (Simpson and Tuson, 2003: 17).

Marshall (2006) states that observation entails the systematic noting and recording of events, behaviours, and artefacts (objects) in the social setting chosen for study’ (p.98). According to Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2011), observations is a widely used means of data collection and it takes many forms. Observation is more than just looking, it is in fact looking (often systematically) and noting systematically people, events, behaviours, settings artefacts, routines and so on (Marshall and Rossmann, 1995; Simpson and Tuson, 2003:2). According to Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2011), as with other forms of data collection, it is essential that researchers ensure that the observational data collected actually helps in answering the research questions. Bailey (2006) argues that being in the classroom with student teachers is a primary means by which supervisors or in my case, the researcher can gather information related to the research question. Student teachers in this research were asked to comment on the session, identify what went well, and reflect upon what went less well. These strategies and techniques were adopted from Pelletier (2000). The researcher met with the student teachers for a post-observation meeting which should be right after the observation or teaching trial to reflect on their teaching. Sheal (1989) cited in Bailey (2006:87), claims that some ‘observations are often unsystematic and subjective, because some administrators and teachers generally have not been trained in observation or the use of systematic observation tools’ and that is definitely the case in Libya. It is essential to point out that the schoolteachers that were intended to be involved in the research, have not been given any training on how to observe or on how to use a systematic observation systems. Their role in the research was to give formal comments and advice to the student teachers for each lesson taught. According to Bailey (2006), teacher supervisors or mentor teachers have recorded information obtained from observing lessons manually for many years either by using open-ended note taking to generate field notes or by using an observation system. Nowadays, easy access to
Chapter 4

electronic recording devices such as tape recorders or other developed audio recording devices has made observing much easier and more interesting. Bailey presents an illustration (Figure 4-2) below on the various options for collecting data during classroom observations.

![Figure 4-2: Options for collecting data during classroom observations (Bailey, 2006:95)](image)

For all lessons that the target students were able to teach, the researcher collected observational data manually through the use of observation schedules and through field notes as recommended by (Bailey, 2006). Further details are discussed in the following sections.

The next section provides the reader with details on the procedures the researcher followed during the observation of student teachers’ lessons.

**4.14.2.1 Validity and Reliability in Observations**

In accordance with other studies that have examined student teachers’ experiences during their initial teacher education and the use of on observation as a means of collecting data, Mtika (2008:123) argues that: 'observation is more than just looking at the individual being observed, it is in fact looking and noting systematically people, events, behaviours, routines and so on'. The rationale for choosing observations was to examine student teachers' behaviours inside a classroom and describe the lessons throughout the teaching practice placement. Given that a focus of this thesis was on teacher concerns, particular incidents such as clinching their teeth, facial expression, tone of voice or sweating might suggest that student teachers are anxious about something. One incident, the researcher recalls, occurred while Khola was teaching a class unprepared. Pupils acknowledged her unpreparedness from the very beginning of
the lesson and they saw that as an excuse to act up. Incidents such as dropping her book while reaching for her bag, her phone ringing in the middle of the lesson, caused pupils to erupt in laughter. She attempted to discipline them, however, she was mainly focused on repeatedly wiping the sweat off her forehead and hands, which might suggest some nervousness and anxiety as she had entered class without being prepared.

In order to reduce bias and ensure validity and reliability in observations, the researcher, first piloted three validated observation protocols in the Libyan school in London as she sought permission to observe qualified Libyan teachers teaching in November 2014. More details on the outcomes of observing in the Libyan school in London, can be found in the appendices (see Appendix N). The researcher then sought the opinions of two experienced university tutors in Libya to evaluate the three protocols and suggest which protocol would be more suitable to use from their years of teaching experience in a classroom. It was necessary to make sure which of the three observation schedules would be more suitable and measure what they were meant to measure. Their suggestions were taken into consideration and partially influenced the decision on which observation protocol to use during fieldwork.

4.14.2.2 Procedures of Observations

Observation, as another means of data collection used in this second stage of the study, were conducted over a period of seven weeks. A researcher’s role in classroom is usually only intended to be that of a passive participant or non-participant observer (Marshall, 2006) in which the researcher does not actively participate in classroom interactions and play any role other than an observer. The observations conducted on student teachers’ teaching were not aimed at highlighting student teachers’ concerns but were aimed at viewing their behaviours and progress of learning how to teach during their teaching practice placement. Through their behaviour and learning progress of learning how to teach, the researcher was able to learn what goes on in their minds in regards to pupil behaviour and maintaining classroom control, diagnosing pupil learning problems and other concerns. The teacher concerns questionnaire on the other hand, was helpful in learning about student teachers’ concerns during teaching practice. The researcher chose to use unstructured observations because it allowed her to record as much as possible during each lesson. This not only included specific behaviour referred to previously, but the context and surroundings of the behaviour. They allowed the researcher to view holistically the teaching conducted without being tied down to observation of specific skills such as questioning techniques such as in structured observations as suggested by Marshall (2006) and Creswell (2006). The observation protocol used in this research was a validated observation protocol adopted from the ‘Handbook of Techniques and Strategies for Coaching Student Teachers’ by
Chapter 4

Carol Marra Pelletier (2000). This was a handbook the researcher came across while doing her research.

Lynch (1996:123) argues that ‘it may...be impossible for the participants to avoid seeing the observation as an intrusion on their classroom, even though they will usually, with time, become used to the observer’s presence’. Therefore, before and after observations, the researcher emphasised once again that the purpose of the observations was not to assess them, rather it was to collect data on their experiences of teaching. The researcher felt it was necessary to remind the student teachers in order to make them more comfortable and to not be nervous due to her presence in their classes. After each observation as mentioned earlier, the researcher interviewed the student teachers and discussed what was observed. This gave the researcher the opportunity to learn about what the student teachers were concerned about during their lessons in addition to clarifying anything that was not clear. It also represented a means of validating information that the researcher had collected during the observations.

As mentioned previously, the original plan for the student teachers was to be involved in a 12-week Teaching practice placement. This placement involved student teachers spending 2 days at university and 3 days in schools observing, microteaching, co-teaching, and solo-teaching on their own. In the first 4 weeks, they were to spend two weeks observing (3 days in schools observing 2 classes each day = 12 classes all together). Before each observation, student teachers were to meet with the researcher for a ‘pre-observation meeting’ where they discuss for approximately 10-15 minutes what they intend to teach in that lesson and what they hope to achieve. The researcher was to take notes during these meetings and the data collected through these field notes could in turn help close any gaps that might be found in the use of any other data collection methods. Student teachers were then to meet up with the researcher for a ‘post-observation meeting’ which would take place after lesson observations usually on the same day. The purpose of the meeting was to discuss the lesson performance and reflect upon the intended plan of teaching and learning. For an illustration of the timetable for student teachers’ (see Appendix Q).

The contingency plan used in this study however, was similar to the original plan, with some alterations in the timetable, activities and lessons observed. In regards to observations of lessons, the researcher observed the four target student teachers across an unsustained period of 7-weeks using an observation schedule (recently piloted) put together for the purpose of this research. This observation schedule can be found in the Appendices (see Appendix K). The researcher showed the student teachers the observation form beforehand in order to familiarize them with its categories as using a familiar observation system seems to lower anxiety as stated by Bailey (2006). Unstructured forms of observations also referred to as ‘Naturalistic observations’, were
conducted after the pre-observation interviews referred to in previous sections. This type of observation was used due to the fact that it allowed the researcher to record everything during the student teachers’ lessons in their natural setting (Bailey, 2006). All observations were conducted on school premises inside classrooms. The number of observations varied according to the number of lessons taught by each participant. The intention was for the four target student teachers to be observed the same number of times, however due to the difficult conditions referred to in previous sections, some student teachers were unable to attend school and teach lessons. All lessons were taught across a 5-day week (Sunday-Thursday) and each lesson lasted 45 minutes. A total of approximately 30 hours of observing taught lessons occurred across the 7-week period. A total of 38 lessons of co-teaching and independent teaching were observed. The number of co-teaching lessons observed were 19 and the number of independent teaching were 19. In summary, the number of lessons taught by Seham were (6 co-teaching and 8 independent teaching), whereas for Zara, the number of lessons taught were (6 co-teaching and 5 independent teaching). Hala taught a number of 10 lessons all together (5 co-teaching and 5 independent teaching), however, Khola on the other hand, taught only a limited number of lessons, 3 in total (2 co-teaching and 1 independent teaching). Individual timetables for student teachers can be found in appendices (see Appendix O) and further details on student teachers’ taught lessons are discussed in the Discussion Chapter, Chapter 7. However, a summary of these teaching opportunities for the target student teachers is illustrated in the Table 4-1 below.
### Chapter 4

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**Chapter 4**

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**101**
Table 4-2: Summary of Teaching Opportunities for Target Students (17th March-5th May 2015)

After discussing in some detail the types of interviews and observations used in this thesis, the following section explains the use of field notes taken during the teaching practice experience.

4.14.2.3 Written Material

4.14.2.3.1 Field Notes

Burns (1999:87) states that field notes are ‘descriptions and accounts of events in the research context which are written in a relatively factual and objective style. They usually include reports of non-verbal information, physical settings, group structures and records of conversations and interactions between participants’. These are the very characteristics of the intended study in Libya. Bailey (2006) proposes that there are situations where field notes are more advantageous than other data gathering methods. She argues that when for example a supervisor (the researcher in my case) wants to focus on something specific that is not covered in an observation form or instrument, or when video or audio recording equipment is not appropriate or when video or audio recording would be too intrusive or when recording equipment is not available, field notes would be quite valuable in situations such as these. She concludes by saying that field notes provide ‘a human, interpretive dimension to observational data’ (Bailey, 2001:118), which is often missing from audio and video recording systems.

The researcher took brief notes while audio recording interviews in addition to taking notes during lesson observations. The researcher created written material in the form of field notes that she were produced while observing student teachers teaching in schools. These field notes provided the researcher with insights into her thinking and reactions to what she is studying and its effect on her and her student teachers.
4.14.2.3.1.1 Field notes gathered from Observations

Wallace (1998) states that in many professions, it is essential to make 'field-notes' while actually engaging in professional action. Bailey (2006:100) adds that ‘it is highly desirable to make field notes to accompany audio or video recordings, since both those approaches have limitations too’. In the researchers’ case, notes were made both during and after lesson observations. These notes were used to generate data. The researcher then interpreted and analysed these notes. These notes were also taken during the pre- and post-observation meetings.

According to Merriam (1998), during observations process, the researcher records all the information. This written account of the observation constitutes field notes. Therefore, a researcher/observer should attempt to write down their observations either during or soon after the end of the class, i.e. the sooner the better. The researchers had better “take extensive field notes during and after the observation sessions” (Johnson & Turner 2003:313). The inquirers should prepare an appropriate form and put the information in it.

4.14.3 Questionnaires

The fourth data collection method used in this research study was the questionnaire, the Teacher Concerns Questionnaire (TCQ). Questionnaires are without doubt one of the primary sources of obtaining data in any research endeavour (Zohrabi, 2013). Kumar (1996) refers to a questionnaire as a written list of questions that participants interpret and then write down answers to these questions. He points out that the only difference between an interview and a questionnaire, is that in an interview, the interviewer asks the questions and explains them if necessary and records the participants’ replies on an interview schedule. In a questionnaire on the other hand, there is no one to explain the meaning of questions to the participants. Therefore, it is important that questions are clear and easy to understand and the sequence of the questions should be easy to follow. Having said that or by this, However, the critical point is that when designing or developing or choosing a questionnaire, the researcher should ensure that it is ‘valid, reliable and unambiguous’ (Richards & Schmidt, 2002:438).

4.14.3.1 Validity and Reliability of the Questionnaire

Coady (2010:108) states that:

‘For questionnaires to be viable they must produce results which are both valid and reliable’ (p.108).
Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2011) and Parahoo (1997) argue that the validity of a questionnaire is the extent to which it addresses the research questions, objectives or hypothesis set by the researcher. By this, when assessing the validity of a questionnaire, researchers must ask themselves, whether the questionnaire intended to be used in the study answers the research questions. In addition to whether the questionnaire adequately reflects the varying aspects of the concepts or issues being studied. In regards to the reliability of a questionnaire, however refers to the consistency with which the respondents understand and respond to all the questions posed (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2011). When assessing the reliability of a questionnaire, it is essential to know whether all the respondents interpret the instructions given by the researcher in the same way or does each respondent interpret the questions and instructions differently. Moreover, do all the respondents understand the questions clearly or are the questions vague or ambiguous? Does each respondent respond to the questions in the same way each time they are presented to them? It is important to note that a questionnaire can be reliable without being valid, but it cannot be valid without being reliable (De Vaus, 2002:52). According to Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2011), one central issue in considering the reliability and validity of questionnaire surveys is that of sampling. A small sample one can easily distort the data, and prohibit statistical analysis (Morrison, 1993).

For the research in hand, although the questionnaire chosen to be used in this research is a validated questionnaire (TCQ, Fuller) used by several researchers to examine the concerns of student teachers during their teacher education (see coming sections for details), the researcher piloted the questionnaire to further ensure its validity and reliability as suggested by Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2011). The researcher gave the questionnaire to two university tutors who have experience teaching on the teacher education programme who are also equipped to make suggestions on the adequacy and relevance of the questions and to check if its contents were to the level of the potential participants and whether there were any questions or words that student teachers might not understand or see vague. The researcher sat down and discussed and went through the TCQ item by item in order to see whether the questionnaire would be suitable for the student teachers and if they would have any problems in understanding the questions in the questionnaire. Details of the discussion between the researcher and the two university tutors are discussed in the ‘Pilot Study’ (see Appendix N). According to De Vaus (2002:117), piloting ‘should be conducted with people who resemble those to whom the questionnaire will finally be given’. By this, the researcher piloted the TCQ with a group of student teachers who were from the same university and on the same initial teacher education programme of the research participants but were not those included in the research study in hand. In addition to piloting the questionnaire with two university tutors. The rationale behind this was to further evaluate the
clearly the questions and question content; eliminate ambiguities or difficulties with the wording of the questions or instructions and identify redundant questions (e.g. those that showed inconsistency of understanding, or were not answered by the respondents); gain appropriateness of answer sets for closed questions; ascertain the length of time it would take to complete the questionnaire; identify if participants became bored or lost interest in the questionnaire therefore leading to a revision of the position and types of questions included in the final draft of the questionnaire (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2011).

4.14.3.2 Questionnaire Administration

This section provides the reader with a detailed description of the exact steps taken during the administration of the questionnaire (Rudestam, 2007). The researcher believes that there is a need to learn about student teachers’ concerns and how they cope with them during their school experience is very crucial to the development of teacher education courses in Libya. She hopes that her research provides new perspectives for the purpose of reform and restructure of teacher education programmes in Libya. In order to investigate and answer the research questions, the researcher felt it necessary to listen to student teachers’ concerns and examine their experiences during their ITE programme by reviewing research studies that investigated these concerns and experiences.

Many different instruments have been used to measure student teachers’ concerns during a teaching practice placement. The researcher mentions a few studies that have looked at student teachers’ concerns and the instruments applied in these studies. Caires & Almeida (2005), for instance, advocate the view that through the exploration of concerns, expectations, needs, etc., a more complete picture of what happens during the process of learning how to teach. The inventory of experiences & perceptions of TP (IEPTP) was used to assess the experiences of 224 student teachers in Portugal at two different occasions during TP, one month after the beginning of TP and one month before the end of TP. Mtika (2008) examined student teachers’ experiences during a teaching practice placement by employing an activity theory framework (Engestrom, 1999) that provides researchers with a theoretical and conceptual lens of understanding the professional development of teachers. Mau (1997) conducted a study on the concerns of student teachers in Singapore. The aim of the study was to examine the concerns of student teachers during their initial school-based training. Fuller’s (1985) teacher concerns model was used. The concerns were examined through analyses of 2 teacher concern inventories completed by the student teachers’ after their first primary school practicum and again after a course of pedagogy. In Capel’s (2001) study on student teachers’ concerns, one cohort of students on a one year
secondary PGCE course in England were administered a questionnaire on three occasions: (i) at the beginning of the year after they had completed the first week of the course but before they had undertaken any school experience; (ii) after student teachers completed 7 weeks of (2-days per week in school, 3-days per week at university and a 4-week block of school experience in one school; and then (iii) towards the end of the year after completing all school experiences. Results revealed that at all three administrations of the questionnaire both self and impact concerns were ranked high as causes of concern whereas task concerns were consistently ranked low as causes of concern. By that, the researcher has chosen to use the Teacher Concerns Questions as the theoretical framework for this study as it can be considered to be appropriate for a study that examines student teachers’ concerns and experiences during ITE (George, 1978; Capel, 2001).

The ‘Teacher Concerns Questionnaire’ was originated from Fuller’s work on concerns (Fuller, 1969). The work of Fuller (1969) contributed a great deal to the understanding of developmental aspects of teacher concerns and has been used in a variety of ways to examine developmental stages of teachers. The TCQ consists of 15 items, which measure self, task & impact concerns. The self-concerns scale consists of items 3, 7,9,13 &15; the task concerns scale consists of items 1, 2,5,10, &14; and the impact concerns scale consists of items 4, 6,8,11, & 12. Each item is scored on a five point Likert scale, with a score of one meaning ‘not concerned’ and a score of five meaning ‘extremely concerned’. Table 4.3 below displays the items on the Teacher Concerns Questionnaire (TCQ) (George, 1978).
Table 4-3: Items on the Teacher Concerns Questionnaire (TCQ) (George, 1978)

The researcher believes that there is need to justify the selection of using TCQ as the theoretical framework in this study. TCQ has been used in educational research to measure three areas of concerns: self, task & impact as Fuller (1969) suggests. In addition, to using the TCQ in a variety of ways to examine developmental stages of teachers. The researcher believes by presenting studies in which the TCQ was used as a framework would be essential to justify its selection.
Researchers have used the Teacher Concerns Questionnaire to examine the development stages preservice and in-service teachers go through during their learning process. For example, McBride, Boggess and Griffey (1986) applied the TCQ to examine preservice and in-service teachers’ developmental stages. In a study by Rikard & Knight (1997) levels of concern were measured prior to and after the internship using Fuller’s classic TCQ designed by George (1978). Zounhia & Hatziharistos (2005) examined student teachers’ concerns in relation to the perceived student teachers’ rapport with the cooperating teacher in Greece. The TCQ served as one of the data gathering instruments. Another study by Cevher-Kalburan (2014) examined early childhood preservice teachers concerns and solutions to overcome them. Since researchers such as the mentioned above, agree that unless student teachers’ concerns are determined and solved, they can affect pre-service teachers’ confidence and prevent them from improving their learning to teach according to Chan (2002). Saracho & Spodek (2007) add that the quality of programmes depend on better educated teachers, therefore, pre-service teachers’ concerns need to be defined and solved in order to enhance their confidence and competence as they enter the teaching profession.

The researcher administered the questionnaire on three different occasions (before, during and after teaching practice) during fieldwork and collected them from the participants either in person or by using a third party which in the researcher’s case were through her parents who work at the same university due to adverse reasons explained in previous chapters. The questionnaire as mentioned in the previous section was piloted and feedback allowed the researcher to understand some of the ambiguities and misunderstandings that were pointed out and identified during the pilot study phase.

Before moving on to the data analysis section, the researcher presents a summary of the data collected from each target student teacher during field-work:
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<th>Participant</th>
<th>Total number of Lessons Taught (co-teaching / independent teaching)</th>
<th>Total number of Interviews</th>
<th>Total number of Questionnaires</th>
<th>Total number of Follow-up interviews</th>
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<td>Co-teaching=5 Independent= 5</td>
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Table 4-4: A summary of data collected during field-work

### 4.15 Data Analysis

Hancock, Ockleford & Windridge (2009:81) argue that in:

*any type of research whether it was qualitative or quantitative or mixed methods should always involve analysing data.*

When a researcher analyses data, this process should involve summarising small or large amounts of data collected and presenting the results of the major characteristics of the data (Hancock, Ockleford & Windridge, 2009). In the case of this research, a mixed methods approach, as discussed previously, was adopted in this research study, using semi-structured interviews, telephone and online interviewing, observations & observation field notes, and the ‘Teacher Concerns Questionnaire’ as means of collecting data from the participants. The study gathered data from the entire cohort of 40 student teachers (originally 150 student teachers) from the English department using a ‘Teacher Concerns Questionnaire’, which was administered at three different occasions during the study but tracked only four student teachers’ development journey through their initial teacher education programme, encompassing their experiences within the school, their feelings about teaching practice (TP) & teaching and their feelings of preparedness to
become teachers. These four target student teachers were interviewed before, during and after observations & teaching trials. The TCQ was used in conjunction with the qualitative methods referred to in previous sections, interviews and observations. By this, the researcher summarises how the data gathered using these qualitative and quantitative methods during fieldwork, was analysed providing examples from research literature.

4.15.1 Data Analysis of Qualitative Data

‘the goal of qualitative analysis is to take large amounts of data that may not have any clear meaning and interact with it in such a manner that you can make sense of what you gathered’ (Lichtman 2013:250)

In qualitative research, the researcher mainly collects data in the form of words. These may be their views or opinion on a particular experience for example. The researcher then describes & analyses these words to look for particular themes to base his/her research (Creswell, 2012). Similarly, Walker & Myrick (2006) argue that qualitative data analysis attempts to organize & reduce data gathered by researchers into common themes, which in turn can provide descriptions or theories. Qualitative researchers are interested in using the data they collect to describe a particular event or experience and try to find ways to understand what these experiences mean (Hancock, Ockleford & Windridge, 2009). Data analysis is considered to be one of the most complicated phases of all of the phases of qualitative research (Thorne, 2000) as it requires a lot of time and effort and may sometimes be overwhelming for the researcher to deal with large amounts of data in (the researcher of this study’s) view as a novice researcher, in addition to that there is no right way to analysis it (Connolly, 2003; Lichtman, 2013). Glaser & Strauss (1967) suggest a number of methods of data analysis in qualitative research such as ‘analytic induction’, ‘logical analysis’, ‘metaphorical analysis’, ‘constant comparison/grounded theory’, ‘discourse analysis’, ‘content analysis’, ‘narrative analysis’, ‘phenomenology analysis’. The researcher of this study in hand decided to use the ‘Constant Comparative Method’ (CCM) in analysing her data and the reasons for choosing this particular method are discussed in the following paragraphs.

In this study, the researcher gained insight into how participants describe their concerns & experiences through their development as teachers during their initial teacher education programme. Grounded theory attempts to understand how participants make sense of their experiences and does not assume that participants’ accounts refer to some verifiable reality but it goes beyond phenomenology because the explanations that emerge are used to develop new theories (Glaser & Strauss, 1965, 1967). Different data collection methods can be used to develop grounded theory, in specific, interviews & observations, which were used to collect qualitative
data in this study. One of the significant characteristics of grounded theory according to Glaser & Strauss (1965), is the ‘Constant Comparative Method’ which is seen as a useful preparation or formula of how to do qualitative analysis. The authors argue that (CCM) enables the researcher to build an understanding of the phenomena or event under investigation through the lives and experiences of their participants. It allows researchers to identify the themes that are important in answering the research questions in a systematic way, providing an audit trail as they proceed (Throne, 2000). Thorne (2000) and Glaser & Strauss (1967) argue that this type of analysis involves taking one piece of data such as one interview or one statement or one observation or one theme and comparing it to all the others (i.e. the second interview, the second statement, the second observation, the second theme, the third interview, etc.) that may be similar or different in order to develop conceptualisations of the possible relations between various pieces of data. Using the constant comparative method, which involves making comparisons during each stage of the analysis, is what the researcher did during the different stages the student teachers had gone through during their ITE experience. Further details are discussed in the following section.

Glaser & Strauss (1967) identify four stages of the constant comparative method which represent comparing incidents applicable to each category, integrating these categories and their properties, and then delimiting & writing the theory. Researchers such as Chepyator-Thomson & Hsu (2007) used the constant comparative method to analyse data collected in order to discover developing themes. Aspects of teaching contained in reflection journals were compared and categorized to discover pre-service teachers’ ‘apprenticeship of observation during ‘conception period’ and ‘practice teaching’ periods of student teaching. The conception period refers to the time that a pre-service teacher observed the cooperating teacher and the practice period is the time that the pre-service teacher was teaching. Focused group data were compared to determine emergent categories and themes that unified the categories.

4.15.1.2 Qualitative Data Analysis Procedure

Creswell (2006:63) believes that grounded theory ‘is a qualitative research design in which the inquirer generates a general explanation (a theory) of a process, action, or interaction shaped by the views of a large number of participants’. By this, the researcher followed a grounded theory approach in her research in which she followed a three-part coding approach: open, axial and selective (Strauss & Corbin, 1990) which is also referred to as the ‘Constant Comparative Method’ (Glaser & Strauss, 1967; Lichtman, 2013). According to Creswell (2006) & Lichtman (2013), the first step the researcher takes is open coding in which he/she begins by examining the raw data that has been collected to begin to develop names and categories. From this open coding, axial coding which is the second step, appears in which the researcher pinpoints or selects only one
open coding category to concentrate on called the ‘core’ phenomenon (Creswell, 2006), and then returns to the data and creates categories around this particular underlying phenomenon. The third and final step is selective coding. Here, the researcher takes the model and develops hypotheses that according to Creswell (2006:65) ‘interrelate the categories in the model or assembles a story that describes the interrelationship of categories in the model’. The theory in which the researcher developed ends in a ‘grounded theory’ or an abstract theoretical understanding of the studied experience (Creswell, 2006). By this, one can summarise that the development of theories might help explain particular practices such as the teaching practice experience the researcher explored during her fieldwork & these developed theories might also provide a framework for further research in teacher education in Libya in specific and in other countries around the world (Charmaz, 2006).

### 4.15.2 Data Analysis of Quantitative Data

As referred to in previous sections, quantitative research is a type of research in which the researcher decides what to study, asks specific questions and involves collecting numerical data that can be subjected to statistical analysis (Creswell, 2012).

Hancock, Ockleford & Windridge (2009:24) argue that analysing quantitative data:

> ‘involves summarising the frequencies of variables, differences between variables, and statistical tests designed to estimate the statistical significance of the results...this is implemented by counting how frequently something emerges in the data and then comparing one measurement with others.’

As mentioned previously, one of the main purposes of this research study is to examine student teachers’ concerns at three different times during their initial teacher education emphasising on any changes in concerns that might arise during their teaching practice placement. These concerns were measured by adopting the Teacher Concerns Questionnaire (TCQ) (George, 1978). This questionnaire is based on Fuller’s concerns theory (Fuller, 1969) & is made up of 15 items, which measure self, task and impact concerns. Items 3, 7, 9, 13 &15 measure self-concerns; items 1, 2, 5, 10 & 14 measure task concerns; and items 4, 6, 8, 11 and 12 measure impact concerns.

#### 4.15.2.1 Quantitative Data Analysis Procedure

As explained previously, one cohort of student teachers on an initial teacher education programme in Libya were administered the TCQ on three different occasions during the academic year of 2015. The questionnaire was administered: in January 2015 (before any school experience
had been undertaken), in March 2015 (after teaching practice commenced), and in June 2015 (at the end of the programme, after teaching practice has been completed).

### 4.15.2.1.1 Data Analysis of the TCQ

This research is mainly concerned with exploring student teachers’ concerns during their initial teacher education programme in Libya. By this, the researcher’s intention is to follow Capel’s (2001) data analysis procedure. Each item on the teacher concerns questionnaire is scored on a five point Likert scale, with a score of 1= meaning not concerned and a score of 5= meaning extremely concerned. George (1978) who had developed this questionnaire from Fuller’s (1969) theory of concerns, reported alpha coefficients ranging from 0.77 to 0.83 on the self and impact concerns scales and 0.67 to 0.71 on the task concerns scale. Capel (2001) calculated the mean scores and standard deviations for the TCQ as a whole and for each separate item on the questionnaire. Each item on the TCQ was placed in rank order for each of the three administrations of the questionnaire. She conducted repeated measures analysis of variance in order to decide whether any notable difference between the total concern score and individual items on the TCQ at the three administrations of the questionnaire had occurred.

In the case of this research, the number of students included in the analysis of the questionnaires was 40 student teachers (originally 150). The decline in the number of students in the final year at university was due to the current situation in Libya (see Chapter Two). As mentioned previously in this chapter, the four target students followed the planned teaching opportunity (Teaching Practice) during the course of the seven weeks. However, the non-targeted student teachers experienced the normal degree of contact with schools during this period in their course, which was just observing in the classroom and not undertaking any teaching either with a peer or alone. Thus, the results from this study may be hard to generalise to students on the other programme with a different structure. The findings of the study were compared to the concerns identified in Fuller & Bowns’ (1975) study and the stages of development identified by Maynard & Furlong (1993) as well as Capel’s (2001) study (see Chapter Three).

### 4.16 Ethical Considerations

Oliver (2003:17) cited in Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2011) argues that:

> ‘each stage in the research sequence raises ethical issues…they may arise from the nature of the research project itself; the context for the research; the procedures to be adopted; methods to be collected; the nature of the participants; the type of data collected; and what is to be done with the data’ (p.17).
Chapter 4

Given the location in which this research was conducted, obtaining ERGO approval was nothing but straightforward. The researcher’s application was passed over to the Vice Chancellor’s Office and was approved after 14 weeks. This also being a mixed method study where both qualitative and quantitative methods are used, the researcher has to interact deeply with the participants, who are in the case of this research study, the student teachers. This of course may raise a number of ethical issues that should be addressed before, during, and after the research is conducted and when analysing the gathered data (Miles & Huberman, 1994). According to Miles & Huberman (1994), some of the issues involve whether participants have full knowledge of what is involved, would the research study in any way harm the participants or would it be too risky for them to participate; researchers need to be 100% honest in presenting the data or else, the researcher might be accused of hiding something from the participants; will the participants remain anonymous or will they be exposed, will the information they provide in the research remain confidential and private; what should researchers do if participants display harmful or illegal behaviour and many more to add. In agreement with Miles & Huberman (1994), Creswell (2003) states that the researcher needs to respect the participants’ rights, needs values & desires. Pelletier (2000) adds another issue or concern that a researcher should consider and that is related to cultural sensitivity. The researcher sees this as very critical in this research study especially with the on-going crisis Libya is going through at the time. People tend to distrust one another, especially foreigners or any Libyan who lives abroad. They tend to think that these individuals have an agenda and believe that they might not be trustworthy. In general, for us as Libyans, our culture has taught us to be very sensitive about our culture and traditions. So although it is not unusual for a researcher to approach individuals and invite them to participate in a study, however, because of the strong traditions and culture, it might be difficult to obtain approval easily to participate in a study. Even if the participants were adults and are able to give consent and approval on their own, as part of our culture, these individuals will still have to take permission from their family in order to participate. Furthermore, before they are given permission from their family to participate, their families will need to know what the study involves and whether this study would harm them in any way or interrupt their studies. Little did the researcher know that obtaining approval for participation would be the last of her concerns.

In view of the previous discussion, the following section describes how ethical issues in the conduct of the research was addressed.
4.16.1 Description of how ethical issues in the conduct of the research were addressed

4.16.1.1 Informed Consent

Diener & Crandall (1978:57) cited in Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2011) define informed consent as:

‘the procedures in which individuals choose whether to participate in an investigation after being informed of facts that would be likely to influence their decisions’

By this, before approaching the main participants of the study, the researcher informed the English Department in advance (in 2014) of her intentions to travel to Libya in March 2015 to conduct her field-work which involves the researcher to be present at the university and practising school for three entire months. In her earlier visit to Libya in 2014, the researcher explained to the Head of the English Department what the research entailed and was given permission to come and conduct her research. She was also granted permission to approach the student teachers once she arrives in Libya and invite them to participate in her research. The researcher also explained to the Head of the English Department and university tutors who teach on the ITE programme in the department that she would need their cooperation in some aspects of the research. They all agreed to provide any type of assistance she may need during the conduct of her research. The researcher and the university staff exchanged contact details and kept in contact with them as much as she could.

On the researcher’s arrival in March 2015, she visited the university to inform them that she would like to approach the student teachers and invite them to participate in her study. The researcher then explained the nature of the study in addition to their typical roles and what the research would involve. In line with this, the researcher handed out a consent form for the students to fill in and return to the researcher. An example of the consent form used in this study can be found in the Appendix S.

4.16.1.2 Harm and Risk

Upon arrival, the researcher guaranteed the participants that they would not be put in any type of situation where they might be harmed physically or psychologically as a result of their participation. The researcher explained in detail what the research entails in order for the participants to make sure that participation would not affect them in any way. However, just weeks after fieldwork commenced, an unexpected conflict started between two rival militia groups in the city. Conducting fieldwork and collecting data through that period of crisis raised a number of ethical issues mainly relating to the research participants safety as well as the
researchers’. As the safeguarding of participants was paramount at all times, the researcher arranged to meet with the participants to explain the extent of danger and risks they might put themselves in if they chose to continue their involvement in the research. She made it clear from the beginning that if they were to pull out of the research, she would be understanding as they signed up for this research at a time of stability. To the researcher’s surprise, they all confirmed that they were willing to complete the research to the end and simply explained that this conflict was one of many and that they had gotten use to such conflicts and life just goes on here in Libya.

4.16.1.3 Honesty and Trust

In terms of honesty and trust, the researcher was honest and open with research participants regarding what the research entails and the extent of their involvement. The researcher had nothing to hide and was willing to answer any questions that might arise from the participants. The researcher was trustworthiness of the data collected and the analysis of the data.

4.16.1.4 Privacy, Confidentiality and Anonymity

Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2011:91) argue that ‘the principal means of ensuring anonymity...is not using the names of the participants or any other personal means of identification’. Frankfort-Nachtism and Nachmias (1992) cited in Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2011) discuss ways of achieving anonymity: such as the use of aliases, codes for identifying people and the use of password-protected files. Another way of protecting a participant’s right to privacy is ‘through the promise of confidentiality by not disclosing information from a participant in any way that might identify that individual or that might enable the individual with anybody else’ (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2011:92).

As this research study involves interviewing and observing participants, the researcher maintained the confidentiality and anonymity of these research participants by erasing any characteristics that could possibly identify them and replacing their names with pseudonyms. The researcher is the only individual with full access to the data gathered during the study and the participants’ names and any information that reveals their identity were not used for any other purposes other than this study.

4.16.1.5 Voluntary Participation

As interviews, observations and questionnaires may be an intrusion into the lives of the research participants, the researcher made it clear to the participants (non-target and target) that the research is only for academic purposes and that their participation in it was absolutely voluntary. Although the researcher encouraged participation by explain what participants might gain from
participating from the study, no one was coerced to participate. Although the risks of participation withdrawing when they were only four to begin with were high, the researcher informed participants that they were free to withdraw from the research study whenever they felt.

### 4.16.1.6 Researcher’s Role and its Ethical Implications on the Research Study

According to Unluer (2012), it is crucial for researchers to clarify their roles when undertaking research in order to make their research credible, especially for those collecting qualitative data. Some researchers might take on a variety of roles (outsider or insider) when they are in the research setting (Bonner and Tolhurst, 2002; Ganga and Scott, 2006; Foote and Bartell, 2011; Al-Natour, 2011; Unluer, 2012; Kerstetter, 2012; Bourke, 2014). In some cases, research can be extremely challenging where the researcher might expect to be ‘insider/outsider’ in unexpected situations (Ganga and Scott, 2006; Foote and Bartell, 2011; Al-Natour, 2011; Unluer, 2012; Kerstetter, 2012; Bourke, 2014). In the case of this research study, the researcher’s role was only intended to be of an observer (outsider), however, due to the unexpected circumstances such as the on-going conflict in the city in which field-work was taking place, absence and lack of cooperation from class teachers, the researcher found herself unintentionally in a position playing multiple roles (outsider and insider), quite similar to a cooperating teachers’ role as well as a supervisor’s role (i.e. responsible for student teachers participating in the study and accompanied them to the participating school where they were completing the teaching practice).

It has been argued that researcher positionality can impact on some aspects and stages of the research process (Bonner and Tolhurst, 2002; Ganga and Scott, 2006; Foote and Bartell, 2011; Al-Natour, 2011; Unluer, 2012; Kerstetter, 2012; Bourke, 2014) and the researcher of this study acknowledges that her positionality might have affected her research, her understanding, interpretation and possibly her research findings/outcomes (Foote and Bartell, 2011), however this was mainly influenced by the ‘research context’ as mentioned previously (Savin-Baden and Howell Major, 2013:71). Although the researcher’s positionality might have affected the research in some ways, it also helped the researcher in various ways. Being an insider for instance, reduced many problems associated with researching the real world, one of these problems included gaining access (Bonner and Tolhurst, 2002; Al-Natour, 2011; Unluer, 2012; Kerstetter, 2012; Bourke, 2014). As the researcher was known to the university staff (i.e. former lecturer in the English Department) at the target university, it was much easier to gain access to the research participants. Had the researcher been an ‘outsider’, gaining access might have proven time consuming, difficult or in some cases, impossible (Chawl-Duggan,
As an insider, in the researcher’s case, an individual known to the majority of staff members at the target university, all her requests were almost never rejected by the members of the university staff, which an outsider in such a study conducted during a time of conflict might have not been able to achieve. University staff provided the researcher with the participants’ timetables in addition to staff timetables which was very useful in regards to gaining access. As a result of that, the researcher was able to arrange meetings in order to invite participants to take part in the research. Another benefit of being an ‘insider’ was the ability to establish rapport between the researcher and the research participants (Bonner and Tolhurst, 2002). Being of a Libyan nationality and speaking Arabic helped in establishing a close relationship with the participants as all the participants involved in the study were also Libyans and spoke Arabic. As Arabic was the mutual language spoken between both parties, the researcher was able to connect with the participants at a deeper level while she was explaining the nature of the research and the more she emphasised her passion about the research and the importance of improving the teacher education system in Libya, the more open and interested the participants became in taking part in the research. In addition to the mutual language and nationality the researcher shares with the participants, being familiar with the country’s situation and opening up about how the war has affected the country, especially the education sector, but still being aware of my political opinions and keeping them to myself, also helped create a close bond between the researcher and the participants. This transparency of thoughts and feelings helped gain the trust of the participants and that led to more honest answers (Kerstetter, 2012) which eventually led to positive outcomes in the research. In other words, if the researcher came in as an outsider, it might have taken time to establish trust and the participants might have not felt comfortable talking to her about sensitive issues such as the fragile state of Libya and some might not have been interested in taking part in the study at all.

With the close bond created between the researcher and the participants and acknowledging the lack of support from co-operating teachers and school staff during teaching practice, being an ‘insider’ gave the researcher a platform to provide assistance to the participants when needed. The researcher felt that it was her duty of care to be present for the participants when there were times of unsettlement in addition to the lack of support from school teachers and school staff. The researcher felt that supporting the student teachers who were willing to come to school to assist with her research, was just a natural thing to do during a time of conflict. During these times of unsettlement,
the researcher attached herself to the participants and supported them through their experience. The researcher often responded to questions from the target student teachers about ‘how they did’ or ‘what they could have done differently’, ‘what to do in a situation where pupils were misbehaving’ and etc. The researcher at all times answered honestly rather than ignoring the requests from the target student teachers. However, in an attempt to reduce bias, the researcher detached herself from the participants when there were periods of settlement in the country and assisted them by offering encouraging advice when needed.

Although there are various advantages of being an ‘insider’, there are also problems associated with being an insider (Bonner and Tolhurst, 2002; Ganga and Scott, 2006; Foote and Bartell, 2011; Al-Natour, 2011; Unluer, 2012; Kerstetter, 2012; Bourke, 2014; Yaacob, 2016). For example, making assumptions about the meanings of responses given during interviews or occurring events and not seeking clarification, might suggest the researcher knows the participants’ views (Bonner and Tolhurst, 2002; Unluer, 2012). In this case, participants may tend to assume the researcher already knows what they know and are not bothered to give details about a certain response or event. Although the researcher was cautious to ensure that she asked for further clarification of answers when interviewing participants, there were likely incidents where she may have missed the opportunity to seek clarification and that was apparent in some areas of this thesis.
Chapter 5  Findings

5.1  Introduction

This chapter is divided into FOUR main sections. The first section is an analysis and interpretation of the results from the administration of the ‘Teacher Concerns Questionnaire’ at three different occasions during the conduct of fieldwork in Libya which will help answer Research Question One “What are the concerns of English Language teachers during their final year of their initial teacher education in Libya?”.

The second section is an analysis and interpretation of the results of the interviews conducted with the four target student teachers ‘before’, ‘during’ and ‘after’ the ‘Teaching Practice’ experience. This analysis will help the researcher in answering Research Question Two and One. An analysis of the field-notes made during observations is also analysed and interpreted which will be used to answer Research Question Three. An additional section will be added which will include an analysis and interpretation of the follow-up interviews conducted with the four target student teacher participants after graduating and beginning their teaching journeys in various sectors. This will help in answering Research Question Four.

5.2  Research Question One

5.2.1  Results of the TCQ administered at three different occasions during Field-work

This section is an analysis and discussion of the results of the TCQ administered at three different occasions during ‘Fieldwork’ in Libya. The main aim of this research study was to study 4th year university student teacher’s concerns at three different occasions during a sustained period of teaching practice. The researcher’s intention was to learn what these concerns were in addition to identifying any changes in these concerns during this sustained period of teaching practice. The researcher discusses in detail below how the results of the TCQ were achieved by discussing the steps and procedures applied in the study.

Participants and Procedures:

One cohort of student teachers specializing in English during the academic year of 2015, were involved in this research study in which all fourth year student teachers (originally 150 students)
but decreased to less than 60 students due to the civil war in Libya) were administered a questionnaire on three different occasions. A number of 40 responses were received from a total of 60 at the first administration of the questionnaire; 39 responses from student teachers at the second administration of the questionnaire; and 39 student teachers responded at the third administration of the questionnaire. A total of 118 student teachers (118 (100%) female) had returned the questionnaire at the three administrations of the TCQ questionnaire. These student teachers comprised the sample for this research study.

The course:

Student teachers who took part in the research study included all fourth year students including the four target student teachers involved in the sustained period of ‘Teaching Practice’. The four target students involved in the sustained period of ‘teaching practice’ spent a total of 7 weeks at a public school in which they taught 5th-8th graders 6 days a week at a public primary school in the city of Azzawia in Libya. Table (5-1) and (5-2) below illustrate the original course plan and the contingency course plan, which was utilized during fieldwork in Libya.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>WeekNo.</th>
<th>Saturday</th>
<th>Sunday</th>
<th>Monday</th>
<th>Tuesday</th>
<th>Wednesday</th>
<th>Thursday</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
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<td>Observing</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Observing</td>
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<tr>
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<td>Micro-teaching</td>
<td>Micro-teaching</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
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<td>Co-teaching</td>
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<td>Co-teaching</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Week6</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Co-teaching</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Co-teaching</td>
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<td>Solo-teaching</td>
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<td>Solo-teaching</td>
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<tr>
<td>Week8</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Solo-teaching</td>
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<td>Solo-teaching</td>
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<tr>
<td>Week9</td>
<td>Solo-teaching</td>
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<td>Solo-teaching</td>
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<tr>
<td>Week10</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Solo-teaching</td>
<td></td>
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<td>Solo-teaching</td>
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<tr>
<td>Week11</td>
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<td></td>
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<td>Solo-teaching</td>
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<tr>
<td>Week12</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Solo-teaching</td>
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<td>Solo-teaching</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5-1: Original Plan for Phases of Teaching Practice Experience
Table 5-2: Contingency Plan for Phases of Teaching Practice Experience

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Week No.</th>
<th>Sunday</th>
<th>Monday</th>
<th>Tuesday</th>
<th>Wednesday</th>
<th>Thursday</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Week 1</td>
<td>Observing</td>
<td>Observing</td>
<td>Observing</td>
<td>Observing</td>
<td>Observing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Co-teaching</td>
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<td>Co-teaching</td>
<td>Co-teaching</td>
<td>Co-teaching</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Week 2</td>
<td>Observing</td>
<td>Observing</td>
<td>Observing</td>
<td>Observing</td>
<td>Observing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Co-teaching</td>
<td>Co-teaching</td>
<td>Co-teaching</td>
<td>Co-teaching</td>
<td>Co-teaching</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Week 3</td>
<td>Solo-teaching</td>
<td>Solo-teaching</td>
<td>Solo-teaching</td>
<td>Solo-teaching</td>
<td>Solo-teaching</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Week 4</td>
<td>Solo-teaching</td>
<td>Solo-teaching</td>
<td>Solo-teaching</td>
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<td>Solo-teaching</td>
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<tr>
<td>Week 5</td>
<td>Solo-teaching</td>
<td>Solo-teaching</td>
<td>Solo-teaching</td>
<td>Solo-teaching</td>
<td>Solo-teaching</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Week 6</td>
<td>Solo-teaching</td>
<td>Solo-teaching</td>
<td>Solo-teaching</td>
<td>Solo-teaching</td>
<td>Solo-teaching</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Week 7</td>
<td>Solo-teaching</td>
<td>Solo-teaching</td>
<td>Solo-teaching</td>
<td>Solo-teaching</td>
<td>Solo-teaching</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The four target students’ concerns were part of the cohort at each administration point during this 7-week course, before any school experience had been undertaken; during teaching practice; and after they completing teaching practice. The remaining student teachers in the fourth year were administered a questionnaire at three different occasions as well however were not involved in a sustained period of teaching practice as the four target students.

Several researchers worldwide have suggested that student teachers go through a number of stages and concerns during their development as teachers (Capel, 1998; Furlong & Maynard, 1995; Mau, 1997; Fuller, 1985; Kyriacou & Stephens, 1999; Capel, 2001; Rikard & Knight, 1997; Zounhia & Hatziharistos, 2005; Cevher-Kalburan, 2014). A variety of instruments have been used by researchers to measure student teachers’ concerns during this development stage. One of the tools used to measure these concerns is the ‘Teacher Concerns Questionnaire’ (TCQ) (George, 1978). The ‘TCQ’ was developed from Fuller’s work on concerns (Fuller, 1969). The work of Fuller (1969) contributed a great deal to the understanding of developmental aspects of teacher
concerns and has been used in a variety of ways to examine developmental stages of teachers. The TCQ consists of 15 items which measure self, task and impact concerns. The self-concerns scale consists of items 3, 7, 9, 13 & 15; the task concerns scale consists of items 1, 2, 5, 10 & 14; and the impact concerns scale consists of items 4, 6, 8, 11, & 12. Table (i) below shows the items on the TCQ grouped by concerns. Each of these items are scored on the five point Likert scale, with a score of one meaning ‘not concerned’ and a score of five meaning ‘extremely concerned’.

Capel (2001) for example, the purpose of her study was to identify any changes in concerns about school experiences as they developed as teachers at three different times during a one-year Postgraduate Certificate in Education (PGCE) course during the academic year 1996/1997 in England. Student teachers involved in Capel’s (2001) study were following a 36-week PGCE course. During this 36-week course, twenty-four weeks were spent in school and 12 weeks in the higher education institution. After a three week induction period in the higher education institution, student teachers spent two days per week in school and three days in the higher education institution, for seven weeks. This serial experience is followed by a block experience of four weeks. In the first half of the second term (six weeks), four days per week were spent in a different type of school, with one day per week in the higher education institution. This is followed by a 12-week school experience, extending over the second and third terms. The final three weeks of the course were spent in the higher education institution preparing students for work as newly qualified teachers.

The main purpose of the research in hand was to look at Libyan student teachers concerns during their journey to become teachers. Capel’s study provided the researcher with a formula to follow which comprised a repeated measures of the TCQ. Although it is essential to point out that the researcher acknowledges that Capel’s study was conducted over a nine month period whereas the research in hand (in terms of TCQ administrations), was conducted over a period of four to five months (January to May). During this time, the researcher observed classes, administered questionnaires and collected as much data as possible in a short time frame.

Targeted and non-targeted Libyan student teachers were administered the TCQ at three different occasions. The researcher acknowledges that the time between the three administrations was short. The reason for this was because of the circumstances in which the research was conducted. Both targeted and non-targeted student teachers were attending schools one day per week observing teachers when they were administered the first TCQ in mid-January 2015. During the second administration of the TCQ (end of March, 2015), apart from Friday, only the target students teachers were in schools everyday observing and co-teaching with their student teacher colleagues. Non-targeted student teachers continued to attend school one day per week for
observation. A similar pattern was followed during the third administration of the TCQ (mid-May, 2015) students teachers were in schools 6 days a week, observing colleagues teach and teaching independently and non-targeted student teachers continued to be in school one day per week observing classes.

In order to measure the changes in all fourth year student teachers’ concerns over time, the Teacher Concerns Questionnaire (TCQ) was administered during the conduct of field-work: on the 22nd of January 2015 (before any sustained period of teaching practice had been undertaken); on the 5th of April 2015 (during teaching practice); and on the 28th of April 2015 (after completing teaching practice). The time between the second and third administration of the TCQ was shortened by 4 weeks due to interruption in fieldwork due caused by the military conflict discussed in previous chapters of this thesis. It is necessary to point out that although the findings relate to the whole cohort who participated and given the ethical considerations, the questionnaires were anonymous therefore it was difficult to identify the four target student teachers let alone particular scores for these four main participants.

5.2.1.1 Statistical Analysis

5.2.1.1.1 Calculation of the ‘Mean’ and ‘Standard Deviation’ for the three administrations of the TCQ using SPSS

The first part of the statistical analysis conducted was a calculation of the 'Mean' scores and 'Standard Deviations' for the 'Teacher Concerns Questionnaire' as a whole and for each individual item on the questionnaire illustrated in Table 5.3 below. Each item on the 'Teacher Concerns Questionnaire' was then placed in rank order for each of the three administrations of the questionnaire as shown in detail in Table 5.3 below:
Looking across the three administrations (Table 5.3) it is evident that there is an increasing number of items with mean scores of 3.0 and greater, suggesting that the overall picture of concern was increasing for the cohorts from the first administration of the TCQ to the third administration. That for the significant majority of the students (i.e. non-target students), their school experience was just of watching teachers and occasionally helping give out books, etc. and not actually teaching themselves, it therefore could be speculated that this time in school just observing over time was just elevating the concerns of this group as they watched lessons and perhaps wondered if they would be able to cope in the classroom. The items causing the most concern at all three administrations of the questionnaire were, being accepted and respected by professional persons (self-concern), getting favourable evaluation of their teaching (self-concern), and making sure whether each student is getting what he/she needs (impact concern).

### 5.2.1.2 Descriptive Analysis

At the first administration of the questionnaire, students found the item causing the most concern was ‘whether each student is getting what he/she needs’ (Mean = 3.02, St. Deviation=1.36) ranked second at the second administration (Mean=3.33, St. Deviation=1.30) and third at the third administration of the questionnaire (Mean=3.30, St. Deviation=1.43). At the second and third administrations of the questionnaire these students found the items causing the most concern were maintaining the appropriate

<table>
<thead>
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<th>Item no.</th>
<th>Total concern score</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>Item no.</th>
<th>Total concern score</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>Item no.</th>
<th>Total concern score</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
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<td>1</td>
<td>15</td>
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<td>2</td>
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Table 5-3: Comparison between ‘Means’ and ‘Standard Deviations’ for all three administrations of TCQ’s
degree of class control’ and ‘being accepted and respected by professional person(s)’ (mean = 3.35, St. Deviation=1.06; mean=3.82, St. Deviation=1.02). The four items causing the most concern at all three administrations of the questionnaire were ‘whether each student is getting what he/she needs’, ‘being accepted and respected by professional persons’, ‘getting a favourable evaluation of my teaching’, and ‘ working with too many students each day’. Of the items causing the most concern, two items were self-concerns (‘getting a favourable evaluation of my teaching’, ‘being accepted and respected by professional person(s)’) and one was an impact concern (‘whether each student is getting what he/she needs’). The item causing least concern at the first administration of the TCQ questionnaire was ‘lack of instructional materials’ (mean=2.32; St. deviation=1.14), at the second administration of the TCQ, the item causing the least concern was the routine and inflexibility of the teaching situation (mean=2.66, St. deviation=1.13) and the third administration of the questionnaire, the item causing least concern was ‘working with too many students each day’ (mean= 2.84, St. Deviation=1.51).

Giving a detailed description of the results, at the first administration of the questionnaire, the items that ranked lowest as causes of concerns were ‘feeling under pressure much of the time’ (ranked 11th), ‘feeling more adequate as a teacher(s)’ (ranked 12th), ‘challenging unmotivated students’ (ranked 13th), ‘guiding students towards intellectual and emotional growth’ (ranked 14th), and ‘lack of instructional materials’ (ranked 15th) (mean= 2.50, 2.45, 2.45, 2.42, 2.32; St. Deviations= 1.15, 1.19, 1.01, 1.15, 1.14) two of these items were ‘task’ concerns whereas two of these items were ‘impact’ concerns and one was a self-concern. The items that ranked lowest as causes of concern at the second administration of the questionnaire, were ‘lack of instructional materials’ (ranked 11th), ‘too many instructional duties’ (ranked 12th), ‘guiding students towards intellectual and emotional growth’ (ranked 13th), ‘challenging unmotivated students’ (ranked at 14th), ‘ the routine and inflexibility of teaching situation’ (ranked 15th) (mean = 2.89, 2.89, 2.84, 2.76, 2.66; St. Deviations= 1.20, 1.14, 1.26, 1.08, 1.13) three of these items are ‘task’ concerns whereas only two were ‘impact’ concerns. At the third administration of the questionnaire, the items that ranked lowest of causes of concern were ‘diagnosing student learning problems’, ‘meeting the needs of different kinds of students’, ‘doing well when a supervisor is present’, ‘lack of instructional material’, ‘working with too many students each day’ (mean=3.10, 3.02, 2.94, 2.92, 2.84; St. Deviation= 1.11, 1.20, 1.37, 1.34, 1.51) two of these items were ‘task’ concerns, two others were ‘impact’ concerns and the one was a ‘self’ concern.
Summary of Causes of Concerns

At all three administrations of the questionnaire, results showed that the ‘Self’ and ‘Impact’ concerns were included in the six items ranked highest as causes of concern. Therefore, students were concerned about self and the impact of their teaching. The results of the administration of the questionnaire at three different occasions, suggest that the students’ concerns changed relatively over time. For instance, at the first administration of the TCQ, the item causing most concern was an ‘impact’ concern ‘whether each student is getting what he/she needs’. Surprisingly, at the second administration of the questionnaire, the item causing most concern was a self-concern ‘maintaining the appropriate degree of class control’ however, at the third administration, the item causing most concern was a ‘self’ concern ‘being accepted and respected by professional persons’. However, the items causing least concern at all three administrations of the questionnaire were ‘task’ concern and ‘impact’ concerns. At the first administration, the item causing least concern was a ‘task’ concern ‘lack of instructional material(s). At the second administration of the questionnaire, the item causing the least concern was also a ‘task’ concern, ‘the routine and inflexibility of teaching situation’. At the third administration of the questionnaire, the item causing the least concern was also an ‘impact’ concern ‘working with too many students each day’. Given the existing way in which students spend time in schools in their final year, the vast majority of the cohort had no direct teaching experience of the classroom on which to base their judgements on concerns across the three administrations. They were very likely predicting how the situation might be for them if they had been the opportunity to teach. It is therefore worth wondering if delaying any actual teaching experience for the non-target students was merely just raising their concerns generally rather than giving them the opportunity to work with a group of students in more of a practicum situation as a student teacher. The present situation in Libya is that these non-target students are in effect having to wait to when they get a first teaching position to see if they can teach a class.

5.2.1.2.1 Repeated Measures Analysis of Variance using SPSS

The second part of the ‘Statistical Analysis’ was to conduct a repeated measure analysis of variance ANOVA using SPSS. One-way repeated measures ANOVA compares several means when those means have come from the same entities, which in the case of this research, are the target and non-target student teachers. The researcher used a repeated measure analysis of variance ANOVA, in order to determine whether there were any significant changes in the concern scores
over the administration of the TCQ at three different time periods or occasions, in addition to whether there were any significant differences between the total concern score and individual items on the TCQ at the three administrations of the questionnaire. Table (5.4) below display the results of total concern scores and the individual items on the TCQ at the three administrations of the questionnaire using SPSS.

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<th>SD</th>
<th>Rank</th>
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Table 5-4: Total Scores of Individual and total Mean and Standard Deviation scores for all three administrations of TCQ

Looking cross the results of the three administrations of the Teacher Concerns Questionnaire (Table 5.4), the mean and standard deviation scores for total concern on the TCQ were (Mean=2.66, 3.01, 3.17; St. Deviation= 0.21, 0.20, and 0.23) at the first, second and third administrations of the questionnaire. It is evident that there is an increasing number of items with mean scores of 3.0 and greater, suggesting that the overall picture of concern was increasing for the cohorts from the first administration of the TCQ to the third administration. That for the significant majority of the students (i.e. non-target students), their school experience was just of watching teachers and occasionally helping give out books, etc. and not actually teaching themselves, it therefore could be speculated that this time in school just observing over time was just elevating the concerns of this group as they watched lessons and perhaps wondered if they would be able to cope in the classroom.

As mentioned previously, a one-way repeated measures analysis (ANOVA) compares several means when those means have come from the same entities, which in the case of this research, are the target and non-target student teachers. The researcher used a repeated measure analysis of variance ANOVA, in order to determine whether there were any significant changes in the
concern scores over the administration of the TCQ at three different time periods or occasions, in addition to whether there were any significant differences between the total concern score and individual items on the TCQ at the three administrations of the questionnaire. The following Figures (5-2) and (5-3) below show the process and the results of the repeated measures analysis.

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**Report**

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Figure 5-1 Total Mean and Standard Deviation Scores for all three administrations produced by SPSS

**General Linear Model**

**Within-Subjects Factors**

Measure: MEASURE_1

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**Descriptive Statistics**

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<td>Questionnaire3</td>
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Figure 5-2 The Total Mean & Standard Deviation during Times (1,2,3)

The Null Hypothesis (H0) is that there are no significant differences between the total concern scores and the individual items on the TCQ. The Alternative Hypothesis (H1) is
that there is a significant difference between the total concern score and the items on the TCQ.

One group of participants (in this case all fourth year student teachers including the target students) were measured on the same scale on three different occasions; prior the teaching practice experience (Time 1), during the teaching practice experience (Time 2) and after the teaching practice experience (Time 3). This involved two variables; one independent variable (categorical) (Time 1/Time 2/Time 3) and one dependent variable (continuous) (e.g. concern scores). The researcher compared the participants’ responses to 15 different items or questions as displayed in Table 1. These items/questions were measured using the same scale (1=not concerned, 5=extremely concerned)

This technique of a repeated measure analysis of variance (ANOVA) helped the researcher to determine whether there was a significant difference somewhere among the three sets of scores from all three administrations. To demonstrate the use of this technique, the researcher used the data from the three administrations of the TCQ questionnaires. The group of students were invited to participate in responding to a TCQ at three different occasions to help determine whether there was any significant differences in the concerns.

Tables (5.5 & 5.6) indicate that there is a significant difference in the concern scores at the three administrations, Time 1 (before teaching practice), Time 2 (during teaching practice), and Time 3 (after teaching practice).

Concern scores at Time 1: total concern scores prior to the program. Concern scores range from 2.32 to 3.02. Total mean score being (2.66).

Concern scores at Time 2: total concern scores on the TCQ administered during teaching practice ranged from 2.66 to 3.35. Total mean score being (3.01).

Concern scores at Time 3: total concern scores on the TCQ administered after teaching practice ranged from 2.84 to 3.82. Total mean score being (3.17). High concern scores indicate higher levels of concern, which reveals that the participants showed higher level concerns in (Time 3) the third administration of the TCQ.

The one-way repeated measures ANOVA was conducted to compare scores on the TCQ at Time 1 (prior to teaching practice), Time 2 (during teaching practice) and Time 3 (after teaching practice). The means and standard deviation were presented in Table (1) and
(3). There was a significant effect for time, Wilk's Lambda = .025, F (2, 51), Multivariate Partial Eta Square = .975 as shown in the Multivariate Tests Table below.

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<td>.975</td>
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</table>

The Tests of Within-Subjects Effects below shows the main results of the ANOVA. Is shows that it has 2 within-subjects of freedom and 28 error of freedom. The value of the significance is less than .05, which means that the Means of the group are significantly different.

Mauchly's Test of Sphericity

<table>
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<th>df</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>Epsilon^b</th>
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The Mauchly's Test of Sphericity below indicates that the significance is more than .000 therefore, the assumption has not been violated and Sphericity can be assumed.

Tests the null hypothesis that the error covariance matrix of the orthonormalized transformed dependent variables is proportional to an identity matrix.

a. Design: Intercept

Within Subjects Design: Time
b. Exact statistic

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**Tests of Within-Subjects Contrasts**

Measure: MEASURE_1

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<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>Partial Eta Squared</th>
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</thead>
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<td>.002</td>
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</table>

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The graph below indicates that there is a significant change in the participants' concerns and there is a difference between the total concern scores and the items on the TCQ, however, it is necessary to run a Post Hoc test for repeated measures variable, which is a paired sample T-Test. The researcher displays the results of the T-Test in the next section.

### Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Measure: MEASURE_1

Transformed Variable: Average

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The graph below indicates that there is a significant change in the participants' concerns and there is a difference between the total concern scores and the items on the TCQ, however, it is necessary to run a Post Hoc test for repeated measures variable, which is a paired sample T-Test. The researcher displays the results of the T-Test in the next section.

### Estimated Marginal Means

**Time**

Measure: MEASURE_1

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</table>
T-TEST PAIRS=Time1 Time1 Time2 WITH Time2 Time3 Time3 (PAIRED)

/CRITERIA=CI (.9500)

/MISSING=ANALYSIS.
The results from the above T-Test indicate that the value of the significance is less than (.05) which means that the changes in concerns are significantly different at the three administrations of the questionnaire.

### 5.3 Research Question Two

In this section, the research sets out to answer the following question:

"What are the student teachers' expectations of and responses to the school-based placement experiences?"

In order to answer this question, the researcher first examined responses given by the student teachers during the interviews, which were conducted before starting teaching practice and after
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the completion of teaching practice. Second, the researcher analysed the responses given by the student teachers during both the short pre- and post-observation meetings. Student teachers’ responses during the short pre-observation meetings were used to describe student teachers’ expectations of teaching practice, whereas student teachers’ responses during the post-observation meetings were used to describe student teachers’ responses to teaching practice.

Data obtained from the semi-structured interviews were analysed thematically. The researcher carried out the coding process independently. The method of analysis in this research involved managing the data by hand, in other words, a computer software was not utilized due to the fact that most of the interviews were conducted in both Arabic and English. After each interview, the transcripts were manually transcribed by the researcher into a specifically pre-formulated document, which provided the opportunity to begin coding and identifying emerging themes. Once the transcription was completed the researcher listened to the tape several times again in order to annotate the transcript. The transcripts were reread by the researcher and codes assigned to recurring themes. The codes were assigned so they would be reflective of the words of the participants themselves. These initial codes were subjected to a data reduction process, whereby they were collapsed into more substantive codes and subsequently grouped together into categories. Finally each participant’s pathway through the transcript was traced by colour coding the categories within the transcript. This process relates to the ‘fit’ of categories whereby according to Parahoo (1997:357) ‘all instances of the phenomena under question related to the developing category and the fractured data come together as coherent whole’ It was hoped that by working with the data and revisiting the original transcripts the meaning and accuracy of the categories would become clearer. An example of an annotated transcript to show the coding can be found in the Appendices (Appendix H).

Following an inductive analysis of the data, four major themes were derived from the collected data during the conduct of fieldwork. These themes are presented in the following sections.

5.3.1 “Just how difficult it was”

During the teaching practice experience, the four target student teachers expressed a number of challenges, obstacles and the lack of support from school staff including regular classroom teachers in more than one incident. In addition, a sense of frustration, disappointment and an overall concern about pupils’ behaviour inside the classroom plus feelings of being disliked and unsupported by members of the school staff emerged.
Student teachers’ lessons seemed to quickly shift from a “focus on teaching” to a lesson on “order or discipline”. Regarding pupils’ behaviour, Seham for instance, expressed disappointment about pupils’ behaviour in class which she had not expected, “I was excited on one hand but disappointed on the other as I expected pupils to be easier to work with in order for the lesson to be taught in an easier way, but I found the opposite”. She had witnessed how the regular classroom teacher had struggled to manage the class due to poor behaviour. In addition, she stated that discipline was almost non-existent in classrooms, pupils were disruptive and some routinely did not bring in their textbooks so therefore forced had to share books with each other. She indicated that pupils then ended up being disruptive which as a result, made her teaching difficult, ‘the pupils were not serious and did not regard us as real teachers, we were only teachers that came in to do teaching practice that’s it...they looked at us as a substitute teacher...when the regular class teacher attended the class with the student teachers, pupils were more on their behaviour and were more respectful’.

Zara similarly shared her disappointment in pupils’ behaviour when asked about classroom management. She revealed that the majority of pupils in the classes she observed were not well-behaved and lacked discipline. She explained: “fifth graders and sixth graders were quite good but the seventh and eighth graders had an attitude and did not welcome us at all”. Zara drew attention to a particular lesson that proved more difficult than anticipated: ‘I can’t believe how difficult this class was to teach, I didn’t know whether to teach or discipline them, the lesson was easy but they made it seem difficult’. She added, ‘teaching was difficult but I was happy when they understood the lesson’. As a result, she mentioned that she was not looking forward to teaching this particular class (especially after hearing the negative feedback from another colleague who had previously taught the same class). Zara admitted, ‘I feel scared’, ‘I don’t like pupils that disrespect teachers, and I get very upset when they do that’. At one point, she asked another to teach: ‘you can teach them if you want, I am not looking forward to teaching them’, I have a headache now’. During the meeting, other student teachers engaged in a conversation around the fact that this specific class was a challenge to teach.

Khola similarly expressed concerns regarding pupil’s behaviour, "regarding pupils, I faced some problems with them ....they are not regarded as big problems but I found managing them and controlling the class was quite a challenge for me...some of the pupils were very misbehaved and that is one of the problems that I faced". Initial attempts at teaching were not positive and she referred to her expectations of teaching the second time round: ‘I hope this class is not like the first class I taught, that would be horrible’. It was apparent Khola felt overwhelmed by the pupils’ behaviour and dreaded teaching a class similar to one she had previously taught. During her post-
observation meetings with the researcher, she constantly complained about the amount of noise in the classrooms and how she found it difficult to discipline the pupils and get them on task.

Hala was equally challenged with teaching demanding classes. She expressed nervousness about teaching a particular eighth grade class as she had observed this same class being taught by one of her colleagues. When asked how she felt about teaching during the pre-observation meeting, she explained that her colleague had warned her about this particular class, "I am not happy to teach this class, I feel uncomfortable to have to teach pupils who are not cooperative, disrespectful and badly behaved." Hala had heard a lot of negative feedback about this class from her student teacher colleagues and was not looking forward to teaching them. During the pre-observation meetings, she admitted she was not interested in teaching this class because of the reputation of the pupils, and asked whether any of her colleagues were willing to teach this class, unfortunately, no one was.

Although student teachers struggled with pupil behaviour, some were able to deal with pupil behaviour in various ways. Being consistent and following through with consequences helps teachers manage student behaviour (Linsin, 2015). That was something Seham was determined to follow. She was calm and assertive during her lessons and set the rules from the very start. She provided encouragement and positive feedback to pupils in class that in turn helped pupils warm to her classes. Zara on the other hand, issued rewards such as stickers. Inconsistency is the fastest way to lose control of your class (Dunbar, 2004; Thornberg, 2007). In situations early on during teaching practice, Hala for instance, let misbehaviour go and yelled at pupils instead of enforcing consequences. This might show pupils that she was not in control and was not able to manage behaviour in the classroom. Hala could have simply approached the misbehaving pupil/s, informed them what rule they had broken and the consequence for breaking such rule, and turned and walked away instead of engaging in an argument with pupils or moving them from one place to another inside the classroom. Despite giving them constant reminders and warnings, she was unable to manage her class at the beginning of teaching practice. However, as time went by, Hala later on replaced her hard exterior with a much softer one. She seemed to realise that by smiling from time to time while she was teaching made a difference in the classroom atmosphere. She noticed that when she changed her attitude in class, pupils more often warmed up to her and began to like her and felt comfortable around her. Khola on the other hand, ignored minor disruptions and tried to build positive relationships with the pupils which in time backfired on her.
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5.3.2 “Alone, Ignored and Feeling Undermined”

Student teachers also made mention of a lack of support from members of the school including the regular teachers. There were times when regular teachers were undermining student teachers to the point where they were turning pupils against student teachers by saying to the pupils, “don’t worry I will repeat the lesson again for you”.

When setting out her experience, Seham described, “they gave us a normal look...there were some teachers that did not even care for our presence in school as they looked at us if we were low class”. She admitted being affected by school teachers’ behaviour towards herself and her colleagues to the point they felt as non-existent at times.

Zara shared similar feelings as Seham, “5th graders and 6th graders were quite good but the 7th and 8th graders had an attitude and did not welcome us at all and the same goes for the regular class teachers”. Zara was affected by the attitude of both the pupils and the teachers and the fact that she felt unwelcomed by them.

On this issue, Khola referred to a lack of interaction and felt isolated: “regarding the teachers, we did not mingle with them a lot at all or get to know them much except for the teachers whose classes we were going to teach, which was ‘English’. Khola explained that the school teachers with exception to the English language teachers, were not approachable and were not interested in getting to know them. Khola still remained positive, “as for the pupils, I feel that they were happy that we were there (in school) because a new teacher is here to teach them.” Like Khola, Hala also felt school teachers were unapproachable, “I did not interact with the schoolteachers a lot because they did not give us a chance to approach them”. Hala went on to describe an incident where she was made to feel particularly uncomfortable:

"I did not have serious problems but I did have an issue with one of the teachers while I was in the process of giving a lesson. I mean every person has their own way of teaching and have their different styles ...while I was teaching a lesson, the regular class teacher approached me and said ‘excuse me’ and started to teach the lesson and started saying ‘when we teach grammar we use a table and this and that’ but ok I wish she had let me finish the lesson before and then she could have pointed out whatever she wanted. It was not nice that she did that in front of the pupils in class. And when she interrupted me, I had nothing to say and just went and sat at the back of the classroom...”.

Hala highlighted a sense of disrespect by the class teacher and this may have explained why pupils were disrespectful to her during lessons. On the topic of whether her status as a student was respected in school, she replied, "not that much but there are some teachers that were happy and
supported us I think because they had gone through what we are going through now… but there are teachers that do not even bother to acknowledge us’’. Hala more from the school teachers: Hala added, ‘‘I expected the school teachers to be more accepting and welcoming…’’, adding ‘‘Not all teachers were accepting including the principal, from the way they looked at us, you felt as if they looked at us as strangers’’.

Zara also described feeling a lack of respect and support and commented,

‘‘only some of the teachers respected us but the majority did not…..there were some pupils that did not respect us but not all of them….and the principal did not respect us and made fun of us …the school did not provide or offer anything to us but Abdu Malik (supervisor) and you offered us a lot of advice and you showed on more than one occasion how to do things and how to teach and the same thing goes for Abdu Malik (supervisor)…as for the school no nothing… they did not help us at all and did not provide us with books and the syllabus… we brought them in from previous pupils who studied in schools last year…’’.

The only support and guidance given to the student teachers during teaching practice was the researcher’s (at the student teachers’ request) and the university supervisors’. A perceived lack of support was evident in one incident where Zara described that she felt quite nervous, as she was not properly prepared: ‘‘My lesson plan was still a mess. I was stuck and did not know what lesson to prepare’’, I called the regular class teacher, but she did not respond so I was not sure which lesson I was going to teach today’.

Student teachers expressed their concern of being observed and how that impacted on their teaching. For instance, Hala explained there were times during lessons that she felt dehydrated and especially after the regular class teacher decided to attend the lesson. She also made an interesting observation in through which she had said that she was able to have the opportunity to take charge of the class and practice and develop her teaching without hesitation when the researcher and supervisor were not present in class. She claimed she was able to explain the lesson better to the pupils without worrying about being observed by someone. In summary, she commented: ‘‘teaching practice taught me and prepared me for teaching and to be a teacher….I’ve been waiting to graduate and become a teacher and get allocated to a school and start work immediately….it’s nice you know….how to prepare and everything everything…I feel as if even if the inspector came to see me at school, I will know how to react because the presence of our supervisor helped us a lot….’’.

As described in this section, student teachers had struggled constantly with misbehaviour and lack of support in school. While in school with the agreement of the regular classroom teacher, they
received little support and guidance so at times turned to the researcher and university supervisor. In the face of poor classroom behaviour and feeling unwelcomed, they remained positive and optimistic as they looked forward to teach, this is outlined in the next section.

5.3.3 “Looking Forward to Teaching” (Desire and Determination)

Student teachers looked forward to becoming teachers. A great passion and desire to teach was evident. Some wanted to follow in the footsteps of family members whereas others simply wanted to fulfill their dreams of being an educator. Seham explained, “I feel happy to teach, I like teaching and like to teach pupils and give them what I have”. She further revealed: “teaching runs in the family...My sister is a teacher and my close relatives were teachers as well and I would like to follow in their footsteps”, “I think I think I teaching in school is ah...I expect that the coming stage will be better than previous stages as I personally will try to choose and use the best methods to make the lesson clear ....I excited about how to learn the students and how to explain the lesson ...I prepare I read the lessons very carefully and prepare the lesson and I will use posters and authentic material that may help students understand lesson more clearly...”.

Seham explained how she expects pupils to be taught and her part in this: “if we are to teach the same way our teachers taught us then we will not be able to improve and develop ourselves and will remain at the same level we are now” and adds “what I’m more concerned about is planning my lesson well carefully because that itself gives me confidence. If I had planned my lesson well then I have something to give to pupils".

Zara was also excited to become a teacher and shared: “I am very excited and can’t wait to see how the pupils interact with me”. She claimed this was something she always wanted to do: ”I am very happy and excited to be a teacher”, “it’s my passion, I have always wanted to be a teacher”. In her interviews her priorities became evident; “my main concern is that I give the lesson well and that pupils understand the lesson”. She also added that “hopefully, when I become a teacher I do not want to use the same style of teaching as teachers nowadays. I want to improve our education and encourage practice rather than just theory”.

Khola’s spoke genuinely and fondly about pupils and teaching. Through her narratives, she explained that ”teaching has always been my passion and that I had always seen myself as being a teacher”. She added”just the fact of thinking that I was going to start teaching, made my heart fill up with joy and happiness”. Khola explained what she was looking forward to and said: “I am looking forward to being a teacher and all of us (referring to herself and her colleagues) will all
graduate to be teachers... its just a pleasant feeling when you walk into a classroom and find yourself being the teacher... they hear what you say and how you explain the lesson”. Khola’s passion about teaching and interacting with pupils was evident and she had no doubt, while a difficult task, that she would not want to become a teacher: ‘Although I’m scared of the pupils, I am still excited to teach, I can’t help it (giggles quietly), I want to be a teacher, a good teacher.’

Student teachers expressed their feelings about teaching practice and how they had benefited from it. Hala for example, was aware of the benefits of longer and sustained teacher training and that new generations would have the opportunity to train before they start teaching: “I am concerned with training myself to be a good teacher...in order to help pupils learn and to be good at teaching, you have to always look for new ways in teaching...our generation at least now has a chance to do teaching practice but teachers before did not study this”. Hala referred to one aspect: “it has taught me to be confident and not be intimidated by the pupils ...and it has helped me to realize the relationship between a teacher and her pupils...I would like to be friendly to my students”.

Seham referred to her developing knowledge and that she had basis on which she can start qualifying teaching in schools:

“I felt normal ....I felt that something was added to my knowledge ...something new...I have gained experience, not a lot but was a great experience ...something that I can start from.

Her developing sense of confidence was evident:

“I feel that I am ready to teach from what I have taught and the curriculum, I feel that I have the ability to teach...I have benefited a lot from teaching practice because it gave me the chance to go through the experience of teaching in real life...I was given a class to be completely responsible for on my own...it taught me how to manage a classroom and how to give a lesson in 45 minutes and how to work with these 45 minutes and how to plan and teach a lesson...I am able to do this because of experience...excellent experience”.

Zara articulated how teaching practice had taught her to deal with pupils and how to be responsible for them:

“the most important thing is the pupils...how I can deal and manage pupils.....the most important thing is that they understand from me ...as for the school I’m not concerned with it, it’s not a problem for me...what I mean is the most important thing is the pupils...I will be responsible for them”.

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Learning to be accepted by pupils was important to Khola: “…the most important thing is that the pupils accept me as their teacher …they know that Khola is their teacher and that she is there to teach you not to be an evil person that may harm them in any way”. She added, “teaching practice taught me and prepared me for teaching and to be a teacher….I've been waiting to graduate and become a teacher and get allocated to a school and start work immediately….it's nice you know….how to prepare and everything everything…I feel as if even if the inspector came to see me at school, I will know how to react because the presence of our supervisor helped us a lot.…”

Despite evidence of student teachers struggling a great deal with pupil behaviour and the undermining of school teachers and staff, student teachers desire and passion to teach and become teachers became stronger and a more dominant theme. Student teachers enthusiastically explained how they were looking forward to teaching and interacting with pupils in schools. A strong determination, passion and desire to become teachers was evident in all four-target students. Although they had struggled during their teaching practice experience, they claimed they were getting used to teaching and being in school every day when the practice had come to an end.

5.3.4  “I just got the hang of it”

Interviews and conversations both revealed that student teachers were getting used to coming in each day to school, teaching in classrooms, being observed, planning lessons, finding resources, settling in, the teaching practice experience was over. Khola’s comment was indicative, “we got used to coming to teach in school early every morning to give lessons whether it was the first or last lesson for us to teach....TP helped us a lot... I really benefited a lot from teaching practice”.

Hala had got used to teaching practice and what she was involved in during her experience, “I can’t express my feelings...we got used to the school you know....if we had stayed in school it would have been better than returning here to university. Teaching practice taught me how to prepare my lessons step by step while at university this was not explained to us ...teaching practice prepared me for that” which shows how much they got the ‘hang of teaching’.

Seham explained how she had gotten used to teaching and more so to pupils’ misbehaviour: 'I think I am getting used to being a teacher and disciplining misbehaved pupils is just part of being a teacher’. She added, “I feel good, I can do teaching and pupils will misbehave but its normal”.

Zara claimed she was just beginning to overcome some nervousness and fear of teaching at the beginning but she had become used to it. Those initial feelings had changed: “in the first I feel a
little afraid but after that I got use to it. At the beginning ...I got very nervous but then...I felt alright ". Zara referred to a particular observation of some pupils due to the presence of the student teachers, "we noticed that pupils like us because we are new in school and because we are able to make them like their own teacher even more...and these pupils may even learn to like their regular teacher through us". She was in the opinion that pupils were attracted to new faces and perhaps pupils would learn to like their own class teacher through the student teachers.

Seham explained what she was involved in during her teaching practice experience, "regarding the lessons during teaching practice...inside the classroom there weren't many activities I could do because circumstances at that time were not helpful...I like activities and wanted to do them ...but I did use posters and I think those are the things and activities I was able to do .....During teaching practice, I brought in pictures to use for clarification, I planned and prepared lessons, taught lessons and classes to more than one level it wasn't just one class or one level or age group , it was a variety of levels and ages". She also explained how she felt teaching practice her during her experience in school: " teaching practice helped me a lot...teaching practice was a challenging period for me but I managed to get through the experience ... first of all it taught me how to manage pupils and how the teacher can deal with pupils inside the classroom, it taught me to take responsibility of a class of pupils and be responsible for more than one pupil...it really helped me a lot". In another explanation she added, " I learned how to deal with the pupils and how to manage them ...how to prepare, how to teach a lesson, how to not have priority pupils (students who I like and those who I do not like and treat them differently) individual differences".

As student teachers were getting use to being at school early every day, teaching and managing classrooms, 'Teaching Practice' had to come to an end.

5.3.5 "Not Long Enough"

As student teachers were getting use to a certain routine at school in which they came in early every day to either observe or be observed, teach and manage classrooms, 'Teaching Practice' had to come to an end. Feelings of sadness were expressed in several incidents as student teachers explained that if they were given a longer opportunity to teach in schools, they would have had a better relationship with pupils and perhaps with the schoolteachers as well, in addition to improving and developing their teaching skills. Zara for instance when asked how she felt now that she had completed teaching practice, she had this to say, 'Oh, I'm very sad that we have completed teaching practice ....I had gotten use to it a lot and seriously miss it ...I believe that it's better than being here (referring to university)....from all its aspects from every thing seriously"
She carried on to express how she would like teaching practice to be organized in the future for other students, she said,

"from my point of view, for me the period that was given for teaching practice was very short and not enough...I hope that teaching practice could be given from the beginning of the year...at least two to three months ...it was nice we got used to it and use to being teachers and the pupils got use to us and the same for us....".

She added, "I feel that being in school every day with pupils creates a bound between us...but if we are only there once a week then they will not get use to us and our relationship will become weak".

Seham also explained that she would want teaching practice to be organized in the future for other students, she expressed,

"in my point of view, I think teaching practice should be given from the beginning of the year...every Wednesday for example ...not in April for a few weeks only, it should be from the beginning of the year and continues on until the end of the year...student teachers get evaluated and assessed on that period that they teach first because it will be more useful and second it won’t be given all at one time as this will cause a lot of pressure on the student teacher".

While agreeing with Seham and Zara, Khola described how she felt when teaching practice had ended, she replied sadly,

"I’m not happy after finishing teaching practice because we just got used to it...during teaching practice, teaching , I prepared lessons , we learned that if the lesson had pictures that we would use posters to illustrate and clarify so pupils could understand more clearly...teaching practice helped us to be ready for teaching".

When asked how she would want teaching practice to be organized in the future for other students, she replied,

"I would want it to be longer and all year and no lessons or lectures in the faculty or university ....teaching practice would be taken in the fourth year all of year four I think that would be much better and much beneficial".

Hala also expressed her feelings about how she felt that teaching practice had ended and that she did not want to return to campus:
“I can’t express my feelings…we got use to the school you know….if we had stayed in school it would have been better than returning here to university…and another thing is that pupils that went to the school where we did teaching practice in were asked to not come to school for two weeks and the school was closed down. For this reason we did not feel that we were given a long opportunity to do practice teaching because of that I really wished it could have been longer...”.

When asked how she would want TP to be organized in the future for other students, she said:

"I would want it to be from the beginning of the year not at the very end....at least go to school once a week in order to get used to school and then start going everyday even if going everyday wasn’t from the beginning."

Summary

Findings from the interviews and conversations between the researcher and target student teachers indicate that the student teachers struggled with a number of similar issues during their teaching practice experience. Some of these being, issues regarding classroom management and pupil behaviour, in addition to feeling unwelcomed and undermined by classroom teachers, school staff and some pupils. Some expressed fear and nervousness and some were not looking forward to teaching lessons. Some were surprised at the amount of noise and chaos and pupil misbehaviour as they had witnessed how regular teachers themselves were struggling with misbehaviour, which in turn may have had an impact on student teachers' confidence in controlling a classroom. Some expected their experience to get better through time and some had no hope. Some expected support from the school and class teachers; however, the researcher and university tutor were their support through the TP experience.

5.4  Research Question Three

5.4.1  Findings from Lesson Observations

The aim of this study was to explore student teachers’ concerns and experiences during a sustained period of teaching practice in one university in the city of Azzawia in Libya. In this section, the researcher presents and discusses the findings on research question three that revolved around student teachers’ changes in practice across a period of school placement. The research question was as follows:
“What changes in the student teachers practice occurred across the period of school placement?”

5.4.1.1 Presentation of Student Teachers’ Instructional Performance

In this section, the researcher presents a detailed description as individual cases of the four target student teachers. She describes in detail each student teachers’ efforts in the classroom during the 7-week teaching practice. Each case with exception to Khola, begins with a summary of the four target student teachers’ co-teaching experiences (see Appendix P) for co-teaching lessons taught by ST’s) and then moves on to more detail on their teaching performance and the numbers of lessons taught by each participant. As a timeline of this section, the illustrations of the teaching behaviours of the student teachers are provided in detail. The researcher was present for each lesson in addition to the university supervisor who made frequent visits to assess student teachers’ teaching performance. As mentioned in previous sections, regular class teachers declined participation and were absent during the 7-week teaching practice period with exception to one teacher who attended one lesson at the beginning of the teaching practice experience.

It is necessary to point out that the regular class teachers were specific on which lessons they allowed target student teachers to teach. Student teachers did not have a choice nor much variety in the lessons they taught and for that reason, there were cases where student teachers occasionally taught the same lesson more than once to different classes. It was also evident that Zara, Seham, Hala, and Khola were trying to break the cycle of what they called ‘teaching the traditional way’ and wanting to incorporate games, fun activities, posters, artefacts into their lessons to make lessons as they stated ‘much more fun’. From the observation data, Zara, for instance, enjoyed making her own posters and games. She planned her lessons according to what she had learned through her university course and explained that she wanted to break the cycle of traditional teaching in Libyan classrooms. Seham and Zara, were interested in using artefacts in their lessons and they liked planning their lessons together with the addition of Hala. Unlike the other three student teachers, Hala was also keen on using posters and artefacts in her lessons however not as much as her colleagues. During post-observation meetings, when student teachers were asked about why they chose to use posters, artefacts, and games in their lessons, they replied that they wanted to break the cycle of traditional teaching in Libyan classrooms but never mentioned whether they had learned about these techniques either at university or elsewhere. That may have been the researcher’s fault as she did not follow up on this question. However, being a lecturer in the English Department (Faculty of Humanities) and once a student at the same university, the
researcher can confirm that the teacher education course (theory) includes a variety of strategies, techniques, games, artefacts, that preservice teachers might employ in lessons. Some teachers in Libyan schools still prefer to use the text book provided to them during lessons.

It is necessary to point out that due to the on-going conflict at the time of fieldwork, not all four target student teachers had equal teaching opportunities across the 7-week teaching practice period. The indicative experiences of three out of the four target student teachers (Seham, Zara and Hala) during their TP period, mainly focusing on independent teaching, are illustrated in the following sections. As for Khola, the target student teacher who had less teaching opportunities, both co-teaching and independent teaching opportunities are presented.

**KHOLA: “POSITIVITY”**

Khola, one of the target student teachers affected by the on-going conflict, was only able to teach three classes all together (one independent lesson and two co-teaching lessons) during the teaching practice period. Due to safety reasons, she was not able to travel to the practise school; therefore, it would be difficult to determine whether there were noticeable changes in her teaching given her limited teaching opportunities during the TP period. However, she was determined to remain as a participant in the study and be involved in the research.

Khola’s role as a teacher during her limited teaching opportunities during teaching practice could be expressed with one word ‘nerves’. During the pre-observation meetings, Khola’s comments expressed genuine motives towards teaching and being a good teacher. She spoke fondly about her excitement to teach ‘teaching has always been my passion and have always seen myself as being a teacher’. She added that ‘just the fact of thinking that I was going to start teaching, made my heart fill up with joy and happiness’. She smiled with anticipation of working with pupils and teaching overall. Such emotions would change when she entered her first classroom to teach for the very first time.

Before Khola’s first attempt at teaching (co-teaching with Hala), she and the researcher discussed during the pre-observation meeting, how she felt and what her expectations of teaching were and what her intended objectives of the lesson. Khola and the researcher discussed how to manage the class, how to discipline pupils and the appropriate tone of voice to use. Making way to the assigned class, Khola and her colleague Hala greeted each other and discussed what they were expecting out of this particular class. Upon entering pupils were well behaved and quiet. Both student teachers walked in, put their books on the table at the front of the class and greeted the pupils. The regular class teacher knocked on the door and asked permission to attend. Her
presence seemed to lead to a quiet atmosphere. Khola’s body language appeared relaxed at the beginning and was evident that she was comfortable in the class when the atmosphere in class was quiet and peaceful. Both student teachers co-taught eighth graders a lesson on ‘Different Jobs’. Khola taught the majority of the lesson and Hala was to lead the exercise in their workbook towards the end. Khola stood at the front of the classroom, made eye contact with all the pupils, greeted them and began her lesson. As Khola started the lesson, it seemed as if she was unprepared. The objectives were not clear and she forgot to write the title of the lesson on the board and explain the purpose of the lesson, which may have caused pupils to feel a little apprehensive. Khola started by writing some words and phrases on the board, and then asked the pupils to write them in their notebooks. While the class were busy writing, Khola walked towards a group of pupils who were observing others do the work and in Arabic said, ‘you don’t know how to write that’, ‘you spelt it wrong’, etc. She asked them: ‘Please where is your notebook?’ ‘Take it out and write’ pointing to the board. They replied in Arabic and said: ‘we didn’t bring our notebooks because we did not know that we had an English lesson today’. The regular class teacher stood up and approached the group of pupils and said in Arabic ‘without making any excuses, take out a piece of paper and write like the others are writing’. Khola felt relieved that the class teacher stepped in just. She looked up, put on a confident face and continued with the lesson. Her confidence showed in the way she was interacting with pupils in addition to the tone of her voice she was using.

Although Khola’s teaching style appeared to be attentive and showed great interest in the pupils, she struggled to explain some parts of the lesson, had difficulty getting the message across, and ended up explaining sections incorrectly. Hala, who was co-teaching with her at the time, stepped in and wrote an example on the board to clarify what Khola was trying to explain. From the pupils’ reactions to a question asked by Hala, it was evident that the pupils received the message successfully. Khola looked at Hala and said (in what she thought was in a soft voice), ‘thank you’ and continued with the remainder of the lesson. During the lesson, Khola also misused and mispronounced several words such as the word ‘money’ in which she used in the sentence “I have to take a money” which came to a surprise to some pupils in class. She also made another mistake but quickly acknowledged and corrected her mistake at the moment. She first said “what’s job your father?” but then corrected herself and said “what’s your father’s job?”. Khola mispronounced a word in a sentence as she said, “scarred of my face” instead of “scared of my face/mask” but did not acknowledge her mistake and continued with the lesson. Although some pupils in class recognized her mistakes, they continued to participate and were willing to do the exercise, activities and answer the questions in their course books. Khola attempted in several incidents to describe new words in English however always reverted to using Arabic. After Khola
taught her part of the lesson, Hala took over from there and did the exercise in the workbook with the pupils. From the pupils’ responses to the questions in their workbook, they struggled to get the answers correct and asked for an explanation each time they had made a mistake. While the regular teacher was standing beside a group of pupils, the researcher overheard the class teacher tell the pupils in Arabic, ‘do not worry, I am going to repeat the lesson another day’.

In Khola’s second lesson, she co-taught a lesson with Hala on ‘Jobs’ called “do you like your job”. During the pre-observation meeting, she said: ‘I will make you proud and teach much better than my previous lessons, ‘I was not prepared well for the last lesson’. Khola said goodbye and left the meeting room, as she wanted to set up the class before the pupils arrived. When entering the class, she had rearranged the chairs and had put up posters to use as teaching aids. She had some authentic material on her table such as, instruments used in a doctor’s office, tools used by a farmer and some other objects relevant to that day’s lesson. Pupils quietly started to enter the class and their attention was drawn towards the posters and objects on the table. Khola started the lesson, greeting them with a smile. She wrote the title of the lesson on the board, and explained the objectives of the lesson by saying in English: ‘today’s lesson is about job’. She then asked pupils to open their books on page 57. Khola further attempted to clarify the lesson objectives by asking pupils about the different types of jobs they could name. She said while walking across the room reading from her book ‘Is your father doctor?’ ‘Is your mother a teacher?’ ‘Is your sister a vet?’ Some of the pupils replied but the majority were quiet. During the progress of the lesson, Khola made clear and accurate attempts at explaining sections of the lesson. Her voice seemed less nervous while teaching as no hesitation was present during explanation, which might indicate that her teaching approach improved since her first attempt at teaching. The pupils in class were calm and well behaved. Pupils reacted to her in a positive manner and they were cooperative all through the lesson. They raised their hands to volunteer and participate each time she requested. In this particular lesson, Khola had got more involved with pupils and interacted with them in comparison to her previous lesson. She maintained pupils’ interest throughout the lesson by making sure that they all understood the lesson and responded to those who had difficulty in some parts of the lesson. One pupil chose to be silly and asked her ‘teacher, what is your job?’ She laughed and replied ‘you just answer your question’. The whole class giggled and the atmosphere seemed to be relaxed. She then asked the pupils to open their workbook on page 12 and chose students randomly to participate in answering questions to an exercise. ‘Who can answer no. 17?’ she asked. Pupils were quick to respond and began saying: ‘me, me, me, and me’. She seemed so involved with the lesson and the exercise that she had forgotten that Hala was supposed to co-teach the lesson with her. Hala stepped in and took over from where Khola stopped and completed the remaining exercises in the workbook. During the post-observation
meeting, Khola expressed her excitement for teaching and told the researcher that she would like good working realtionships with her students, 'I like to be their teacher and friend. I feel closer to them because they are closer to my age'. Khola indeed went on to befriend her students outside the classroom. She preferred having informal chats with them during recess. Observations suggest the students (pupils) enjoyed her company.

Before Khola’s third attempt at teaching, independently this time round, she and the researcher discussed the objectives of the lesson first. When asked how she had felt and what her expectations were of teaching this time round, she paused, looked down and said: ‘I hope this class is not the same class that the teachers complained about... that would be horrible’. She smiled and said: ‘although I am scared of these pupils, I am still excited to teach, I cannot help it... (giggles quietly), I want to be a teacher, a good teacher’.

The researcher and Khola depart the office where the pre-observation meeting took place and head off to the classroom anxiously. While walking up the stairs, Khola was nervously looking through her timetable trying to find the number of the classroom she was assigned to. The researcher’s instincts as a teacher kicked in as she placed a reassuring hand on Khola’s shoulder, and offered some encouraging advice. As Khola and the researcher made their way down the school hallway towards the classrooms, loud noise came from one particular class. Just then, both the researcher and Khola realised that this class, was actually the class she was assigned to.

Anxiously entering the classroom, both Khola and the researcher witnessed a number of pupils gathered at the front of the classroom scribbling on the board and making a lot of noise. The pupils’ facial expressions were expressionless at first, then one of the pupils gave an unwelcoming look and the others continued to stare and did not budge from their places. Khola stepped in and requested in Arabic: ‘take your seats and be quiet’. Khola stood at the front of the class, introduced herself and explained that she was going to be teaching them, while the researcher walked towards the back of the room and brushed the dust off one of the desks at the back of the room with a tissue and took a seat. The researcher noticed that there were posters and pictures hung on the wall and along the top of the whiteboard, displaying illustrations of the human anatomy, a map of the world and some grammar rules, which appeared to have been produced by pupils.

Khola took to the board and wrote the 7th of April on the left hand corner. She wrote the title of the lesson in the middle. She was going to teach fifth graders a lesson on ‘Opposites’. While Khola was busy writing on the board, a tall dark male stood up and said in Arabic, ‘I need to use to the toilet’. Khola gave him permission and he left. Other pupils stood up and asked if they were allowed to use the toilet as well. Pupils started laughing, throwing pens and erasers at each other.
while others continued to talk and make noise. Khola managed to keep calm for a while and attempted to calm them down several times using various approaches. However, after all her attempts proved to fail, she ended up getting upset and yelled in Arabic: ‘be quiet, sit down, what’s wrong with you?’. Not one pupil responded to what she was saying which led her to feel overwhelmed and undermined. Eagerly wanting to take control of the class, she decided that she had to start the lesson. As she was reaching for her book from off the table, she accidently knocked the book over and it fell to the ground. The class started to laugh again and her face became bright red. From her body language, it was evident that she was extremely overwhelmed. She attempted to wipe her sweaty hands with a tissue, made her way towards the back of the classroom, and approached the researcher. The researcher gave her some advice on how to calm the class down and how to earn the pupils’ respect. She nodded her head, took the advice and walked back to the front of the classroom. She warned the pupils in Arabic: 'if you do not to behave and remain quiet, the lesson will not be repeated by your regular teacher... and I will complain to your teacher about your behaviour'. The pupils who were causing the most chaos slowly calmed down and sat quietly. One of the pupils stood up and asked permission to speak. He said ‘we will be in big trouble’. The pupils promised Khola that they intend to be quiet for the remainder of the lesson and asked that she not tell their class teacher about their behaviour. Khola nodded her head, asked the pupil to take a seat and requested the class take out their books and open them on page 17, ‘sit down and open books on page 17’. Khola started the lesson by jotting down the new words on the board (some of which pupils had been familiar with from previous lessons). She wrote:

**Big /small**

**Tall/short**

**Long/short**

**Hot/cold**

**New/old**

Khola used a variety of material for clarification. She picked up several pictures and began asking pupils to tell her what they could see in the pictures. She pointed at a dog and asked:

‘What do you see in picture no. 1? ’ and wrote this on the board:

A ........ bird.

A number of pupils were surprised and some shouted out the answers and said:
'A dog'.

Her eyes widened and she stared at the pupils in surprise. She said:

'No, this is a bird'.

The pupils looked at each other and sighed. Just then she turned the picture round and realized that she had picked out the wrong picture by mistake. She apologized and picked up the picture of the dog and said:

'This is a dog’... ’is this dog big or small?’

Pupils raised their hands to participate and were cooperative which made Khola feel more at ease. She smiled and continued on with the rest of the pictures. Unfortunately, she made several spelling mistakes and wrote the following on the board:

‘Hug’ instead of ‘huge’

‘Hut’ instead of ‘hot’

She also mispronounced words such as ‘huge’, ‘school’, ‘class’, ‘homework’...etc. which in turn was corrected by some of the pupils in class. Khola acknowledged her mistakes, corrected them and continued with the lesson. After briefly completing the explanation of the ‘opposites’, Khola encouraged pupils to further participate by asking them to come to the board and fill in the gaps using adjectives. A number of pupils participated but not all. Some sitting in the back were yawning, others looking anxiously at their watches. Feeling a little anxious, Khola was saved by the bell. She asks the pupils to do homework on page 27 and dismissed the class.

Summary of Khola’s Teaching Experience

Being able to attend university and come to school to participate in the teaching practice experience proved a considerable challenge for Khola. She was one of the unfortunate student teachers dislocated due to the conflict in Libya. Although she expressed excitement to teach and showed confidence in herself during the pre-observation meetings, the way she had behaved during the three lessons she had taught reflected the opposite completely. Her nervousness during the pre-observation meeting was consistent but this changed across the lessons. During the post-observation meetings, she constantly complained about the amount of noise in classrooms and how she found it difficult to discipline pupils. Khola was only able to teach a few lessons. It was quite difficult to determine whether her concerns about teaching had really changed in any way or whether her teaching had progressed. However, the researcher did feel a noticeable change in Khola’s behaviour towards teaching and the pupils as time passed. By the
time she taught her third lesson, it was evident they she had become more confident and prepared in lessons.

As mentioned earlier in this section, the indicative experiences of three out of the four target student teachers (Seham, Zara and Hala) during their TP period mainly focus on independent teaching. Notes taken during their co-teaching experiences can be found in Appendix P.

SEHAM: “ROUTINES AND RELATIONSHIPS”

Classroom Observation Narrative

Seham taught 14 lessons in total (6 co-teaching and 8 independent teaching) during her teaching practice experience. In regards to her co-teaching sessions, she taught 6 lessons with Zara (one of these being shared with Hala as well). Notes taken during her co-teaching lessons can be found in Appendix P.

During Seham’s first pre-observation meeting before teaching her first lesson independently, she expressed interest in teaching ‘I feel happy to teach, I like teaching and like to teach pupils and give them what I have. She added, ‘teaching runs in the family. My sister is a teacher and my close relatives are teachers as well…I would love to follow in their footsteps’. While following the school curriculum, from a brief examination of her notebook, she was organised and prepared for the day’s lesson. Notes were written neatly and showed considerable detail on how her lesson was organized and prepared. The researcher asked whether she was taught this at university, she replied, ‘no, no, my sister is a teacher and I took her notebook and did like her’. She expressed that the university had not provided information on how to organise lesson plans in their teacher notebook, and the input was restricted to a template to follow. After the brief pre-observation meeting, both Seham and the researcher departed for the assigned classroom.

On approaching the assigned classroom, Seham knocked on the classroom door, but no one answered. She opened the door slowly to find that the only person in the room, was the cleaning lady. Struggling to see the cleaner clearly through the thick dust covering the classroom, Seham asked whether this was class (8/4). Not aware of which classroom she was cleaning, the cleaner replied in Arabic and said, ‘I don’t know I’m only the cleaning lady’. As Seham was speaking to the cleaner, a school staff member was walking down the hallway. The researcher approached the staff member and asked, ‘is this room (8/4) or have they been relocated elsewhere?’ The staff member took a folded piece of paper out of her pocket and checked for the class and the pupils. She replied in Arabic, ‘Oh, these pupils have been sent to another class downstairs on the second
floor...they are now waiting for you in room (7/5), sorry about that’. Seham and the researcher arrived to the classroom and Seham was the first to enter. She placed her bag and books on the teacher’s table and greeted the pupils, ‘Good morning’. Seham wrote the title of the lesson on the board with an explanation of the objectives of the lesson. The first task was to debrief the pupils on a previous lesson on ‘opposites’ taught by their regular class teacher. Seham asked what they had learned from the previous lesson and give her some examples of words and their opposites. Although pupils seemed eager to speak up and participate when asked as a whole group, they were less keen when asked individually. During the lesson, one pupil asked in Arabic, ‘what is the meaning of opposite?’ Seham explained in detail what opposite meant by presenting several examples on the board. She then showed some colourful pictures to the pupils and asked participants to approach the board and pin the correct picture beside the matching word. Seham wrote the following words were on the board:

**Big/******

**Short/******

**Happy/******etc.

Looking at her watch, Seham realised that the school bell was about to ring. She asked pupils to do Section ‘B’ and ‘C’ for homework. She cleaned the board, collected her belongings and waved goodbye as the bell started to ring.

During Seham’s second pre-observation meeting and before teaching her second lesson, she described what she was going to teach and what activities she had in store for the pupils. The researcher asked how she was feeling and what her expectations for this lesson were. Using a combination of Arabic and English, she explained she intended to use various objects to make the lesson more stimulating and productive.

Entering the classroom, Seham greeted the pupils then asked one of them to help her with the door as she was carrying many things in her hands. Some pupils started unpacking their book bags and settled down; others were turning in homework Seham had set in the previous lesson. Seham began her lesson by reviewing the previous session. She wrote down an exercise on the board and asked pupils to complete this in eight minutes. Pupils were cooperative moving from one question to another smoothly helping each other along the way. Meanwhile, Seham invited four volunteers to come up to the board to write their answers for the whole class to discuss. This technique kept the pupils engaged. The lesson went smoothly and Seham and the pupils were satisfied with the outcomes of the lesson. Seham completed her lesson and dismissed the class after the bell rang.
During the post-observation meeting, Seham, the researcher and the university supervisor discussed the details of the lesson, as well as her successes and opportunities for improvement. She explained how she felt her class went well and had this to say: ‘I think the lesson was good and they understood me well’. She explained, ‘pupils at this particular age need something to stimulate them and help them engage in the lesson. Pupils do not like boring lessons, they like lessons that are fun and creative’.

During Seham’s third pre-observation meeting and before her third lesson opportunity, she met with the researcher to discuss issues relevant to her lesson. Seham again expressed great interest and excitement to teach, ‘I hope they like me and enjoy the lesson’. Seham and the researcher walked up the stairs to the classroom, knocked on the door and entered the classroom. She greeted the pupils who were all standing when she entered the class. Seham said, ‘please sit down’. She moved towards the teacher’s table in the corner of the room and placed her personal belongings on it. She tip toed (wearing high heels) quietly towards the classroom door and waited for the rest of the pupils to arrive. As the pupils approached the classroom, she smiled and greeted them and asked them to take a seat. She closed the door, moved towards the whiteboard, and wrote the title of the lesson on the board. Seham began the lesson with an informal chat and asked pupils how they were doing while introducing herself, ‘How are you’...‘My name is Seham and I will be teaching you English for the next 7 weeks’. From the look on some of their faces, they were not quite sure whether they fully understood her, one pupil stood up and said, ‘teacher, are you going to teach us until the end of the year or just a short period of time?’ Seham replied ‘only 7 weeks’. The majority of pupils seemed pleased with her presence from their facial expressions. Some smiled and others were eager to participate from the very beginning. Pupils spoke politely and sat quietly. The majority were well behaved with exception to a group of male pupils sitting towards the back of the classroom. These continuously interrupted Seham and made jokes during the lesson. Some started arguing with each other over a pencil. She asked them calmly, ‘please keep quiet and sit down’. After attempting to discipline the misbehaved pupils, she then moved towards her bag and reached for some colourful objects. She held them up for all the class to see and asked whether pupils could guess, what today’s lesson was about. The researcher heard two male pupils whispering in Arabic, ‘I like football, oh by the way, did you watch last night’s match Barcelona against Manchester?’ Some of the other male pupils seemed interested in the topic of the lesson and started a conversation on the types of sports they liked playing. Seham walked around the classroom and asked pupils about their favourite sports and activities while displaying pictures of people cycling, watching TV, fishing, reading, listening to the radio...etc. She encouraged pupils sitting in the back of the class to
participate and asked them whether they would like to take part in the conversation. She said, ‘Come on, what activities do you like?’ Some welcomed her gesture to participate in the activity; however, a few shied away and kept to themselves. Seham moved to an activity on matching verbs. She invited pupils to come to the board and participate. Towards the end of the lesson, some pupils disrespected Seham and their fellow classmates by acting up and behaving inappropriately. Seham’s facial expressions changed completely, she was not going to tolerate such behaviour. She sent one of the pupil’s to the principal’s office to report this behaviour. Five minutes later, the door knocked and a staff member from the principal’s office entered the classroom. The atmosphere in the class went so quiet; you could hear a needle drop on the ground. The staff member told the pupils off, warned them, and then left the classroom. Just minutes after his departure, pupils started to misbehave once again. Seham put her books on the table and placed her marker on the edge of the board. She started yelling, ‘sit down, be quiet, why is there so much noise?’ The staff member heard the noise and returned to the classroom once again. He asked Seham to point out the source of noise. Seham said, ‘I don’t know what happened to them, they were quiet and well-behaved all through the lesson, however, towards the end something or someone (looking straight at the misbehaved pupils) triggered all this noise and chaos’. The pupils were saved by the bell. Seham picked up her belongings, left the class looking down, and upset. During the post-observation meeting, she told the researcher and supervisor that she thought that her lesson went extremely well until the incident occurred at the very end. The researcher and supervisor both reassured her that her lesson went well and that she had achieved the lesson objectives.

During lesson four, Seham was assigned to teach the 7th grade a lesson on housework. She walked into the classroom and greeted the pupils ‘good afternoon’. Seham still appeared shaken from the previous lesson. She began the lesson informing pupils of her expectations. Some pupils were not paying attention, others were reaching for their course books, some were chatting with their classmates, and a few seemed sleepy. She asked them to settle down and take their books out, ‘please be quiet and take your books out and pay attention to the lesson’. She began by writing the new words on the board and explained their meanings in English. Seham asked pupils to open their course book on page 45 and asked volunteers to participate in reading a dialogue from the course book, then asked them to role-play the conversation. She continued on to another exercise where pupils were asked to change verbs from the present to the past. Pupils were eager and willing to participate and you could her ‘me, me, me, me’ all through the lesson. They seemed to enjoy the lesson as they were discussing it amongst each other. One pupil explained a specific point to another pupil who did not quite understand what Seham had said in English. He explained in Arabic, ‘housework means when your mom asks you to clean your room or the house’. 
Chapter 5

Seham ended the lesson by briefly reviewing the entire lesson. Pupils were asked to do homework in their workbook, 'please do section C on page 44'. She picked up her books, bag and marker and walked towards the door. A pupil came up to her and said in a very soft voice, ‘thank you, teacher’. Seham smiled and replied, ‘thank you’.

Lesson five was a 7th grade class on "House work". During the pre-observation meeting, Seham and the supervisor had only limited time to discuss the lesson objectives and how she felt about teaching her fifth lesson. The researcher and Seham spoke briefly, on how her previous lessons had gone, however, much of the focus was on that day’s lesson. Not knowing precisely which lesson she was teaching that day, she informed the researcher that it was a lesson she had taught before. When asked how she felt, she smiled, 'It is easy, it’s the same lesson I gave last week’. The researcher was happy that she felt relaxed and calm. Seham and the researcher rushed up the stairs to make it on time for class. Approaching the classroom, both Seham and the researcher looked at each other. No sound could be heard, not even a screeching of a chair. Seham knocked on the door while slowly pushing the door open. Eight pupils were sat on their own doing nothing. She asked where the rest of the class were. A pupil commented in Arabic, 'I just heard the bell ring, which means recess should be over by now’. Seham looked at her watch every now and then, waiting for the rest of the class to arrive. No one appeared. Seham decided to begin the lesson. She explained the objectives of the lesson and showed the present pupils a picture of a young girl tidying a house. She walked around the room and asked whether pupils tidied up around their homes, some replied, ‘yes’. She walked up and down the room making small talk with some of the pupils. She approached a girl at the back and asked whether she helped her mom around the house this morning. The girl seemed caught by surprise, her face became red and she started mumbling in Arabic, ‘choose someone else teacher, I do not know’. She then hid her face in the table. Seham thought she was giggling and asked her to ‘stand up’. While Seham was busy, asking the pupil why she was laughing, the rest of the class barged in, took their seats and did not acknowledge that there was a teacher standing at the back of the class. Seham moved quickly towards the front of the class. With a hesitant voice, she asked ‘why do you think it was appropriate behaviour for you to just push the door open and walk in without taking permission’. Some giggled and some made side comments. She was not happy with this behaviour saying she had a lesson to complete. Seham returned to her lesson and continued asking pupils about the types of house chores they do around the house. Those who participated, echoed ‘tidy the living room’, ‘clean my room’, ‘do washing up’, ‘take out the rubbish’, however, the others seemed disengaged. She wrote some of the pupils’ replies on the board:

Tidy the living room/do the washing up/clean my room/take out the rubbish/etc.
Seham asked volunteers to role-play a relevant conversation on the topic. She chose four pupils randomly and asked them to come to the front and practice the conversation. Pupils who took part in the activity did well whereas others continued misbehaving. Seham attempted numerous times to discipline them constantly saying, 'be quiet, behave or I will have to punish you', however they were just too much for her to handle. She continued with her lesson, jotted down some words on the board, and encouraged pupils to change the verbs from the ‘present tense’ to the ‘past tense’. Here are some of the examples she wrote on the board:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present</th>
<th>Past</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Clean</td>
<td>Cleaned</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Water</td>
<td>Watered</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Answer</td>
<td>..........</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Make</td>
<td>..........</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sweep</td>
<td>..........</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tidy</td>
<td>..........</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

While she was listening carefully to the pupils' responses, she noticed that some of them were not aware of the regular and irregular verbs therefore began asking them individually which of the verbs on the board were ‘regular’ and ‘irregular’

- e.g. clean (regular) = past ...
- Look after (regular) = past ...
- Water (regular) = past ...
- Make /sweep/tidy ...etc. (irregular)

As she was explaining the verbs to the pupils, the bell rang and the class ended. Seham told the pupils that they had to do Section 'B' and 'C' from their course book as homework. She waved goodbye and left the classroom.

Prior to lesson six, Seham expressed during the pre-observation meeting that she was getting used to teaching, 'I think I am getting used to being a teacher and disciplining misbehaved pupils is just part of being a teacher'. She added, 'I feel good, I can do teaching and pupils will misbehave but it’s normal'. She taught the 7th grade a lesson on dates and birthdays. Entering the classroom, she took a deep breath, held her head high, and walked into a noisy classroom. She placed her books on the table, took a marker out of her bag and began writing the title of the lesson at the top of the board. She turned around greeted the pupils 'Good morning' and began the lesson. She
wrote down the following on the board and asked the pupils if they were willing to come up to
the board and match the words to the numbers. She said in Arabic, ‘Come on, I know you know
the answers because your regular teacher had already explained this to you’.

1\textsuperscript{st} third
2\textsuperscript{nd} fourth
3\textsuperscript{rd} sixth
4\textsuperscript{th} fifth
5\textsuperscript{th} second
6\textsuperscript{th} first

Several pupils raised their hands and seemed willing to participate. Some came up to the board.
She went over the dates and explained answers given by other pupils to make sure they
understood the exercise. She assigned homework, gathered her books, markers and a bag and
waved goodbye and said in Arabic, ‘Asalam Alikum’ which means goodbye in Arabic.

During the post-observation meeting, when being asked how her lesson had gone, she said ‘I feel
better in today’s lesson, it was easy and the pupils were behaved’ as opposed to previous lessons.
Seham had kept calm all through the lesson and was much more hands on this time round. She
used a low tone of voice and smiled more frequently, which in turn made the pupils feel much
more comfortable. She managed behaviour quite well during the lesson as she listened more and
yelled less.

Upon arrival for lesson seven, some pupils were standing at the front of the classroom when the
bell rang, as others yet arrived. A female pupil raised her hand and asked whether Seham was
going to teach them. Seham replied, ‘yes’ and asked students if they had a nice weekend. By
coincidence, she walked towards the window and looked out. A powerful ‘BOOM’ from a distance
followed by smoke, could be heard and seen from the classroom. Seham looked in fear out the
window, while some pupils commented, ‘it’s going to be one of those days’. Although Seham and
the pupils present were visibly shaken, she initiated side conversations with a few pupils who
remained beside the windows while waiting for the rest of the class to arrive. Seham decided to
start the lesson and wrote the lesson objectives on the board while still engaging with the pupils
who appeared to be frightened from the incident. As she started to write the new vocabulary on
the board, another loud sound could be heard from a very near distance, which startled the
pupils, Seham and the researcher. Dark smoke was coming from a garage opposite of the
schoolbuilding. In the background, screams could be clearly heard, people saying in Arabic, ‘WHY?
how did this happen?’ praying in distress. Seham and the pupils rushed to see what was happening. Slamming of doors could be heard in the hallway as teachers became concerned whether they should continue with their lessons or inform parents to come and collect their children. One teacher was heard saying in Arabic ‘No, keeping pupils in school is a big responsibility and I will not put this responsibility on my shoulders’. While another teacher said, ‘it was just a fire in a garage not a shooting’. The researcher and Seham opened the class door to find teachers dismissing pupils to go home. The researcher advised Seham to assign homework to the pupils and dismiss them as well. Pupils collected their belongings and left the classroom. A female pupil stood outside the classroom crying. Seham approached her and asked why she was crying. The pupil said, ‘my dad is at work and I do not have anyone to take me home’. Seham comforted her and offered to give her a ride home. The researcher advised Seham to take permission from the principal first then call her mom second to see whether they allow her to take this pupil home. The researcher made sure everything was all right before she rushed herself home to see her daughter and parents.

During Seham’s eighth lesson, she taught a lesson on ‘Dates and Birthdays’. Seham started her lesson with writing the lesson objectives on the board. She started with an icebreaker and asked pupils about when their birthdays are and what presents they like to get on their birthdays. A limited number of pupils seemed enthusiastic about the lesson; however, some responded and encouraged others to participate as well. Some pupils became very anxious as time passed by and started to look at their watches. Seham noticed that some became unsettled so she decided to change the atmosphere in the classroom and play a game relevant to birthdays. The activity gained a lot of interest amongst the pupils and the lesson outcomes were achieved. Pupils answered the exercises correctly and were keen on Seham teaching them in further lessons. One pupil said, ‘teacher, always come and teach us’. Seham was very happy with the outcomes, collected her belongings and greeted the pupils goodbye.

Summary of Seham’s Teaching Experience

Seham’s teaching style was purposeful, calm and authoritative throughout her lessons. Although she had some challenging and difficult rough first classes, things improved. At times, she was nervous, but managed to stay focused and keep order in the classroom. There was a noticeable change in both her instructional behaviours she gained more tolerance towards pupils’ behaviour, which in turn led to achieving her lesson objectives with less frustration and her teaching style as she began to implement her routines and showed genuine concern for developing relationships with pupils, surrounded by chaos and conflict. The majority of pupils generally engaged in her lessons and were active participants with exception to a small group of
male pupils who proved somewhat difficult. The explosion nearby, visibly shook both Seham and the researcher who took it upon herself to advise Seham to follow the health and safety direction of other teachers and ensure that the parents of the one child can be contacted.

**ZARA: ‘CREATIVITY AND FUN’**

*Classroom Observation Narratives*

Zara taught 12 lessons in total (6 co-teaching and 6 independent teaching) during her teaching practice experience. In regards to her co-teaching sessions, she taught 5 lessons with Seham and 1 lesson with Hala. Notes taken during her co-teaching lessons can be found in Appendix P.

Prior to teaching her first lesson, Zara said, ‘I am very happy and excited to be a teacher’ and further commented in Arabic ‘it’s my passion, I have always wanted to be a teacher’. She expressed her expectations of teaching while shaking her head from side to side by saying: ‘well, I think the pupils will be polite and enjoy my lesson’. The university supervisor, who was present during the meeting, offered Zara brief advice on how to manage the class and how it was essential to follow her lesson plan. She nodded her head and said ‘Inshallah’, which meant ‘hopefully’ in Arabic. She appeared quite optimistic before the lesson and smiled frequently while making some humorous comments about teaching and pupils. Before heading for the classroom, she giggled and whispered to her colleague in Arabic, ‘I hope they don’t lock me out of the room like they did to the other teacher’.

As the researcher and Zara walked towards the classroom, they spoke about the lesson objectives and the pupils. Zara sounded calm and confident. She walked towards the door, knocked and then entered the class. She put her books, bag on the table, and started to set the class up before pupils arrived. The sixth grade lesson was on ‘Sports’. As pupils entered the classroom, some smiled while others stared at Zara, which seemed a little uncomfortable for a moment. Pupils made a lot of noise on their way in, so Zara yelled, ‘hurry up, come in, why are you taking so long to get in, please sit down’. She spent a while disciplining them and continued yelling ‘be quiet’, ‘sit down’, why are you laughing, which in turn caused the pupils to act up even more. After many attempts from Zara, pupils finally settled down. She asked the pupils to take out their books and said, ‘open your course book on page 34’. She introduced the new vocabulary on the board and pupils were asked to write them in their notebooks. Pupils sitting at the front of the room, engaged in an argument over a piece of paper, some started making faces, while others interrupted her and said ‘why do we need to write these words in our notebooks when we already have time on our course book?’ Retaining a firm strong tone to her voice, she ignored what they said and insisted they do as they were told. Zara looked at her watch constantly. With no time to argue, she sent them to the back of the class, and said in Arabic, ‘stand with your faces towards
the wall’. She attempted to pick up where she had stopped; the pupils were still making noise and were continuously laughing. Zara stood silent, took a deep breath and attempted to calm them down once again. This proved unsuccessful and too overwhelming for her.

Amidst the noise, Zara held her book up, began reading some text from the course book, and requested they read along with her. She began asking questions such as ‘do you like basketball?’ Some volunteered to participate and replied, ‘yes, I do’, ‘no I do not’. Zara used a smiley face she made herself at home to express ‘like’ and a sad face to express ‘dislike’. The class interacted with Zara and seemed to enjoy the lesson after all. Zara gave the pupils an exercise relevant to the lesson to which the majority of the class responded well. Homework was assigned to the class and the lesson ended. Regardless of how nervous she might have been during the lesson, she managed to complete the lesson and achieve the outcomes of the lesson.

During the post observation meeting, she expressed shock and had this to say in Arabic, 'I can't believe how difficult this class was to teach, I didn't know whether to teach or discipline them', the lesson was easy but they made it seem difficult'. She carried on to say, 'teaching was difficult but I was happy when they understood the lesson'.

In Zara’s second attempt at teaching, the researcher checked her second lesson plan. Her lesson plan was clear and organised quite neatly in her notebook. It included a detailed description of the lesson objectives and the techniques and strategies to achieve these objectives. Zara started the lesson by explaining the main objective of the lesson, which was 'regular' and 'irregular' verbs. She introduced a warm up activity where she tried to prompt responses from the pupils related to 'regular' and 'irregular' verbs and in which she managed to get pupils ready to engage in the main grammar task. She drew a table on the board providing examples of verbs and asked volunteers to come to the board and place the letter 'R' beside the 'regular' verbs and 'IR' beside irregular verbs. Having distinguished which verbs were which, she then randomly pointed to a pupil sitting in the back and her to change the verb 'go' to the past. The pupil responded giving a wrong answer. Zara used the pupil's wrong answer to help explain the difference between both verbs and explained how important it was to not mix between the both. Pupils were then requested to work in pairs and change the verbs on the board to the past. With a smile on her face, she circulated the room and monitored the pupils carefully. She was very attentive to their needs and made sure that all learners understood how to change verbs to the past. She rewarded correct answers by praising pupils and asking the class in Arabic, 'Come on, clap he/she did a good job...all of you did a good job, WELL DONE!!' The pupils behaved well and appeared interested in the lesson. After explaining the lesson, pupils were asked, 'please open your books on page 47 section
B. Pupils appeared to have understood the lesson from their responses to the exercise and the majority were happy to participate. Zara was also satisfied with her performance.

In lesson three, Zara walked into the classroom, put her personal belongings down on a dusty desk at the front of the room, greeted the pupils and asked them to take a seat. She began her lesson by initiating a conversation, which she had previously used as a warm-up activity. She placed her hand on her shoulder and said, ‘My birthday is next Monday’, she then asked ‘What date is my birthday?’ Pupils looked at each other and seemed unclear as to why she had asked this question until they noticed one pupil looking through a calendar. This prompted the rest of the class into searching for the date in their calendars. She continued with the conversation and randomly chose a female pupil sitting in the second row. Zara asked the pupil, ‘when is your birthday?’ and the pupil replied, ‘March’. Zara clarified the lesson objectives and informed the pupils, ‘today’s lesson is about dates and birthdays’. Zara pulled out a large colourful calendar and pinned it on the right hand side of the board. In addition, she drew another calendar on the left corner of the board; she then explained to pupils how to abbreviate numbers. She gave examples and wrote this down on the board:

First=1st
Second=2nd
Third=3rd
Fourth=4th etc.

She encouraged pupils to participate and come to the board. One pupil standing beside the board was asked: “what day is the 3rd of May?”. The pupil points to the day on the calendar and writes the correct answer. Zara put her hands together, applauded and encouraging others to do so. This activity was repeated several times with a number of pupils. The pupils were cooperative as they showed politeness and good manners. One male offered to clean the board while another helped her with the calendar. From Zara’s facial and body gestures (smiled, applauded, moved freely around the class, eyes lit up when pupils made accurate answers) all were strong indications she felt comfortable in class and was enjoying the lesson. Zara then held her book in her hand and started going through the pages until she found section ‘A’. She read the cardinal numbers from the section, and then asked pupils to write these numbers in words. Examples of birthdays and dates familiar to the pupils were also presented. She repeatedly encouraged participants to come to the board to write the answers. A dialogue was written on the board and Zara asked for a volunteer. Two pupils raised their hands; she chose both to do the dialogue in turns with her being one of the speakers. The following dialogue was presented on the board:

Teacher: “what day is the 3rd of May?”
Pupil: “Wednesday”
Teacher: “what day is the 19th of May?”
Pupil: Friday
Teacher: “what day is the 31st of May?”
Pupil: Wednesday
Teacher: “what day is the 2nd of May?”
Pupil: Tuesday
Teacher: “what day is the 6th of May?”
Pupil: Saturday

Pupils were interested. Zara continued asking pupils about their birthdays and the dates of special occasions. She encouraged them to do the activities in the workbook and praised them when they answered the questions correctly. Zara rarely had to discipline pupils apart from one male pupil who seemed to not be interested. Just as Zara was about to say goodbye and leave (exit) the class, she realised she had not assigned homework, so she asked the pupils to do section C from their workbook.

Zara’s fourth lesson was on ‘Sports’ and was taught to six graders. During the pre-observation meeting, Zara mentioned she was not looking forward to teaching this particular class especially after hearing the negative feedback from Seham who had previously taught them. Zara said, ’I feel scared’, interrupting in Arabic, ‘I don’t like pupils that disrespect teachers, I get very upset when they do that’. Looking towards a colleague of hers, she commented in Arabic ‘you can teach them if you want, I am not looking forward to teaching them’, I have a headache now’. During the meeting, other student teachers referred to this class as challenging. Zara appeared unhappy, and while walking up the stairs to the second floor, she asked the researcher whether she would step in if the class became too overwhelming. The researcher assured her that she would do her best. As Zara entered the class, a loud male voice said ‘NOOOOOOOOOOOO’. Zara walked in, put her bag on the table and pointed at the pupil who had made that loud sound and warned him if he repeated that once more; she would have to report him to the principal. He sat down and started mumbling something. She greeted the pupils, set up the classroom and began her lesson regardless of the noise. She started the lesson as pupils slowly settled down. She introduced the new vocabulary on the board and asked pupils to open their books on page 44. Zara used two types of resources the assigned course book and visual aids such as colourful cardboard illustrations and real life objects such as a basketball, football, and tennis racket all of which she had borrowed from the school auditorium. As she pinned the illustrations on the board, she asked volunteers to match these illustrations with the new vocabulary on the board. For instance,
Basketball (picture of boy playing basketball)............court
Baseball (picture of a man playing baseball) ............field etc.

After explaining the above, pupils were asked to open their course books on page 46. Zara then began by reading some statements from the book and asked pupils to read after her. She held up a basketball and asked:

'Do you like basketball'? Yes, I do / No, I do not.

She points at a male pupil and asks the rest of the class whether they think he likes or dislikes basketball. They responded: ‘yes, he does’. Zara reminded them of the words ‘like’ and ‘dislike’ and wrote them in a small box at the top of the board:

Dislike = he/she/it (does not like)... I /you/we/they (do not like)

Zara made sure that she encouraged not only the pupils who were active but also those who have not voiced themselves including the misbehaved ones. She suggested 'let’s play a game’. She divided the class into three groups, the first group was given basketball, the second was given football and the third was given a tennis ball to hold. Pupils were asked to name a famous team or sportsman/woman relevant to the gear they were holding. One pupil held the football up and shouted out, ‘Ronaldo’, another shouted, ‘Mike’ (whom the researcher guesses he was referring to Magic Mike, the American Basketball player…but still not sure). Pupils had fun naming all the famous teams and sportsmen they were familiar with. There was a positive change in the class environment; it was livelier than the beginning of the lesson. By the time the game was over, the school bell rang and pupils laughed and commented in Arabic, ‘this was fun...at least the end of it’. Just as they were starting to pack their bags to leave, Zara assigned Section ‘C’ to do as homework. She gathered her belongings and waved goodbye as she was leaving the classroom.

Prior to the fifth lesson, Zara felt nervous. She was not properly prepared when asked how she felt about today’s lesson. She explained in Arabic, ‘my lesson plan was still a mess. I was stuck and did not know what lesson to prepare. I called the regular class teacher, but she did not respond so I was not sure which lesson I was going to teach today.’ The school bell rang. Zara was not looking forward to teaching the lesson. Making her way up the stairs towards the class, the regular class teacher walked out of the staff room and bumped into Zara by coincidence. Zara was relieved to see her even if it was last minute. They agreed that she would teach lesson 5 on likes and dislikes. Zara smiled and sighed in relief. She had previously taught this particular lesson to another class. She knocked on the door and entered the classroom. She started by greeting the pupils and asked ‘how are you?’ some replied as others just looked. She began the lesson with a brainstorming activity where she tried to prompt responses from pupils related to ‘liking and disliking’. During
the warm up activity, she managed to get pupils engaged in the speaking task ahead. She walked up to a group of female pupils and asked, ‘do you like shopping?’ the girls started giggling and replied, ‘of course teacher’. She moves towards a group of male pupils who were trying to hide their faces in their books. She pointed at a pupil and asked, ‘do you like football?’ through which he replied, ‘yes, very much’. Another male pupil was asked, ‘do you like cleaning your room?’ in which he replied, ‘no, no, no, never.’ She then wrote on the board:

‘He does not like cleaning his room = he dislikes cleaning his room’.

Repeating similar questions, the pupils understood the objectives of the lesson. Zara introduced new vocabulary and asked pupils to write them in their notebooks. One male pupil started laughing and making noise while refusing to write the words in his notebook. He said in Arabic, ‘we already have these in our book, I’m not writing them, my hand hurts’. Zara said, ‘do it or leave the class’. He decided to leave so he stood up, packed his bag and on his way out, Zara asked him to leave his bag in the classroom. She said in Arabic, ‘stand outside the classroom and you better not leave the school’. He cared less and took his bag regardless of what Zara had said. Zara’s face turned red as she found it difficult to manage and control the class in addition to checking pupils’ understanding. This was mainly due to the noise in the class in addition to the seating arrangement. The seats were arranged in a way that would not allow her to move freely and check pupils’ understanding of the lesson. She carried on with her lesson and randomly chose pupils to answer her questions, but received little response. While she was asking more questions, she heard the door knock. As she went to open the door, she realised it was the vice principal. He asked her why she had allowed this pupil to leave the class. She responded in Arabic, ‘he was very disrespectful to me and refused to do the work’. He insisted she not allow any pupils to leave the class especially with the on-going conflict. She apologised and allowed the pupil to return to his seat. Just as he was making his way back to his seat, he rolled his eyes at her and gave her a look of despise. Zara tried to ignore the pupil and carry on with what was left of the lesson. However, she started slurring her words and began speaking quite quickly, which made it difficult for the pupils to follow. She felt completely overwhelmed and decided to discontinue the lesson. She picked up her books, put them in her bag and left the class before the bell had rung.

During the post-observation meeting, the researcher had pointed out some issues she had with classroom management and informed her that she became extremely nervous that she was not making sense at times. Zara said: ‘I was not aware that I was speaking too fast’ and commented in Arabic but ‘I was aware of my nervousness’. She further commented, ‘I need to be aware in future of the speed at which I am speaking, slowing my speech down when feeling nervous’.
Chapter 5

After entering a classroom for her sixth attempt at teaching, Zara seemed overwhelmed with the large number of pupils in the class and the amount of noise. She put her books and bag on the table, took out a red marker, and wrote the title of the lesson on the board. From Zara’s hesitant voice, she appeared lost and was not able to control the noisy class, yelling in Arabic ‘be quiet and sit down... that’s enough... sit down now’. When she was unable to get the class to settle down, she approached the researcher and asked for assistance and advice. Zara pulled out some objects and used them to explain the lesson on ‘opposites’. She held an apple in her hand and asked pupils to describe the object. A few responded, ‘red apple’, ‘small apple’, she wrote their responses on the board and repeated this with several objects then underlined all the adjectives. Having had more than ten adjectives on the board, she encouraged pupils to work in pairs and put these adjectives in sentences of their own. Several pupils took part during the activity and appeared interested. She changed the activity into a game where she said in Arabic, ‘whoever comes up with the best examples, gets to take home these fruits’. The class atmosphere changed as pupils were now laughing and having fun while playing the game. Just as the game came to an end, the school bell rang and Zara announced that all the pupils were winners and left all the fruits on the desk for them to share. Exiting the class, a female pupil approached her and said, ‘teacher, what homework do we do?’ Zara smiled and replied in Arabic, ‘no homework today’.

Summary of Zara’s Teaching Experience

The researcher believes that Zara has shown maturity in teaching since her first attempt at teaching. During her first few attempts at teaching, Zara was quite nervous and lacked confidence. She was extremely overwhelmed with the amount of noise in the classrooms. For example, during her first attempt at teaching, she was extremely overwhelmed with the pupils’ behaviour and spent most of the lesson disciplining them, which in turn led to her not achieving the lesson objectives. However, over time, she was able to achieve her lessons objectives by making her lessons more creative and fun by using authentic material, posters, and incorporating games, which attracted pupils’ attention. She showed interest in pupils and made an effective impact on them. The pupils enjoyed her lessons and she enjoyed her teaching experience. Unlike other colleagues such as Khola and Hala, Zara made only minor pronunciation mistakes and was mostly prepared for her lessons. Like her other colleagues, Zara struggled with classroom management and pupil behaviour but with time, she managed to take control of the class on some occasions.
HALA: ‘From Yelling to Smiling’

Classroom Observation Narrative

Hala taught 10 lessons in total (5 co-teaching and 5 independent teaching) during her teaching practice experience. In regards to her co-teaching sessions, she taught 2 lessons with Khola, 1 lesson with Zara, 1 lesson with Seham and 1 lesson with Jalela (non-target student teacher). Notes taken during her co-teaching lessons can be found in Appendix P.

In Hala’s first attempt at teaching, she was assigned to teach a lesson on ‘Sports’ to a fifth grade class. Entering the class, Hala’s attention was drawn to few male pupils who were yelling out a classmate’s name from the broken window. Although during the brief pre-observation meeting, when asked about how she might deal with misbehaviour, she expressed she would remain calm and not yell at pupils, she immediately started yelling at the top of her lungs and asked them to ‘SIT DOWN AND BE QUIET, NOW!’.

Pupils moved towards their tables and took their seats. Hala took out a marker from her bag and started the lesson by writing the new vocabulary on the whiteboard while attempting to discipline a few pupils sat in the back who were making noise and misbehaving. Hala used two types of resources during her lesson: the school course book and material such as a ball, pen, pencil, eraser, sharpener, etc. Hala held a big ball in her hand and asked pupils to describe the ball to her. Only a few pupils were happy to participate whereas the rest of the class were not interested. Hala encouraged pupils to come to the board and match the objects with the adjectives written on the board. She then jotted down a number of examples on the board for pupils to complete using the adjectives. Hala carried on explaining the lesson.

A group of pupils started laughing for no reason, which caused her to become very anxious and uncomfortable. Hala calmly asked them to stop laughing and pay attention but they refused and as a result, she discontinued the lesson, put her marker and book down on the table and started yelling at them once again. Her face went bright red and her voice became quite loud. She looked over to the researcher as her eyes started to well up. She needed assistance therefore, the researcher signalled her to approach her. Hala walked to the back of the class where the researcher was sat and asked her: "What am I supposed to do...I can't get them to settle down, what do I do?". The researcher gave her advice and asked her to continue with her lesson. The bell rang however; Hala did not complete her lesson and felt upset. During the post-observation meeting, she expressed her frustration with the amount of noise and lack of respect from the pupils.

Prior to her second lesson, Hala expressed nervousness about teaching this particular eighth grade class. She had observed this same class being taught by one of her colleagues, who had warned her about this particular class. She commented in Arabic, ‘I am not happy to teach this
class, I feel uncomfortable to have to teach pupils who are not cooperative, disrespectful and badly behaved'. Hala hesitated entering the classroom dragging her feet towards the teacher’s desk where she placed her bag and books. She greeted the pupils, though only a few responded, the rest were occupied with other things. A knock at the door, which Hala opened. The regular classroom teacher asked if she would be in the lesson whether it was all right for her to be present during the lesson. It was difficult to determine whether Hala was happy or unhappy. She seemed a little confused as to what to do next. She held her book up, shuffled quickly through a few pages then decided to place it back on the desk. She then picked up a pen and wrote something in her notebook. Hala appeared uncomfortable, touching her lips and forehead while looking at the class. Without explaining the lesson objectives, Hala went directly to the new vocabulary table followed by a number of activities related to the lesson in the course. Pupils were well behaved and willing to participate. Hala began to engage and interact with the class. She encouraged participation by walking around the class and asking students in Arabic to ‘come on, you can do this exercise, it is easy’. Several pupils willingly raised their hands and participated in the activity. She made some minor mistakes in trying to pronounce some words. Hala completed the lesson, checked if pupils understood the lesson and helped those who had questions. From pupils’ responses, Hala felt assured the objectives had been met. Hala ended the lesson by assigning homework to pupils, waved and said: ‘goodbye see you tomorrow and I will check if you did the homework or not’.

During the post-observation meeting, Hala explained that there were times during the lesson that she felt dehydrated and especially after the regular class teacher decided to attend the lesson. She also made an interesting observation in through which she had said when the researcher and supervisor were not present in class, she was able to have the opportunity to take charge of the class and practice and develop her teaching without hesitation. She explained that she was able to explain the lesson well to the pupils without worrying about being observed by someone. She felt so fulfilled whenever pupils participated, when they asked queries, which showed their interest to learn more. Again, she expressed her feelings in Arabic.

Hala then taught a lesson on 'Jobs' to the fifth grade. This was her third attempt at teaching. She entered and set up the classroom before pupils arrived. Hala greeted the pupils and wrote the title of the lesson and page number on the whiteboard. Hala told the pupils that today’s lesson was about jobs. The classroom atmosphere was calm and pupils well behaved. Some seemed quite happy and interested in the lesson. One female pupil stood up and said, ‘teacher, are you teaching us today and tomorrow?’ Hala commented in Arabic, ‘why, do you want your regular teacher to teach you?’ Pupils replied, ‘we have extra classes, come and teach us’. This comment seemed to raise her confident as she smiled and said, ‘we’ll see’. Compared to the previous
lesson, there were no signs of anxiety nor nerves. Hala picked up her book and started reading the text. She asked a pupil to volunteer to read the next text from her course book. She repeated this several times. She drew a table on the whiteboard to explain the next exercise.

**Brainstorming**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Job</th>
<th>Place</th>
<th>Name of character from the text</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Doctor</td>
<td>Hospital</td>
<td>Zaineb</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher</td>
<td>School</td>
<td>Ibrahim</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fireman</td>
<td>Fire station</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Engineer</td>
<td>Factory /company</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Farmer</td>
<td>Farm</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Business man</td>
<td>Company</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

She interacted with the pupils and encouraged them to further participate by walking around the class and selecting pupils randomly to answer the questions. Pupils were on task, paid attention and behaved well. The lesson seemed to go well, pupils were satisfied and Hala managed to achieve the lesson objectives.

The next lesson, **fourth lesson** taught by Hala, was a demanding class. Hala had heard a lot of negative feedback from colleagues and was not looking forward to teaching them. She said she was not interested in teaching this class because of their reputation. She asked whether any of her colleagues were willing to teach this class. No one agreed. Previous observation revealed this class to be noisy and pupils’ misbehaviour. Hala dragged her feet up the stairs and knocked on the door but no reply so she slowly pushed the door to find that there were no pupils in class. One of the head teachers approached and asked if we needed assistance. She confirmed a class had moved to another room. As we approached the classroom, considerable noise could be heard from distance. Hala knocked on the door, walked in, put her bag on the desk and asked them to ‘be quiet’. However, no one took notice of what she had said. There were 23 out of control pupils who were refusing to take a seat and settle down. Hala started yelling again ‘sit down in your seats’ but again no one was listening. Hala took a deep breath, tried to keep cool and began the lesson. She introduced new words in Arabic and wrote some words on the board. While she explaining the words on the board, one of the regular class teachers knocked on the door and told Hala that, she was going to teach this class today. Hala appeared anxious and quite nervous as the regular teacher took over the class without asking permission. Hala turned red in the face and was
confused. She slowly walked towards the back of the class where the researcher and university supervisor were sitting and uttered quietly in Arabic, ‘I thought I was supposed to teach this lesson and this class’ while pointing to the timetable’. Hala took the teacher to the side, showed her the timetable, and explained that she was assigned to teach this class that day. The regular teacher apologised to Hala and told her that she could continue with the lesson. Hala carried on with her lesson. She used her course book and authentic material (tea paper cup and water cup) to explain the adjectives ‘hot’ and ‘cold’. She also used a small notebook and large notebook to explain adjectives ‘big’ and ‘small’. She encouraged pupils to come to the board and read aloud to their classmates. The pupils performed fairly well and enjoyed the activity. They pointed to the shortest and tallest pupils in class and asked them to come to the board so they could demonstrate the difference between tall and short. Hala then moved on to the grammar section in the textbook and wrote a grammar rule on the board. While she was explaining the grammar rule, the regular class teacher mocked the approach Hala was using to teach grammar. The class teacher grabbed the marker from Hala’s hand, walked towards the board explaining out loud the proper way she believed grammar should be taught. The teacher ignored hala and carried on teaching the lesson herself, all of this witnessed by the pupils. Students undermining and disrespectful behaviour towards Hala at the beginning of the lesson was very likely compounded by the class teachers’ behaviour towards hala. Hala became uncomfortable and slowly walked towards the researcher who was sat in the corner at the back of the class. The researcher placed a supporting hand on her back and promised that she would talk to the class teacher about this incident.

In Hala’s fifth attempt at teaching, she taught another 5th grade class. Hala started by praising pupils’ politeness and good behaviour. The class environment was quiet and calm. There were 10 males and 10 females. The majority of male pupils were interested in participating whereas only a few female pupils were unwilling to take part. Hala used the whiteboard and some objects (pencils, notebooks, ball, etc.) to help clarify the lesson, which was on ‘Objectives’. She asked the pupils to open their notebooks and write down the new words. She was very energetic and confident all through the lesson as she walked up and down the class with a smile on her face checking pupils’ work. Comparing Hala’s instructional performance to previous lessons, there has been a noticeable change in her teaching behaviour. She had become much friendlier, warm, more involved with pupils and less yelling during the lesson. She used a calm tone of voice and rewarded pupils who attempted to answer the questions. Pupils showed complete understanding of the lesson through the exercises they answered correctly which indicated that the lesson objectives were achieved and that Hala had made a good impact on the pupils.
Summary of Hala’s Teaching Experience

Hala’s teaching style was quite different from the three other student teachers. She showed confidence throughout the majority of lessons. She displayed a strong personality and was very energetic, however she rarely smiled. She was strict and showed authority while teaching. In the second, Hala lacked confidence as opposed to her first lesson as she was not prepared, in addition to the dealing with pupil misbehaviour. She made several spelling and pronunciation mistakes which were not visible during her first lesson. In the third, fourth and fifth lesson, she was challenged by demanding classes and was at times overwhelmed with the noise and continuously had to discipline pupils. Slowly grew in confidence over a short period and improved class management. She also started to open up to pupils and at times, engaged and smiled more during her lessons, which had a positive impact on her relationship with the pupils.

Cross Case Summary of the Target Student Teachers’ Teaching Experience

As discussed at the beginning of this section, the on-going conflict at the time of fieldwork, led to unequal teaching opportunities across the 7-week teaching practice period. Khola, for instance, one of the target student teachers affected by this on-going conflict, was only able to teach three classes all together (one independent lesson and two co-teaching lessons) during the teaching practice period. By this, it would be difficult to determine whether there were noticeable changes in Khola’s teaching during the teaching practice period. Seham, Hala and Zara, on the other hand, were fortunate enough to teach a number of lessons, which made it easier to determine whether there were noticeable changes in their teaching over time.

It is fair to say that all four-target student teachers encountered difficulties with classroom management and pupil behaviour from the very beginning to the end of their teaching practice experience. Khola, for instance, was overwhelmed with the amount of noise in the classroom and her nerves got the best of her. She mispronounced words, used them in the wrong context but acknowledged her mistakes and managed to correct them right away. Seham, Hala and Zara also struggled with classroom management and pupil discipline and was evident in some of their lessons. When Seham, Hala and Zara became overwhelmed with the noise, their only reaction was to yell at pupils and spend the majority of lessons disciplining them. However, over time, they were able to cope with pupil behaviour and classroom management by incorporating fun games, posters and authentic material to their lessons. As a consequence of this, pupils showed more interest in their lessons and were well behaved which made them feel more comfortable while teaching.
5.5 Research Question Four

“In what ways have the research participants continued to prepare themselves for teaching since the completion of teaching practice? What is their rationale?”

The original plan for this research was to interview the participants after commencing actual teaching in schools to enable them to reflect upon the placement teaching they had undertaken and what they perceived had been the benefits of that experience for their work as a newly qualified teacher. However, due to the on-going conflict in Libya, all four participants have not yet been signed onto a contract to teach in public schools, which would not have been the case, had Libya been stable as before. In spite of everything, the researcher was intrigued to learn what the participants have been doing and in what ways and to what extent they were preparing themselves for teaching since graduation. Therefore, early in the new academic year, the researcher initiated contact with the four target participants via telephone interviews then reverted to using social media as an alternative to explore various data collection sources such as seeking alternatives to face-to-face interviewing which in turn could contribute to answering research question four.

The key aim of research question four is to examine in what ways the research participants have been seeking teaching experiences in order to prepare for qualified teaching since the completion of their sustained period of teaching practice. In other words, how have they continued to prepare themselves for qualified teaching? Due to the on-going conflict, travelling to Libya to conduct face-to-face interviews with the participants to obtain data needed to answer research question four was not an option. Under such circumstances, the researcher was obligated to seek alternatives and decided to explore social media in order to gather the needed data.

In hope to gather data from all four participants, the researcher made her initial attempts to contact the four participants; however, only two had responded (Khola and Hala). The two participants who had responded were contacted via telephone and an informal conversation (informal interview) was conducted. The informal conversation involved questions regarding the stage after the completion of teaching practice. The researcher finds it necessary to point out that only a limited number of the follow-up interview questions (see Appendix G) were covered during the telephone conversations. Although the researcher informed the participants, a while back that she was interested in having an informal conversation with them, they seemed unprepared to answer all the questions, and as a result, the researcher wrapped up the conversations when she sensed they were unable to continue. It was obvious to the researcher that telephone interviewing was not a successful option as she anticipated the complexities were due to the on-going conflict mentioned in previous chapters. The data collected from Hala and Khola via
telephone conversations were analysed and interpreted. Since then the researcher has been able to conduct the follow-up interviews via social media through Facebook and the Viber application (Baker, 2013; Neville, Adams and Cook, 2015; Zoppos, 2012; Markham, 2004; Fewkes and McCabe, 2012; Prescott, Stodart, Becket and Wilson, 2015; Guy, 2012) and maintained communication with all four participants, Hala, Khola, Seham and Zara. In order for the reader to fully comprehend the responses provided by the participants, the researcher found it necessary to translate these responses from Arabic to English.

The follow-up interview questions focused initially on the impact of the conflict the participants’ wellbeing and everyday life. They also looked at student teachers’ feelings towards teaching and their readiness to teach. However, the major focus of the interview questions was on how the four target student teachers have been engaged in preparing themselves for qualified teaching. The researcher presents the participants’ responses thematically in the following sections.

5.5.1 Impact of Conflict on Safety and Everyday Life

At the time of the telephone interview, Khola was at a relative’s funeral. She informed the researcher that an unknown individual murdered her cousin inside his home. Though the researcher gave her condolences and informed Khola that she would contact her at another convenient time, Khola carried on with the conversation for a while until someone in the background was heard calling her. During the conversation, she confirmed that her family and herself have returned safely to their hometown and home (which at the time of fieldwork they were forced to leave their home because of the conflict as discussed in previous chapters), “yes, yes we have returned, we are in our home now but at the moment I am at my cousin’s funeral and their house is close to ours”. Khola has also confirmed that she has not had any contact whatsoever with the rest of the target participants since the death of her cousin and since the escalation of the conflict in Libya. The researcher was naturally anxious about this.

The researcher was able to make contact with Hala via Viber and Facebook and successfully maintained rich information from her regarding the interview questions.

When Hala was asked about the situation in Libya and how she felt, she surprisingly said, “the situation is good...I’m really feeling good about the situation in Libya” which was not only contradicting to what she said in other parts of the interview, but also what Khola and the other girls had to say about the situation in Libya. The researcher is guessing she probably misunderstood the question because in another part of the interview when asked why graduates were not assigned to schools yet she said, “yes, because the situation in Libya”. Hala confirmed in other parts of the interview that although the country was still going through difficult times, she
Chapter 5

and her family are fine and safe. She agreed with the researcher about telephone reception being very bad and explained that due to the conflict, the situation is bad and matters such as being allocated to schools have been put on hold, “No, unfortunately all of us have sent in our paper work and applied but until now, no one has been assigned to public schools because of the situation the country’s going through”.

After successfully contacting Seham, the researcher asked whether she still recalled the researcher wanting to conduct a follow-up interview with all four participants. Seham confirmed she did. The researcher had conducted an informal telephone interview with Khola and Hala, however that experience proved quite challenging with the effect of conflict on telephone reception in the city of Azzawia. For that reason, the researcher decided to seek other alternatives to maintain contact with the participants, therefore resorted to the use of the Internet and social media. The researcher asked Seham whether she had an email account so she could conduct an email interview with her, however, Seham confirmed that she does not have an email account on Yahoo but she does have a Viber and Facebook account. Seham gave the researcher the number she uses on Viber and her Facebook account, the researcher thanked her and assured she would receive the interview questions the day after. The connection was weak and the conversation came to an end. The researcher messaged Seham after sending the interview questions via VIBER and wanted to make sure that they had been delivered and Seham confirmed. The researcher thanked her and awaited her responses. Seham replied to the interview questions via Viber on the 18th of November 2016 and the responses are discussed through the themes in the following sections.

The researcher was able to contact Seham and these two utterances could sum up what Seham had to say during the follow-up interviews:

“past few weeks there was heavy fighting but now it is much more stable”.

“I am sorry the internet is weak and I do not have access to it regularly”.

Seham was very happy to hear from the researcher and told her that she had missed her and that she longed to see her. The researcher wanted to know how her family and herself especially her mother were doing. The researcher was relieved to hear that her mom was healthy and that she was doing fine. In addition to providing for her family, the researcher was surprised to that Seham had another huge responsibility on her shoulders and that was adopting her niece and raising her after Seham’s brother and wife died in a car accident years ago. Seham indicated in several parts of the interview that coping with everyday life situations during the on-going conflict in Libya has put a toll on her and everyone else. “I am really finding it difficult to cope with the situation in
As for Zara, when the researcher attempted to contact her on the same day she made contact with Khola and Hala, Zara was unaware that the researcher was trying to contact her and dismissed the call. She then replied days after via message through ‘Viber’ when Hala had informed her that the researcher had tried to contact her the day before. She said: “I did not know you were calling me because the number that appeared on my telephone screen was a Libyan number”. From the tone of her text message, she seemed quite happy that the researcher had reached out to her and promised to contact her. The researcher waited a few days but Zara never contacted her back. The researcher sent Zara a long message through ‘Viber’ towards the end of 2016 asking her to suggest any day suitable for her to talk, however, she never replied. Just months after the last text message to Zara, the researcher attempted to contact her once again on several occasions via Viber however, there was no reply whatsoever. Recently, the researcher learned from Hala that the reason why Zara has not replied was that she no longer had a phone. That explains why there was no indication of the messages being read especially with the latest update in the ‘Viber’ application that indicates whether the recipient has or has not received/seen/read a message from you. Hala promised the researcher that once Zara visits her in her home in the next week or so, she will lend Zara her phone in order to respond to the interview questions. The researcher has recently received a reply from Zara and was provided with the brief responses of the follow-up interviews. Zara confirmed that the impact of the
conflict has taken a toll on her and expressed frustration of the lack of signing on new teachers to public schools, “the situation is bad and we have not had the opportunity to work in public schools yet”.

5.5.2 Feelings Towards and Memories of Teaching Practice

The researcher felt that it was essential to remind students of their teaching practice experience and learn whether after almost a year of completing teaching practice, if they could still recall their experience. Whether they feel they benefited from the experience and if so what were the benefits and how that would help them when they start teaching.

When the researcher asked Khola about how she benefited from teaching practice, she gave a brief reply and said, “yes, it did, thank GOD”.

When the researcher asked Hala on the other hand about how her training in university and during teaching practice impacted her teaching, Hala replied:

“no, they really helped me a lot especially teaching practice…it helped encourage me to stand in front of pupils, and how to react when a supervisor was present, and how to use teaching aids and gestures and movements to use when explaining a lesson and how from time to time there is a motivation and encouragement for pupils”.

She recalled a class that had remained in her memory, “primary 5th grade I have remained and in teaching I thought them lesson that was talking about pronouns”. She has confirmed that she still recalls the teaching practice experience and that they were nice times, ‘Yes, they were really nice times’, but she did not deny that she had forgotten some things, look how long we have been sitting at home doing nothing, and it feels like I had forgotten everything all the information that was given is now lost’.

When Seham was asked about how she felt towards the end of teaching practice, she replied, “Yes, I remember the conversation between us about my feelings during that period of time, and yes teaching practice helped me a lot and got me prepared psychologically that it got me ready for real work and got me used to working under pressure. In addition on how to deal with more than one pupil at a time physically or psychologically so from this point of view my opinions have not changed”. She further elaborated on what she last remembered from teaching practice and said, “The last thing I remember from the experience was learning how to divide the lesson properly so it could go with the time allocated and that was something that I was really concerned with… I also still remember from that experience the best and humble human being I ever knew who was teacher Khulud and she was the most beautiful thing I could remember”. She explained what the
most favourable part of Teaching Practice for her was, “the best part of this experience for me is to be with the pupils and to be able to deliver the lesson/message clearly and the feeling that pupils are happy and delighted to be with me”.

Seham described a memory she had of a particular lesson during teaching practice, ‘The time I spent with the pupils in the classrooms was a mixture between happiness, excitement and fear when the supervisor entered the class. One of the funny incidents that I remember was an incident with one of the misbehaved pupils took me aside and said: “if you want the class to be quiet and listen to you, allow me to leave the class before anyone else and you’ll see how they will be quiet”, and the apart that made me laugh the most was when he said, “let’s make an agreement”.

5.5.3 Readiness to Teach

When the researcher asked Hala whether she was still looking forward to teaching, the researcher was surprised to learn that Hala had already started work at a private school. The researcher was intrigued to learn the nature of her role in school, therefore asked, ‘oh, so you have started working, do you mean as an English teacher’? Hala replied, “yes, I have started teaching. I now work as an assistant teacher, so if the teacher were to be late for example, I would start the lesson…if she does not come in or is absent, I prepare and give the lesson. First I have revision after that I give them the lesson, at the last five minutes give homework for next period…I am now working alongside another teacher so you can say I am an assistant teacher especially with me being new and just graduated”

Hala continued to explain her feelings and concerns towards teaching. She had this to say:

‘teaching is wonderful and I like teaching because I consider it to be my dream and I have started making that dream come true…so like I mentioned I am an assistant at the time being and have not been given a class to be responsible for on my own because I am a beginner teacher plus I did not apply to the school early at the beginning of the school year, i came in late’. Hala, however, still had some concerns towards teaching and pupils’ behaviour and how they responded to her and the subject, ‘concerns about pupils’ behaviour and their respond about the subject’.

Hala added, “but I noticed that pupils conceptions are different towards me especially with the idea of having an assistant teacher alongside their class teacher opposed to the regular class teacher…they appreciate her more because she is the one who assesses them and gives them grades”. She said that they find it unusual to have two teachers teaching them at once as they are not used to this way of teaching. The researcher needed clarification, so she asked Hala whether she was referring to pupils during teaching practice or now, Hala replied, ‘even now’.

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researcher continued and added, ‘so do you mean the pupils do not respect you, do they misbehave, do they cause noise in the class?’. Hala replied, “Yes, especially when myself and teacher do not use any type of discipline or punishment, especially misbehaviour and pupils who have repeated years or who are redoing years like pupils who should be in the 9th grade are still in the seventh…they are the trouble makers”.

Despite these concerns, Hala explained how teaching helped her as a teacher, “after months, I got use to taking responsibility and the things that I think about is that they might give me a grade 5 class and I will finish with them till the end of the year”.

After hearing what Hala had to say about her experience in teaching at school, she wanted to clarify whether she was still excited that she was teaching or was it just something that she had to do, Hala replied, “no, no I am still happy and excited a lot and nobody can cause me to feel anxious …no, no never”.

The researcher thanked Hala for her time and informed her that she would go through the interview conversation again, and if there were things that the researcher needed to collaborate on, then she would contact Hala again. The researcher asked Hala about Zara and asked her whether she was going to visit soon as she had mentioned before. Zara replied and said that she has yet to visit but wanted to know how Zara was going to get her responses to the researcher. The researcher implied that Zara give the interview questions to Zara to answer while she visits Hala’s home and then send them to the researcher via Hala’s phone, if possible.

When asked about whether Seham was still excited and looking forward to teaching, she had this to say, “About being excited, I was really excited at the beginning after I graduated but now my excitement has lessened from the start and I’m just not that excited anymore like before”. In another part of the interview when asked how she felt now approaching the real thing, teaching on her own and given full responsibility of a class, she explained that, ‘as for my feelings about teaching and getting close to taking responsibility of a classroom and pupils is a mixture between fear and excitement together…the supervisor’s assessment for me was excellent and yes I have a great will and courage to enter the teaching field and to take on this experience’. When Seham was asked about how she would evaluate her readiness to teach and what she would be concerned about most, “Yes, there is a difference between teaching at home and at school from various aspects. At home, I have a specific place set up for students to teach students. I follow a specific programme in teaching their lessons. I teach every other day. I give them a lesson today and then the next time they come in, I test them on it and review it with them. From the supervision and managing aspect, because they are not a large group, it is easy to manage them and pupils are more disciplined being taught at home than in schools.” She further elaborated on
some of the issues of concern, and had this to say, “yes, there is a fear of pupils’ attitude and if I will be able to manage them and control their behaviours inside the classroom. In addition to pupils’ readiness to welcome any information I give them. I am also concerned about and fear whether teachers would support and help.”

She also spoke about her experience in teaching pupils at home and the challenges she confronts, “the number of pupils would grow during examination periods and my experience with them was very good as I was able to deliver the information however, I always faced an issue with the pupils and that was they were only interested in learning the most important things that would be in the exam and would ask me to show them potential/expected questions that they might face in their exams.”

As for Zara, when asked about how she would evaluate her readiness to teach and what she would be concerned about most, she said, “I enjoy teaching, I feel very blessed especially with my students”.

5.5.4 ‘Teach or not Teach, that is the question

Khola confirmed she had not started teaching at a public school due to the fact that new graduates have not been signed on new contracts. The reason for that is due to the situation in Libya at the moment, ‘no, no I graduated but there are no contracts for new teachers at the moment’. That would not have been the case in the past as new graduates had the opportunity to sign onto a contract just a few months after their graduation. Although Khola has not yet started teaching in public schools, she has decided to make the best of her time and put into practice the knowledge she had gained from university and teaching practice and start tutoring pupils at home. These pupils are in grades 8 and 12, ‘No, but I am teaching/tutoring pupils in the 8th and 12 grade at home, but that’s it at the moment...Yes, that’s the situation at the moment unfortunately, working at home and that’s it’. Khola has also confirmed that she is interested in further developing her teaching skills, ‘Well, no I am actually going to enrol in a teacher training course in order to further develop myself’.

In an earlier conversation with Hala when the researcher asked her about what she had been doing after she graduated and how she has been preparing herself for teaching, Hala confirmed that she had not yet started working in a school due to circumstances in the country, “No, unfortunately none of us have started teaching”. Although Hala had not yet started teaching in schools at the time, she decided to apply to teach in a private school and that she would teach there until she was allocated to a public school. She agreed with the researcher that applying to a private school could help her apply what she learned during university and teaching practice, “this
year I will start teaching in a private school until I am allocated or assigned to a public school...yes yes giving English courses would be interesting”. Hala was honest about not being very motivated and productive as she said, “to tell you the truth, I have been at home relaxing and not doing anything at all. I never looked for a job until now, but now working at a private school is definitely in my head at the moment”. Hala has since started work at a private school. Hala also confirmed that she had given private tutoring lessons at home during the summer time which is similar to what Seham and Khola were doing at the time, ‘yes, give course for student at home in summer’. The researcher asked Hala to feel free to respond in Arabic if that made her feel better in expressing her message as the researcher explained that it is crucial she benefits from every detail she offers.

When Seham was asked about whether she had started teaching in schools or not and if not what were the reasons for the delay, she replied, ‘I haven’t started teaching in schools due to the fact that there are no possibilities of signing contracts with public schools’. In another part of the interview, when asked whether she would consider doing anything else in the meantime rather than teaching, she explained that she had a job but not in her field of English, Yes, I have a job in administration...I work in management not in my field. I manage a private school...My role at work was to manage teachers and to see whether they were doing their job properly, take attendance and absences, finance issues. It was very demanding and difficult work/job and very tiring plus it needed a lot of concentration. Working hours were from 8:00 am - 5:00 pm with a salary of 800 Libyan dinars”. When the researcher implied that she had wished she had started teaching in schools by now, Seham surprised her by explaining that she was obliged to work/do anything as she was responsible for providing for her family in addition to other responsibilities, “Well, I have to work, it’s better than just sitting at home doing nothing. In addition, I have living expenses to take care of in addition to taking on a big responsibility of raising my niece as I have adopted her and I am her key carer. Do you remember when I told about the death of my brother, his wife and their youngest daughter in 2011? Well, this is their remaining daughter that I am taking care of now. When her parents and sister died, she was only 3 years old. She will be in the second grade this year, Alhamduallah”. In another part of the interview, she stated that due to the circumstances the country is going through, the private school is struggling to stay open for business, In regards to work, it’s not as before especially with the lack of money in the banks, the pupils who come to the private school are no longer able to make the payments on time so they just withdraw. Alhamduallah anyway”. Her decisions were influenced by not only the circumstances she was put in but the conflict itself forced/drove her into seeking alternative ways to survive. Despite the fact, Seham has not yet started teaching in schools; she has been doing something in relation to her field. Seham said, ‘I do teach English courses and tutor pupils at
home in the afternoons”. She explained that she had dedicated a private space/place in her home for these pupils and taught them English. She would revise lessons with them and test them on the contents afterwards. She also indicated her great motivation in continuing her postgraduate studies, “I still have a great passion to continue my studies and desire to achieve my Master’s degree and further my studies”.

As for Zara, she has also confirmed that she has started teaching at a private school and that she is enjoying her teaching journey, “Yes, I started in private school, I enjoying in teaching specially with my students”. She also explained that she was giving private lessons at home to a friend of the family, “I am teaching friends my sister in my house”.

5.5.5 Support and Recognition from school teachers and pupils/Expectations of Teaching in schools

Hala was uncertain about how to respond to questions 15 and 16 regarding the support and recognition from school teachers and her expectations of teaching in schools, therefore, the researcher elaborated and explained, ‘I meant, did the teachers and pupils at school during teaching practice respect you/show you any respect, and do you think you will be respected by the teachers and pupils at the school you will be teaching at?’ Hala replied, ‘when we were doing teaching practice at school, there was no respect towards me or my colleagues, however, here at the school where I work now, they are mashallah respect me so much and appreciate my being there, both the teachers and the principal...the teachers help me and are helpful and more than 60% of pupils help me as well’.

When Seham was asked about whether she was offered any support from other teachers from the school during teaching practice, and what type of support she needed or would need from the teachers at the school she will be teaching in when she gets allocated, she had this to say: “During the teaching practice period, I did not get powerful support that I had expected. The teacher would leave the class and leave me on my own with the pupils and did not offer any support or help to discipline or manage the pupils especially when she has more experienced with pupils and teaching. As for the type of support I would have loved to see from them, was any information on any pupils who have medical issues such as the embarrassing incident that happened with me once when one of the female pupils suffered from dyslexia and I was not aware of and insisted she read out loud...I did not realise anything until another pupil told me that she was sick, and at that moment, I felt so broken and that incident will remain in my heart forever”. Seham also described how student teachers were looked at during teaching practice and whether their status would remain the same once they start teaching in schools. She said, “yes, I remember that and
remember some pupils who disrespected us during the period of teaching practice, as for me, I did not find that much of a problem with managing pupils and I think I did a good job”. When Seham was asked about the types of responsibilities she expected to be given when she started teaching in schools and what types of responsibilities she preferred to have other than being a teacher at school, she responded, “The responsibilities are managing the classroom and controlling it, managing the pupils, categorizing the pupils according to their learning abilities and needs, and how to accurately deliver information by using easy and feasible ways and make the lesson simple and easy in order for it to be applicable to the pupils’ needs and abilities. I favour teaching to anything else and feel comfortable when I am around pupils and in the classroom”. In another part of the interview, Seham stated that she will be open to criticism and take any advice on board, “yes, when I am at work I will be responsible and will take positive criticism and will learn from my mistakes and will try to stay calm and stay away from nervousness when teaching (angry).

As for Zara, she confirmed that there was a lack of support from school staff and regular class teachers during the teaching practice experience. She expressed enjoyment in teaching and the great support from her pupils, however expressed the lack of support from school staff in particular the principal, ‘I enjoy teaching, I feel very blessed especially with my students but the manager is unfriendly’.

In regards to Khola, she also confirmed that lack of support from school staff and regular class teachers during the teaching practice experience however did not respond to whether she was getting support from school staff at the private school she works in.

5.6 Summary of Findings from Follow-up Interviews

Due to the ongoing conflict in Libya, obtaining follow-up interview data from the four target student teachers was by no means an easy task especially when the researcher lost contact with some of participants. Despite the researcher’s several attempts in making contact with them in 2016, no reply was ever obtained until later on at the beginning of 2017. Since the researcher was unable to travel to Libya to interview the student teachers face-to-face, follow-up interviews were conducted from distance via phone and internet connection, which at the time were not very efficient or stable. However, after obtaining the data, findings from the follow-up interviews revealed that all four student teachers were frustrated at not having the opportunity to teach in schools. These delays were due to circumstances beyond their control. For some there seemed to be a worry that some of what they learned and developed in the classroom and experienced during teaching practice generally could be lost over time due to a lack of teaching opportunities.
That said, student teachers remained determined to teach and sought ways in attaching themselves to teaching and schools. Evidence has shown that all four student teachers have sought teaching opportunities in private schools as English teachers; however, not all of them were fortunate to teach and sought work as administrators in schools instead. Due to the impact of the conflict in Libya, schools likely remain to be a dangerous place for children and adults to be in. Evidence showed that all four target student teachers had taken on family responses as a result of conflict and considered teaching children from their homes. All four seem to be enjoying giving private lessons to pupils from their homes as they consider it physically safer and emotionally relieving. Evidence from the interviews also revealed that some even want to continue their education (postgraduate studies) and seek relevant professional opportunities. Giving into the ongoing chaos and sitting at home doing nothing was never an option for them.

It is essential to applaud the student teachers for their efforts and resilience to be able to recall incidences from their time during teaching practice even if not all of them were positive. One of the comments made by the student teachers that stood out was the absence of support from the regular class teachers during their teaching practice placement. Despite the lack of support and undermining from schoolteachers, student teachers seemed hopeful that this would not be the case when they start working in schools and perhaps they will be seen as a ‘real teacher.
Chapter 6    Discussion of Findings

6.1   Introduction

The purpose of this study was to examine the concerns, experiences and perceptions of student teachers in attending an Initial Teacher Education Programme at one university in Libya. The main focus was on student teachers training to teach English in one Initial Teacher Education Programme. The study gathered quantitative data from one cohort of 40 (originally 150) English teachers and traced four of these students through some school-based teaching opportunities across a period of 7 weeks (originally 12-weeks). The data gathered was analysed and a description and interpretation of student teachers’ concerns, experiences and perceptions during this period of their initial teacher education were discussed in detail in Chapter Five.

In this chapter, the researcher discusses the major findings from the analysis presented in Chapter Eight and Nine and consider their significance by returning to each research question that has guided this study. Further, some of the key recommendations to teaching practice at Azzawia University are discussed. Finally, the researcher points out the strengths and weaknesses of the current research study.

6.2   Overall findings from the analysis presented in Chapter Five

In order to make reading of the discussion chapter much smoother for the reader, the researcher found it necessary to summarise the overall findings from the data at the beginning of this chapter. The overall findings from the analysis presented in chapter five, can be categorised into findings about; (1) student teachers’ expectations of teaching and teaching practice (2) teaching practice viewed as an important component in the teacher education programme, which helped prepare student teachers for teaching (3) the gap between student teachers’ theoretical knowledge acquired at university and their practical work in the classroom (4) undermining of student teachers and absence of supporting teachers (5) the effect of classroom management and pupil behaviour on student teachers’ learning and development progress (6) Resilience in the face of conflict and determination to learn during times of conflict. These themes were determined from the findings from Chapter Five. For instance student teachers’ expectations of teaching and teaching practice were derived from the fact that once student teachers were socialised in the practising school, their prior hopes and expectations of what they thought a school environment would look like were dismantled.
Chapter 6

6.2.1 Research Question Two

6.2.1.1 Student Teachers’ Expectations of Teaching and Teaching Practice

“"What are the student teachers’ expectations of and responses to the school-based placement experiences?’”

The findings from examining student teachers’ responses during interviews conducted before and after the completion of teaching practice, indicated that student teachers’ held a number of *expectations* of how they envisioned themselves as teachers in addition to how teaching and teaching practice would be like before undergoing the experience. Findings from the interview data analysis reveal that the student teachers’ in this current study held ‘expectations of self and role as teacher during teaching practice’, ‘expectations of being accepted as a colleague by school teachers and practice schools’, ‘expectations of the type of support offered by teachers and school’, and ‘expectations of finding a relationship between theory and practice. This confirms previous findings suggesting that most student teachers going into their field work have hopes, images and bring with them expectations and ideas about teaching and pupils, images of past experiences based on memorable events and assumptions about the environment where teaching practice takes place (see Cole & Knowles, 1993; Feiman-Nemser et. al., 1989; Wang and Lang, 2006; and Choy, Wong, Goh, Low, 2014). Student teachers in this study had images of teachers and teaching before they entered schools known as the early idealism stage (Maynard and Furlong, 1993) but as soon as they were exposed to the realities of schools, classrooms and teaching known as the survival stage (Maynard and Furlong, 1993), their hopes, images and expectations of teaching were crushed. The reason for this was that what they expected did not match up to what they actually encountered which are in line with the results reported in (Cole & Knowles, 1993).

6.2.1.2 Expectations of Self and Role as Teacher during Teaching Practice

Student teachers may hold a strong clear image of self as teachers and can find their image ruined by the norms of the school in which they teach. Others may be uncertain about their image of self (Cole and Knowles, 1993). Findings from the interview responses in this study revealed that the target Libyan student teachers built their images of self-based on their own teachers or on family members who were in the teaching field. These findings resemble those of researchers such as Fischl and Sagy (2005) where student teachers shaped their beliefs and images on teachers from the past or students’ self-images as learners. Research has demonstrated how these images and beliefs’ about ‘self’ affect classroom practice during student teaching. Specifically student teachers focused on how their image was perceived in the minds of pupils more than their focus
on pedagogical issues (Richardson, 1996). Similarly, these beliefs and images that Libyan student teachers had themselves represented an essential role during their time in school (Borich, 1996). The Libyan student teachers were aware of the roles they wanted to adopt during teaching practice. While some student teachers expressed their role before first teaching sessions as ‘facilitator’, in which they help pupils understand the objectives of the lesson and find ways to achieve these objectives together. Others saw their roles as a ‘controller’ (i.e. being in charge) and ‘organizer’. This anticipation was to last only brief, once student teachers realized that teaching was not as simple as they anticipated, they then were faced with what Veenman (1988) and Korthagen et al. (2001) referred to as ‘reality shock’, and some beliefs and images of self and expectations were ‘shattered’ (Lortie, 1975). Findings in this study indicated that student teachers were shocked with the sheer reality of the school and the classrooms. They were also exposed to what (Zeichner & Tabachnick, 1981) called the ‘washing out’ effect of the visions of teaching they had gained during their initial teacher programme at university and demanding teaching in schools.

6.2.1.3 Expectations of being Accepted and Perceived as Teachers by School Teachers, School Staff and Pupils

From the data analysis, findings from the interview responses revealed that student teachers had expectations of the school-based staff and teachers to create a friendly working environment, perceive them as teachers, act as role models, and provide some guidance and support. This stage is referred to by Maynard and Furlong (1993) as the early idealism stage student teachers go through during their learning development. However, the overall impression of school staff and teachers was fairly negative. Student teachers instead encountered unapproachable, unaccepting and unwelcoming staff with exception of very few teachers who had corresponded with them on the lessons they were to teach. Findings also showed some evidence of how student teachers were looked down on and made to feel non-existent and treated as “low class”. These particular findings are in line with the results in previous studies such as Kiggundu and Nayimuli (2009) in which student teachers feeling as “second class citizens” in the school. In addition, student teachers in this study expressed feelings of being ‘strangers’, resonating with the work of Sabar (2004), who argued that they were seen as ‘strangers’ on the basis that they come from a normative system of teacher education with a clear set of types of behaviour and enter another system (the school) whose norms may be unfamiliar and different from theirs. Moreover, the cultural difference between the teacher education institute and the schools, and the inconsistency between the Libyan student teacher’s perceptions of knowledge in a school environment seemed to intensify the feeling of strangeness. Conway (2001) argues that the difference between the expectations student teachers had and the reality of the school
environment, is one of the main causes of anxiety in student teachers during teaching practice. This experienced anxiety may have a negative impact on student teachers’ socialisation into schools (Sabar, 2004). Findings from the Libyan student teachers involved in this research indicated their sense of alienation and not belonging to the school environment. These feelings of alienation resulted in anxiety and perceived lack of self-confidence, which in turn resulted into reduced effectiveness of the teaching practice placement.

6.2.1.4 Expectations of finding Support from Teachers and School staff

Literature shows that the majority of programmes of initial teacher education in developed countries rely on “cooperating teachers” or “mentors” to support and help the professional learning and development of student teachers during their teaching practice (Hobson, 2002; Feiman-Nemser, 2001). Therefore, there is a great need to ensure student teachers receive appropriate support from schoolteachers in lesson planning, preparation, classroom management, pupils’ learning needs (Mtika, 2008). In Finland, USA, Japan, UK, school teachers are actively involved in student teachers’ professional learning during teaching practice to ensure that student teachers get the advice, guidance and support they need for their professional growth. Findings from this study revealed that the role of ‘cooperating teacher’ had been non-existent and proved a disappointment as class teachers typically disappeared from the sight of student teachers. Teachers did not perform any meaningful role and given some of these teachers undermined some of the targeted student teachers in front of the pupils, it could be argued that it was better that they were not present. Findings also confirmed that the university supervisor indicated that not all schoolteachers are trained to take up the role of a cooperating teacher.

For some time in Libya, universities and surrounding schools have not had strong partnership relationships. In hindsight, informal meetings in the teachers’ lounge between teachers and student teachers might have helped with the socialization of student teachers since teachers in the school were largely experienced and could have provided some expertise on teaching as well as the school culture. Instead, teachers in the school tended to distance student teachers from any type school activities or meetings. Teachers rarely met with student teachers in private to brief them on what was required in teaching the lessons. Less frequent but more public and troubling were incidents where class teachers would tell their pupils that lessons taught by student teachers were to be repeated. As a result of this, student teachers were affected and there was a loss of confidence in their ability to teach, and negatively hindered their progress during teaching practice. Identifying Libyan class teachers who are genuinely interested in supporting student teachers in whatever manner they see as helpful is one key recommendation from this study.
As noted from the findings from student teachers, they experienced several challenges because of the absence of cooperating teachers. This absence might have reduced their chances of achieving their goals of developing as teachers within actual classrooms in schools; moreover, it reduced the chances of student teachers finding appropriate solutions to some of the school related concerns, which they were encountered with in school (most notably managing behaviour and keeping some pupils on task). For instance, they were unsure whether their lesson plans met all the requirements of the pupils in the classroom in addition to being uncertain whether the teaching techniques used were appropriate for the pupils’ learning needs and how to improve these techniques for the better. Furthermore, they struggled with disciplining pupils, managing classrooms, and supporting pupils with special needs (see Gould & Vaughn, 2000; Mtika, 2008; Nilsen, 2017).

6.2.1.5 Expectations of finding Links between Theory and Practice

Findings showed that student teachers had mixed views on whether university courses had prepared them for teaching practice. Although on some occasions, Seham and Khola for instance, indicated that the teacher education programme at university was helpful. They claimed they had been taught the basics of preparing and presenting lessons, and were often able to make some connection between theory acquired at university and actual teaching in school. Hala, Zara and Seham (on some occasions), however, expressed negative experiences regarding their ability to connect theory and practice. These student teachers explained that despite efforts made by university tutors during their teacher education programme, they found it very difficult to see the relationship between work at the university and what goes on in schools. These findings are in harmony with those of researchers such as Marais & Meier (2004) where participants found inconsistency or discrepancy between theory of education and the reality of instruction. Here too participants revealed they could not reconcile the teaching methods as explained during their lectures with those used in schools by teachers. This might have very likely affected student teachers’ performance during teaching practice and their perception of their initial teacher education programme at university.

6.2.1.6 Gap between Student Teachers’ Theoretical Knowledge acquired at University and Their Practical work in the Classroom

From the accounts given in the data analysis chapter by the student teachers, student teachers addressed the necessity of being able to connect the theory acquired at university with practice in order to understand how these theories work. However, student teachers revealed that they felt that not all theories and practical aspects that they learned at university could be applied in the classroom. They complained of the irrelevance of theory to practical teaching because the theory
and practice acquired at university was taught to them in an ideal situation, in this case being the university (Veenman, 1988). These findings are broadly in line with research conducted by Caires, Almeida & Martins (2010). Whereas on the other hand, others had a different view that although the curriculum used at university was not perfect, it had taught them about how to manage classrooms and how to be in control of the lesson and class (Cheng, Cheng & Tang, 2010; Allen & Wright, 2013; Stenberg, AntiiRajala & Hilppo, 2016; McGarr, O’Grady & Guilfoyle, 2017; Mitchell & Reid, 2017). Research conducted in Finland revealed that student teachers in Finland also experienced difficulties connecting theory with practice (Tryggvason 2009). In order to overcome these challenges, student teachers in Finnish universities are asked to reflect on their teaching experiences through compiling portfolios and writing reflective learning logs. Another way of encouraging the integration between theory and practice is to give student teachers observation tasks or other exercises and learning assignments during the theory courses with an obligation to apply theoretical concepts to practice. The aim is that student teachers increasingly incorporate theoretical concepts and become capable of comprehending what these concepts mean in practice (Malinen, Vaisanen and Savolainen, 2012). This is something to consider and build into a possible redesign of the Initial Teacher Education programmes in Libya.

Unsurprisingly, student teachers felt that they were not given sufficient practice in actual classrooms until the last few months of their final year at university. As teaching practice (either in a manner experienced by the target student teachers or that provided by other student teachers) does not commence until the last few months of the final year. Therefore, student teachers suggested that it would have been more reasonable to start teaching practice from the third year or at least from the beginning of their final year.

Findings from the pilot study and informal interactions with a university tutor revealed that university tutors admitted that the teaching practice syllabus is overloaded and burdensome for both student teachers and tutors who not only have teach a significant number of topics, but also have to deliver in a limited period of time. The university tutors indicated that they were expected to cover a large number of theoretical topics in relation to teaching practice, which mostly relate to teaching techniques or classroom management, in addition to actual teaching practice in schools. The findings suggest that although tutors are the ones involved in the design of the teaching practice syllabus, it would be significantly beneficial had they sought advice from more experienced and expert educators in the field of syllabus design. I added this.

As mentioned in previous sections, it was only when Seham, Hala and Zara had started teaching pupils in classrooms, that theory learned at university became relevant. This finding is in line with findings from researchers such as Ozdemir & Yildirim (2012) and Nilssen & Solheim (2015) who
indicated that the teaching practice course made certain contributions to student teachers’ professional development. However, other target student teachers found it difficult to relate to theory learned at university while teaching in schools. This finding supports the findings of research conducted by Hamaidi et al. (2014).

These findings suggest that the teaching practice programme presented in Azzawia University does not facilitate students’ comprehension of the consistency within the programme neither does it bring their various types of experiences and learning together in a way which contributes to the integration of theory and practice. The reason for this is, the way theory is introduced at university in addition to the way university tutors teach and present this theory. Therefore, it is recommended that there be a substantial change or modification in the present teacher education programme at Azzawia University and its design in order to offer student teachers opportunities to connect between theories learned at university and practice implemented at schools. In order to make the Teacher Education programme at Azzawia University more connected for student teachers, it should not only limit microteaching sessions to the third year, but also incorporate them into the first and second year at university and continue until their final year. Moreover, it would be interesting to incorporate some microteaching sessions with group discussions as well, as such activities could provide student teachers with opportunities to practise and test out theories and strategies they had learned at university with the support and guidance of their university tutors. Furthermore, university tutors who teach the teaching practice syllabus at university should provide student teachers with opportunities to develop confidence and expertise in teaching before sending them out into the real world of teaching. Consequently, student teachers will benefit a great deal from occasional contact (e.g. meetings) with university tutors who could provide them with exceptional support and motivate them to experiment with teaching by applying theories learned during their university courses, in addition to providing them with constructive feedback.

6.2.1.7 Undermining of Student Teachers and Lack of Support from School teachers

During initial teacher training, student teachers are primarily engaged in their learning and teaching and while they are in the process of developing into teachers, the types of relationships and support they are given is very crucial (Claxton, 1990; Hobson et al., 2006; McNally et al., 1997; Edwards & Collison, 1996; Malderez & Bodoczky, 1999). There has been significant attention in the literature of ITE on the importance of relationships and support student teachers receive during their ITE and how these professional relationships are crucial to their development (Claxton, 1990; Hobson et al., 2006; McNally et al., 1997; Edwards & Collison, 1996; Malderez & Bodoczky, 1999). McNally et al. (1997) examined the interactions between school staff and student teachers
and their relationship to successful processes of becoming teachers. They found that supportive relationships in schools made student teachers feel part of a team. In a similar study, Oberskiet. al. (1999) found that establishing healthy relationships with school staff, pupils and colleagues had contributed greatly into student teachers future successes and accomplishments, including enjoying teaching, which also has implications for teacher retention (Spear, Gould & Lee, 2002). Of some contextual relevance to this thesis, results of a study conducted by Al-Mahrooqi (2011) regarding EFL student teachers’ perceptions of the teaching practice programme at Sultan Qaboos University in Oman, showed that cooperating schools and teachers were not always helpful which is very similar to the findings in this thesis. The findings from this research in fact indicate that not only Libya struggle with the role of cooperating teachers during teaching practice placements, but other Arabic countries in the region do as well. To address this issue, guidelines outlining the rights and responsibilities of both student teachers and cooperating teachers should be drawn up between the college and schools collectively and documented as a code of practice to be adopted by everyone concerned. The overall findings revealed in this current study contradict with the work of (Lortie, 1975; McNally et al., 1997; Oberski et. al., 1999) confirming the importance to the process of becoming a student teacher of relationships with (i) school staff, (ii) pupils and (iii) schoolteachers in placement schools. From the accounts in Chapter Five, student teachers made mention of times when class teachers were undermining student teachers to the point where they appeared to be turning pupils against student teachers which made student teachers feel non-existent at times. Unfortunately, these findings do not provide support for the work of (Lortie, 1975; McNally et al., 1997; Oberski et. al., 1999) and other researchers such as (Mtika, 2008). Findings from this thesis also contradict findings from a research conducted by (Mtika, 2008) in Malawi in which student teachers were viewed as schoolteachers even though student teachers were still undergoing their teacher education and therefore had a different rationale for being at school. The non-existent relationship between schoolteachers and student teachers in this study at hand may have limited professional socialization and experiential learning. This undermining and alienation might have hindered the participation of student teachers in school activities, staff meetings, development programmes, etc. which could have been an effective source of learning to integrate in a school’s culture. This may have an impact on the decisions to stay in teaching in the long-term. The target student teachers were left on their own to either sink or swim, meaning they had no mentor, no support, and no cooperating teacher. The findings showed similarity in research literature. For instance, findings from a study conducted in Malawi by Mtika (2008) indicated that student teachers did not have mentors to support them in their initial teaching and learning experiences, which impacted on their learning development to be teachers.
Findings from the co-teaching lessons (see Appendix P) showed that pupils undermined student teachers on some occasions during professional interactions. This undermining and disrespectful behaviour towards the student teachers might have been compounded by the class teachers’ behaviour towards the student teachers. One class teacher mocked the approach Hala used whilst teaching grammar, grabbed the marker from her, told her that this is the way you should teach grammar and carried on teaching the lesson herself, and did so in front of the pupils.

The approach employed by Khola in seeking to befriend the pupils, their behaviour and attitude among pupils might have been a reaction to the undermining student teachers felt from class teachers. For instance, from Khola’s interview responses (Interview One) conducted before the teaching practice placement, she indicated that she ‘identified with the perspectives of pupils rather than those of the class teacher’ (Maynard and Furlong, 1993 in Capel 2001:248). She revealed that she felt psychologically closer to pupils than to the schoolteachers and staff members whom she was supposed to learn from in school. This is what Maynard and Furlong (1993) call the early idealism stage during the student teacher’s development. Khola attempted to befriend pupils during the teaching practice placement but this only lasted for a limited period as she realised that she had to set boundaries between herself and the pupils in order for them to respect her as a professional and a teacher.

In another attempt to point out the lack of support from school teachers, findings from the first interview responses conducted with student teachers, revealed that despite student teachers’ engagement in the observation of experienced (mostly senior) teachers in schools before initiating teaching practice, the majority of student teachers had negative views and feedback on these observations as they indicated that they were not able to benefit from these observations as much as they wished (Tenenberg, 2016; Siebrich de Vries, Jansen, Helms-Lorenz & Van de Grift, 2015; and Pinder, 2008). The reason for this was, first, their limitation of time in schools due to their dual roles as students at university and student teachers in schools, second, the unwelcoming school environment and schoolteachers who declined participation in the research when invited by the researcher at the very beginning of fieldwork. As an opportunity for such effective observations was not available for these student teachers, they sought out other sources to observe in order to obtain the necessary information they needed to learn how to teach, that source being the researcher who unintentionally found herself in a position to help them. Findings from the interview responses indicated that when student teachers spoke about their learning and development process, they indicated that a big part of their learning was acquired from watching/observing a lesson being modelled (Tenenberg, 2016; Siebrich de Vries, Jansen, Helms-Lorenz & Van de Grift, 2015; Pinder, 2008). By student teachers’ observing the researcher model teaching, this might have helped them develop more confidence in themselves as teachers in
addition to helping them make decisions about what they would adopt, use, or adjust before they implemented their ideas themselves while teaching. Student teachers referred to observing the researcher model a lesson from which they took what they wanted and left out what they did not want to adopt in their lessons. The findings indicated that this notion of adopting appeared to be an essential part of their learning and developing process as this type of modelling was not provided by university tutors at university nor class teachers in school. The student teachers’ references to this form of learning were similar to Oosterheert and Vermunt’s (2003) sensory experiences, which were described to be essential internal sources of ‘dynamic self-regulation’. From the findings of this thesis, it was evident that observational experiences enabled student teachers to develop more confidence and a stronger sense of efficiency with regard to teaching goals (see Pinder, 2008). Student teachers appreciated having the researcher (in an insider role) as a source of support as she constantly encouraged student teachers’ confidence to teach and their sheer determination to achieve any task they may come up against. The findings from the interview responses reported that such encouragement boosted student teachers’ motivation to experiment with new things and overcome any challenges or difficulties they encounter.

Given these findings, the researcher suggests that all teachers and school staff in schools receiving student teachers provide support and opportunities for student teachers to grow as future teachers rather than undermining them and having a non-existent relationship amongst them. Teacher educators in initial teacher training programmes at universities in Libya might consider, for example, having annual meetings with the Ministry of Education and school staff regarding a possible partnership between universities and schools in regards to sustained periods of Teaching Practice.

6.2.1.8 The Lack of Collaborative Partnership between Universities and School

Findings from the university supervisor informal interview responses and student teachers interview responses revealed that the practising school and university lacked collaborative partnerships. Results of the lack of collaborative partnership means that both the school and university were not joined to support teaching practice. Furthermore, this lack of collaborative partnership could have possibly contributed to the disconnect of relations between student teachers, teachers and school staff at the practising school as mentioned previously. Furthermore, from the findings, it appeared that student teachers were not always made to feel welcome and were not generally respected by school staff including class teachers. They were often excluded from school activities and were made to feel insignificant which deeply affected them. The findings in this study contradicted with what was in the literature. Hoyle and John (1995) and Spendlove, Howes and Wake (2010) for example, noted the need for more collaborative
partnership that targets teacher education programmes and its link with school and university components to form a functional whole. This ensures that school systems and universities operate alongside but still are interdependent in function and purpose. This would probably help create a systemic coordination between supervisors and schoolteachers to support student teachers. It would be necessary for schoolteachers to be prepared to take up mentoring roles and schools to be more open in involving student teachers in school activities.

From these findings, therefore, it is recommended that Libyan universities and schools set out to work in partnership in providing support to student teachers during teaching practice in schools, in addition to clarifying and implementing the roles of both the school and class teachers especially after accepting student teachers in their schools for teaching practice. However, there appears that much work lies ahead, including the class teacher feeling secure with having a student teacher in her classroom. The following informal conversation might illustrate this. In an informal conversation between the researcher and one of the schoolteachers at the practise school, who happened to be one of the researcher’s colleagues during high school, the schoolteacher revealed that some schoolteachers look at student teachers as a threat to their positions. She claims that schoolteachers feel insecure with the presence of student teachers, fearful they might use more up-to-date methods of teaching and that pupils will then favour student teachers over them. She also claimed that schoolteachers would rather student teachers teach either using their same teaching styles or not be present in class at all. A good example to illustrate this would be Hala’s experience with one of the schoolteachers who criticised the way she taught grammar and undermined her in front of the pupils (see co-teaching lessons, Appendix P).

6.3 Research Question One

6.3.1 Concerns Regarding Classroom Management and Pupil Behaviour

“What are the concerns of English Language teachers during their final year of their initial teacher education in Libya”

Findings from the quantitative data (Teacher Concerns Questionnaire, TCQ) revealed that the self and impact concerns were included in the seven items ranked highest as causes of concern, whereas the task concerns remained the lowest causes of concern at all three administrations of the questionnaire. These results suggest that the student teachers’ were more concerned about self and impact of their teaching throughout their school experiences than of the task concerns. These findings support the concerns identified by Capel (2001) in research conducted on student
teachers during a one-year secondary PGCE course in England to identify student teachers’ concerns about school experience as they developed as teachers. In the case of the current research study in hand, the self-concerns of classroom management and pupil behaviour (‘maintaining the appropriate degree of class control’) remained quite high and persistent all through the three administrations of the questionnaire. This finding supports the concerns identified by Fuller and Bown (1975) and seem indicative of a practitioner in the ‘survival’ stage identified by Maynard and Furlong (1993). Findings also showed that student teachers self-concerns of ‘getting a favourable evaluation of teaching’ was ranked in the top seven concerns at all three administrations of the questionnaire. Capel (1998) also found that students were more concerned about evaluation and assessment of their teaching. Another self-concern identified as high as a cause for concern was ‘being accepted and respected by professional persons’. This finding contradicts Capel’s (2001) research results in which students involved in her study identified the concern of ‘being accepted and respected by professionals’ as one of the items causing the least concern.

Along with the findings from the TCQ, findings from the qualitative data (interviews, observations and field notes) also showed that student teachers struggled to manage the classroom and control pupils’ behaviour during lessons. This concern persisted to the very end of teaching practice but also during the period after starting some teaching-related work in private schools. Student teachers indicated that in particular situations, pupils were well aware that their presence was temporary (only during the teaching practice period) thus cannot exercise any authority towards them. The researcher suggests the reason for this type of pupil behaviour might be a result of the chaos and unsettlement in Libya as suggested by earlier research (Van Maanen, 1988 and Lee, 1995) and in recent work of (Ice, Dufour, Stevens, 2015; Skaras, 2016; Bahou, 2016). Although pupils were not asked directly, one cannot ignore that many pupils were affected either physically or emotionally in some way or another. Such circumstances may have been one of the factors affecting both their behaviour and learning.

Although the Libyan student teachers had prior expectations about managing pupils’ behaviour, they found the reality of coping with some situations to be challenging (Veenmam, 1984). Student teachers felt overwhelmed and frustrated when they found inconsistencies between what they envisioned before embarking on teaching practice and what they actually experienced during their teaching practice experience, which also persisted into their first year of teaching in private sectors. These findings are consistent with research conducted by Kim & Cho (2014) in which student teachers expressed their frustration of not being able to connect theory learned in university with practice at schools. Whilst gaining awareness from the challenges and struggles encountered during the teaching practice placement, it appeared that there was an increase in
Libyan student teachers’ ability to manage pupil behaviour and an improvement in their sense of effectiveness. The Libyan student teachers might take heart from the work of Oberski et al. (1999) and Foncha, Abongdia and Adu (2015) who explored the challenges student teachers (majoring in English Language teaching) encountered during their Teaching Practice placements in both East London and South Africa. Results of both studies revealed the necessity of building healthy relationships with pupils as such relationships can contribute to student teachers’ future successes as teachers.

6.4 Research Question Three

6.4.1 Contribution of Teaching Practice on Student Teachers’ Learning and Development

“What changes in the student teachers practice occurred across the period of school placement?”

During their studies, student teachers face a variety of events that contribute to their professional learning (Katz, 1972; Furlong and Maynard, 1995). These events may represent for example university courses, peer interaction, or teaching practice (Ahonen, Pyhalto, Pietarinen & Soini, 2015). The findings from the interview responses revealed that the target student teachers had prior expectations of what they thought teaching practice would be like. However, only the four target student teachers undertook the teaching practice placement at one public school. They expressed how they would perceive themselves as teachers, in addition to expressing their concerns, worries and fears related to their performances as teachers, which has been reported elsewhere (Kyriacou & Stephens, 1999; Mau, 1997; Capel, 2001; Zounhia & Hatziharistos, 2005; Goh & Matthews, 2011). Findings from the interview responses indicated that teaching practice was seen (by the four-target student teachers) as one of the most important and valuable components in the Teacher Education programme at Azzawia University. This finding is in line with research conducted by (Smith & Lev-Ari, 2005; Kiggundu and Nayimuli, 2009; Mtika, 2008; Ranjan, 2013). Findings from the classroom observation data also indicated that the teaching practice period had proven to be a significant milestone in student teachers’ learning and development. This finding supports the stages of learning development identified by Maynard and Furlong (1993). Prior to teaching practice, student teachers interview responses revealed how student teachers envisioned teaching, schools and pupils to be like. This stage, referred to by Maynard and Furlong (1993), as the ‘early idealism’ stage is where student teachers are idealistic in their feelings towards pupils and teaching. This idealistic stage changed once they entered the school environment.
In regards to the non-target student teachers who had not undertaken this teaching practice period, connecting theory to practice when starting actual teaching in schools will very likely prove to be challenging and difficult as they were not involved in any sustained period of teaching. Furthermore, findings from student teachers regarded teaching practice not only as a chance to put into practice what they had learned in university, but also to see how things work, in addition to experimenting with new things referred to as trial and error (Pinder, 2008). These findings are consistent with previous research conducted by (Cheng, Cheng & Tang, 2010; Allen & Wright, 2013; Stenberg, AntiRajala & Hilppo, 2016; McGarr, O’Grady & Guilfoyle, 2017; Mitchell & Reid, 2017).

Findings from the data analysis also revealed that student teachers’ presence in a school environment helped them explore what they thought about teaching (expectations) and perhaps tried to develop their own pedagogy, rather than basically imitating their past teachers’ practices. Indeed some of the target students said that it was their intention not to imitate teachers who taught them, which contradicts research conducted by Jennifer Cook (2009) where the research participants found that their experiences with their own teachers did have a considerable impact on their understanding of what it means to be a teacher and on their notions of themselves as teachers. Findings also revealed that on numerous occasions during teaching practice, student teachers expressed their devotion to break away from quote “traditional way” of teaching and seek new and effective teaching methods, those which attract and engage pupils in the learning process. Student teachers exhibited their passion about learning about various methods that may or may not work for them, the aim being experimenting and making mistakes in order to build more of their confidence in teaching. A perfect example of this was illustrated by one of the student teachers in Chapter Five. These findings contradict with those of researchers such as Cook (2009) who conducted research entitled “Coming into my own as a teacher” where the research participants found that their experiences with their own teachers did have a considerable impact on their understanding of what it means to be a teacher and on their notions of themselves as teachers. Furthermore, findings showed that the use of authentic material and visualisation material also helped pupils effectively engage in the learning process while delivering lessons, therefore when planning lessons, student teachers demonstrated special consideration for pupils’ needs, some being special needs pupils, which seem to be consistent with research conducted by (see Gould & Vaughn, 2000; Nilsen, 2017).

After the completion of TP, the four target student teachers were aware of and felt prepared as teachers as they were about to leave student-hood behind and enter the profession as knowledgeable and qualified teachers. Student teachers indicated that the teaching practice period had helped them to get to know themselves better as individuals and as teachers. Despite
the fact that findings revealed that there was little or no shifts from a teacher-centred approach to a more communicative learner-centred approach, the dynamics of the lessons in which student teachers used artefacts, posters, etc. and student teachers’ teaching styles became much more collaborative in which student teachers and their pupils were able to begin to cooperate and work together in order to create a more effective learning environment. As a consequence of this collaboration, student teachers’ confidence increased and this resulted positively in the way they envisioned themselves as teachers. This was not the case at the beginning of the teaching practice period, findings from the observation data revealed that student teachers were worried about how to manage their lessons and whether they could cope with the workload. Student teachers realised that what they had expected from their undergraduate work was not what they were finding in the actual classroom. Although they had felt prepared to teach and anticipated success upon commencing the teaching practice period, student teachers began to lose these feelings and wanted to survive each lesson. This particular finding is in line with what Katz (1975) describes as the survival stage. However, towards the middle and end of teaching practice, student teachers became more worried about their pupils and their ability to deliver their lessons effectively. Despite student teachers being in a school environment which did not encourage or support their professional development as future teachers and at the same time recognising that this lack of support had affected their progression during TP, they were still determined and excited to become teachers one day.

6.4.2 Resilience in the face of Conflict and Determination to learn during such Conflict

As discussed previously in several chapters of this thesis, after the 2011 war against the previous Government, Muammar Gaddafi, Libya was left to face an on-going civil war, which resulted in large populations fleeing areas of conflict to become refugees in neighbouring countries or displaced within Libya in addition to inconsiderable losses of lives and economic, social and international problems. The aftermath of such war and the difficult conditions Libyans are witnessing today have affected the lives of all Libyan and non-Libyan citizens. Undertaking fieldwork in a region experiencing military conflict such as the case in Libya and other countries around the world such as South Africa (Foncha, Abongdia & Adu, 2015) & Marais and Meier, 2004; Middle East (Amour, 2012); and in El Salvador (Wood, 2006), carries a degree of risk and poses many challenges for researchers and participants. Such circumstances can definitely be tremendously dangerous and challenging for both the participants and the researcher affecting the conduct of research. As discussed in Chapter Four (Methodology Chapter), the original plan for this thesis was for the researcher to spend some three months in Libya studying the experiences of four student teachers during a teaching practice placement, however, due to the
conflict, the researcher was only left with 7 weeks, and even some days within this period were not possible as schools were closed for safety reasons.

Despite Libya, going through this on-going crisis and the fact that it is a country characterised by instability and insecurity, findings from and reflections within this study unveiled a shared determination between participants and the researcher to continue and complete the project or see the research through to the end. Findings revealed that neither the researcher nor the participants were aware of ways of preparing for and coping with difficult situations in areas of conflict was evident in this thesis. It was only until each actually lived the experience, did each understand how such circumstances could affect them. The findings from the observation and interviews plus the reflexive contribution revealed student teachers’ stories of success, let downs, and real life disasters but it is argued that a shared sense of resilience to learn in the face of conflict was apparent. By living these experiences, student teachers learned ways of preparing for and coping with unexpected events while teaching in difficult circumstances in schools. These particular observations are in line with the results reported in Ice, Dufour, Stevens (2015) who examined the experiences of several researchers and students conducting field research in areas of conflict. The findings from Ice, Dufour, Stevens (2015) contributed as a guide to what can go wrong while conducting fieldwork and what a researcher can do to avoid or minimise the impact of unexpected events, in addition to addressing the challenges confronting both students and researchers as they undertake fieldwork. These findings could encourage educators in Libya to add an element of safety training as part of the teaching practicum curriculum. This element could help train both student teachers and class teachers on ways of preparing and coping with extreme circumstances during teaching practice in schools.

Findings from the researcher’s field notes revealed that both the researcher and participants were confronted with a number of challenges mostly emotional, physical and psychological during and after the conduct of fieldwork in Libya. These challenges arose from factors unique to the research setting. These challenges either led to some exciting experiences whereas others led to frustration of not being able to get things done such as the delay of gathering data and fear of the unknown (Ice, Dufour and Stevens, 2015). Findings from the follow-up interviews and interactions with the four student teachers, revealed that despite the challenges encountered during teaching practice and the frustration and fear they experienced, their resilience and determination was still evident. Although they were frustrated with the fact, that the Administration of Education was not signing contracts with new teachers to work in public schools, they still remained determine to attach themselves to schools and teaching in any way possible. Each can be applauded for seeking other work alternatives such as home tutoring, working or teaching in private sectors (schools) or enrolling in teacher training courses to further develop their teaching skills. Not unlike
research conducted in South Sudan by Skaras (2016), this resilience and resolve to teach in the face of the crisis might have been the result of the effect of the teaching practice experience on the student teachers.

The reflexive chapter was in part intended to show the emotional impact the research context had on the researcher. Deep down inside she lived with feelings of fear, sadness, stress and anxiety and had what researchers call “fieldwork blues” (Wood, 2006). She felt overwhelmed every morning before leaving home to go to the fieldwork setting, feelings so powerful that she would literally feel her heart ache, a feeling of not being able to see her only daughter or parents had something bad happened to her. She was torn between leaving her loved ones and the participants who against all odds were willing to come to school, participate in the research and commit to it one hundred percent. However, after spending a significant period in the research setting, findings showed that the researcher learned how to cope with the negative circumstances and as a result of this adjustment, gained resilience and improved her resilience in dealing with future circumstances which is in harmony with researchers such as Bobek (2002) and Ice, Dufour and Stevens, (2015).

It is important to stress that due to the on-going conflict, the researcher found herself playing multiple roles other than the role of ‘researcher’ during the teaching practice placement. In some incidents, she found herself playing the role of the ‘cooperating teacher’ since student teachers lacked support and guidance from class teachers. In some cases when the conflict escalated and student teachers were vulnerable, she played the role of a either a friend, mother or older sister. These particular findings are compatible with research conducted by Nilan (2002) who described her experiences during conducting (ethnographic) research in dangerous and unpredictable fieldwork situations. Nilan explained how there where incidents in which she was forced to move from the position of being an emotionally detached researcher to the position of an emotionally immersed researcher. She claimed, and the researcher in this thesis agrees, that such shifts were not easily separated. This researcher’s experience is not only in line with Nilan (2002), they are also in harmony with suggestions of researchers such as Raheim, Magnussen, Tveit Sekse, Lunde, Jacobsen & Blystad (2016) who argue that ‘although researchers’ and participants’ do not have fixed roles, these roles tend to evolve during the research or project’ (p.1). The authors examined the researcher-researched relationship in addition to how researchers often have both insider and outsider roles. The researcher in this Libyan study in hand would certainly agree with such a position as mentioned previously during her fieldwork, she was put in a position to move from outsider to insider on numerous occasions.
As mentioned earlier in this chapter, the research questions were answered within the overall findings discussion. Research Question Four, however, is discussed separately in the following section.

6.5 Research Question Four

“In what ways have the research participants continued to prepare themselves for teaching since the completion of teaching practice? What is their rationale?”

It was always the intention of this research, to track the four target student teachers into their first teaching positions, however given this was impossible, the focus of the fourth research question shifted given the events that were surrounding when this transition and qualified teaching should have commenced. The key aim of ‘Research Question Four’ thus became the task of investigating the efforts of the student teachers to locate some form of teacher related experiences and to seek their views on these. In other words, how have student teachers continued to prepare themselves for qualified teaching. Despite the limited data gathered for research question four, the researcher strongly believes its inclusion is indicative of the ‘struggles’ experienced by the target student teachers. At the same time, the data demonstrates their genuine commitment to remain involved in ‘teaching’ (in whatever form that may take) despite the barriers they faced and the particular competing commitments and responsibilities they had outside of teaching (care giver, family support, securing an income). Their accounts are evidence of lives that continue to be difficult but unearth a strong determination to attach themselves to schools and instruction in any was possible. Although the Ministry of Education was not signing new contracts for teaching positions with new graduates, though very frustrated, they were seeking any possibilities to connect themselves with schools and teaching in the midst of chaos/danger around them.

The researcher conducted follow-up interviews with the four target student teachers via telephone and online interviewing, Facebook messenger and an application referred to as Viber discussed previously in the Methodology Chapter.

Findings from the follow-up interviews suggested that despite the challenges student teachers encountered during teaching practice and the frustration and fear they had experienced, their resilience and determination was still evident even after the completion of teaching practice. All four-target student teachers indicated that the conflict has had a negative impact on their lives. The situation has made everyday life matters (e.g. transportation, shopping for food, internet connection, accessing money from banks, safety, etc.) challenging and getting things achieved have proved difficult. This finding is consistent with research conducted in South Sudan by Skaras
(2016) in which extreme conditions affected the everyday lives of Sudanese. Findings also revealed that due to the conflict and current conditions in Libya, the Administration of Education is unable to sign contracts with new graduates, which means that the student teachers are unable to secure teaching positions in public schools.

Follow-up interview responses revealed that, although the four research participants had expressed their frustration of not being able to secure a teaching position in public schools, they were still full of enthusiastic towards teaching and have sought numerous ways in attaching themselves to teaching. Hala for instance, secured a teaching position at a private sector as an English Language Teacher as well as teaching private lessons at home. Seham, who was very keen on securing a teaching post at a public or private school had to settle for an administrative role at a private school. Seham’s family related issues and in particular how the conflict had added to her already anxiety-provoking life has a direct connection to the theme ‘impact of conflict on everyday life’. Seham was the ‘bread winner’, she had to settle for whatever job was available in order to support and provide for her family. It would be difficult to separate out the wider context and the lives of the student teachers beyond school and their efforts to continue to teach children. Khola also confirmed she had not started teaching at a public school so decided to make the best of the situation and started teaching at a private school as an English teacher. Whereas, Zara confirmed that she has started working in a private school in addition to giving private lessons at home. These findings suggest that all four student teachers have contributed to their learning development by seeking teaching opportunities. As explained the focus of research question four did change as a consequence of the conflict as it soon became evident that none of the four student teachers were in a qualified teaching post in the autumn following data collection. Tracking these target student teachers illustrated that student teachers were still positively disposed to talk about the teaching practice experience alongside managing their own lives and those close to them while the conflict persisted. Securing a monthly salary was very much needed in Seham’s situation, without which she would be unable to provide for her family. The data from question four not only demonstrated the residual effects of the teaching period on the four, including the small successes and the major challenges, but also highlights their steely grit, determination and resilience to continue to overcome considerable barriers to find some form of ‘instructional’ setting in which they could continue to ‘feel like they were a teacher’.

The researcher still maintains close contact with the four target students and would like to conduct future research with the same participants in regards to the potential effects teaching practice had on their teaching.
Chapter 7  Reflexive Chapter

My Personal Encounter conducting Fieldwork during a time of Conflict in Libya: The Encounters, Challenges and How I overcame them

I begin this chapter with an extract during an interview with one of the research participants, 'Seham'.

"I...ah...I excited about how to learn the students and how to explain the lesson and how ah...how ah... (sounds of artillery in the background...BOOM !!!! which made the interview quite uncomfortable...sounds of weapons being fired in the background made us quite scared"

This reflexive chapter was inspired by my experiences during the conduct of ‘Field-work’ in Libya in 2015. Writing this chapter was probably the most difficult chapter to write of all the research chapters as it brought back a lot of bad memories, memories that I would have preferred to be left untouched.

The opening section of this chapter offers a general overview of Libya before and after the 2011 War. Illustrations are provided in order to fully comprehend how a once powerful and peaceful country became a haven for Militias and Extremists. The following section explains how seeking ERGO approval from University & Vice Chancellor’s Office was not only anxiety provoking but absolutely essential. The third section illustrates how circumstances in a country of conflict can affect the research design and lead to unexpected decisions (personal and professional) during the conduct of fieldwork. The fourth section details my experiences while managing my research project and documents the challenges I faced while conducting research in such an unstable environment. The final section of this chapter concludes by offering encouraging advice for those who intend to conduct fieldwork in unstable environments in addition to those who come from more stable and peaceful environments.

Like any other PhD research student, my main priority in conducting field research/fieldwork was to obtain the necessary data to help answer my research questions. Despite the fact that all fieldwork settings differ in a variety of ways, and each setting carries a number of challenges, be ethical, practical, physical, psychological, and methodological, these challenges not only affect the conduct of the research but the researcher and the researched as well. Ice, DuFour and Stevens
(2015) for instance, state that such challenges arise from factors unique to the research setting and such challenges faced by researchers regularly lead to either exciting new experiences or frustrating delays and regardless of how well a researcher plans, there will always be unexpected issues that can affect both the process of data collection and the outcomes of the research (Skaras, 2016; Wood, 2000; Foncha, Abongdia and Adu, 2015). That being said, suppose a researcher found himself/herself obliged to undertake fieldwork within a region experiencing armed conflict, a city under siege, torn into a warzone, a battlefield. How would they feel having to listen to the sounds of rumbling military tanks, rocket grenade launchers, and heavy artillery and machine guns, plus the roars of jet war planes in the blue morning sky, and the swoosh of rockets travelling in the night sky landing on innocent civilians, bullets whizzing past leaving just an echo. These overwhelming incidents and much more were just some of what I endured during my fieldwork in Libya.

Through maintaining my own diary during this research, which in time became the basis for writing this reflexive chapter, I was able to set out my thoughts, interactions, fears, frustrations, and achievements, and at the same time report on my challenges, obstacles and emotional struggles that I endured during a period of war in Libya.

7.1 Libya ‘Before’ and ‘After’ the 2011 War

Libya, a country once known for its vibrant and extraordinary places for locals to enjoy their times with their loved ones and for tourists to visit during their holidays, has now become a haven for extremists. A powerful and wealthy country which once lived in peace and harmony, has now been living in complete chaos for more than five years. Thousands of Libyan citizens were either forced to leave their lavish life styles and flee the country or live in danger not knowing what their destiny holds for them. Libya is now at its lowest point economically, financially, and psychologically. Libyans are having to go through very sad and depressing circumstances each day of their lives, those who have lost their homes, land, money, and mostly importantly, their loved ones who were either kidnapped, jailed or sadly murdered in cold blood.
The following section presents the emotional and ethical challenges researchers encounter during fieldwork.
7.2 Emotional and Ethical challenges Researchers’ encounter in the Field “Field work Blues”

Despite numerous researchers such as Wood (2006); Sriram, Lekha, King, Mertus and Martin-Ortega, eds. (2009); Skaras (2016); Dixit (2012); Campbell (2008) exploring ethical, emotional, practical, methodological, and several other challenges while conducting research in areas of conflict, Thomson, Susan, An Ansoms and Murison, eds. (2013) claim that literature has rarely shed light on specific challenges such as the emotional and ethical challenges researchers are confronted with before, during and after being in the field. They argue that in order to assess the quality of any research findings and to understand researcher bias in the field, it is necessary to provide researchers with proper attention and preparation. This is entirely significant due to the fact that several war zone researchers are affected by what Wood (2006) calls ‘fieldwork blues’. These so called fieldwork “blues” hit particularly hard in conflict zones where the addition of stress, fear and grief can create difficulty in handling research information and may even lead to misunderstandings and errors in judgement (Wood 2006:384).

Field work blues hit me hard after arriving in Libya. Reality finally kicked in and I had to wake up and accept that the country I once knew, no longer exists. The emotions I felt there and then was indescribable. It was very emotional and overwhelming for me to see Libya in such a state, in complete destruction that will very likely take years to repair. What really struck me most, was witnessing the new generations of children playing in the streets talking about war and conflict. I witnessed some pretend play with miniature toy guns and tanks that they had very likely only once seen on their play stations or in video games. This has now become a sad reality and part of their everyday lives. It was very upsetting to know that so many of these children had either lost a member of their family or had been orphaned. My relatives told very upsetting stories about how the 2011 Libyan war had a negative impact on their children. Some spoke about incidents where their children woke up in the middle of the night with nightmares as a result of what they had witnessed and still witness every day. Not being able to live and enjoy a normal childhood was my ultimate breaking point. The war has stripped them (completely) of their childhood and they no longer live as I refer to as ‘normal’ children. Normal children usually spend time being educated and taken care of by their parents. Children in Libya now spend their time worrying about their fathers or loved ones fighting Extremists in battlefields, not knowing whether they would ever come back alive, or be sent to them in a coffin (Cohen & Arieli, 2011; Ommering, 2011). While children were not central participants in my study, I was in a school where they were trying to gain an education.
7.3 Managing a Research Project in Locations of Difficulty & Conflict

Researchers such as Nilan, 2002; Ford, Mills, Zachariah and Upshur, 2009; Mazurana, Jacobsen, and Gale, 2013, believe that although conducting research in areas of conflict can have its risks and challenges, and can cause inconvenience for both the researcher and participants, it can also provide rich and valuable rich data. Nilan (2002) for instance, conducted a study on how researchers can collect data while being in unstable settings or difficult circumstances in Bali. She argued that despite the evident increase in research, safety training has not yet become a regular part of graduate training in field-work based-disciplines, even though some universities (UK universities under the auspices of the Health and Safety at Work Act of 1974) have put into place standard procedures and policies to evaluate and reduce or limit risks to future researchers. In agreement, Barakat, Chard, Jacoby & Lume (2002) also argue that careful research training and planning is essential when preparing to work in areas of conflict. However, undertaking research in such dangerous settings, has serious consequences for the implementation of the research itself, in addition to the impact of conflict on both the research and participants (Ford, Mills, Zachariah and Upshur, 2009), something that had not featured in my doctoral training in the modules that I took. Doing research in areas of conflict such as Libya can and did have an enormous effect on the conduct of fieldwork. A researcher usually has an original plan, which he/she seeks to carry out, however circumstances might force the researcher into thinking about a contingency plan. Each tutorial with my supervisor continuously referred to possible contingency and diversion from the original plan. The point continued during my upgrade. Little did I know at that point that I would change a great deal and would need a contingency plan. I faced a number of possible eventualities: a) go and do all planned fieldwork, b) go and have to stop and return when safe to do so, c) go and have to stop and then restart, d) not be able to go at all and do all my fieldwork in the UK with a different focus on ITT. I had emailed my supervisor to inform him about the need for a contingency plan who granted me all his trust that I could do what I think was best for my participants and myself and reminded me that safety for all was priority. On arrival, I quickly assessed the situation in Azzawia, in addition to learning how much time, I was allowed with the participants and what resources were available. Immediately I had to ‘think out of the box’ and make some unexpected changes to the research design. The original research plan for the phases of teaching practice included 12 weeks (2 weeks of observation of experienced teachers teaching at school, in addition to 2 weeks of microteaching, 2 weeks of co-teaching and 6 weeks of independent teaching/solo-teaching). Due to the on-going
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circumstances, one of the many contingency plans agreed upon with my supervisor prior leaving the UK had to be used. Two weeks of observing, co-teaching, and 5 weeks of independent solo teaching. I felt that if I were to spend more time on observing, co-teaching and including microteaching, no time would be left for independent teaching.
7.4 The Impact of Conflict on a Research Setting and Research

Ford, Mills, Zachariah and Upshur (2009) argue that the impact of conflict can hinder several parts of a research study. An example can be illustrated in the impact conflict can have on research settings (e.g. schools, universities, etc.). The devastating consequences of war are so severe that they may result in the displacement of pupils and teachers as well as put children and teachers at risk of injury or death (Bede Sheppard, 2009) such as the case of the Rwandan genocide (Buckland 2005 cited in UNESCO, 2011). Conflict can threaten the safety of schools and cause damage or possibly destruction to the research setting and threaten the safety of the teachers and pupils while travelling to and from school (Bede Sheppard, 2009) which results into children’s attending school less often, increasing teacher absenteeism, or children completely dropping out because attending school might threaten their lives (Shemyakina 2006 cited in UNESCO, 2011). The UNESCO (2007) report “Education under attack” and Bede Sheppard (2009) highlight the increasing military and political targeting of educational institutions, their students and personnel. An illustration of this could be found in the armed militias destroy and damage school buildings such as the cases of countries of Afghanistan, Iraq, Somalia, Chad, Ethiopia, Zimbabwe, India, Pakistan, Guatemala, and the Democratic republic of Congo (Buckland 2005 cited in UNESCO) and Libya being added just recently to the list following the 2011 war. A good example of such consequences are illustrated in an excerpt from a research conducted by Erik Van Ommering (2011):

“When we went back to school after the war, all windows were broken. Everyone was afraid [. . .] but the teachers said nothing about it [. . .]” says nine year-old Imad. “Why didn’t your teachers talk about it?” I ask him. “Because then the students would remember [. . .]”

(Elementary School, Beirut, Lebanon, January 2007).

The excerpt illustrates the impact and consequences of the 2006-armed conflict between Israel and Hazbollah on pupils and teachers in elementary schools in Lebanon (Ommering, 2011). The lived experiences of pupils, teachers and researchers in conflict zones have rarely been exposed in the past but recently has become a topic of interest amongst researchers (Ommering, 2011) and I saw my research as a chance to contribute to this paucity of literature. Teachers teaching in conflict zones are confronted with unpredictable situations that affect them and their pupils. Burnett & Dorovolomo (2008) for example, indicated in a study conducted in the Solomon Island that although teachers attempted in numerous ways to reassure frightened pupils and tried to maintain a sense of normality, they still continued teaching but under fear for personal safety and the safety of their pupils. This was the case of the student teachers involved in this thesis. Teachers’ level of fear and worry varied depending on the situation they found themselves in that
is, where they were teaching and whether they were of a particular ethnicity. One of the teachers interviewed in the study illustrates her resilience and strength through this particular point:

“Really pretended to the children that everything was OK. But, you know, the children kept telling me, “Teacher, I’m scared”. They were telling me all sorts of things and I said, “No, nothing will happen to us”. I just tried my best to tell them all the good things”.

My project was about providing young prospective teachers with an opportunity to experience some teaching practice in schools. Little did I know, armed militias were targeting schools and universities and as a result, children and university students struggled to find a suitable place to be educated as some schools were destroyed and several others were being used as militia military head-quarters. Their main goal was to disrupt the education process and recruit as many pupils and students to join them in the fighting. During fieldwork, I witnessed schools being destroyed and universities being shut down, sometimes for no reason at all. Their (militias/extremists) goal is for Libya to remain chaotic and for them to further control larger areas of the country. My mission as a researcher was to try to make some change and help the education system, little did I know these individuals would make my job much more difficult than I anticipated (Bede Sheppard, 2009; Ommering, 2011).
7.5 The Impact of Conflict on a Researcher

Wood (2006) argues researchers conducting fieldwork in areas of conflict will probably experience intensive emotions during the course of their work, such as anger, grief, fear, outrage, and in some situations pity, usually through observing, or fearing the impact of conflict. Wood argues that without a doubt, field researchers in severe cases may experience ‘secondary trauma’, which is the prolonged effects of observing violations against human rights. In extreme settings, field researchers experience enormous stress when it comes to collecting and securing data since conflict may lead to restricted access to both physical locations and to the different parties involved in the research (Skaras, 2016; Helbardt, Hellmann-Rajanayagam & Korff, 2010). Wood (2006) states that in extreme settings, researchers may find difficulty in engaging in interviews with participants or with those involved in the research. In agreement, Perera (2017) explains that in conflict settings, restricted access to field locations or poor transportation and risk-averse security protocols can certainly limit a researcher’s ability to access information or collect data.

During my time in the field, I experienced feelings of fear, sadness, stress and anxiety. I also had what was called “fieldwork blues” (Wood, 2006). I went through these overwhelming feelings of fear, distress, anxiety every single morning before leaving home to go to the research site, feelings so powerful I would literally feel my heart ache, that feeling of potentially not being able to see my only daughter or parents had something bad happens to me on my way to the field setting. I was torn between leaving my loved ones and the participants who against all odds were willing to come to school, help me and participate in my research and devote themselves to this research one hundred percent.

Some would question how I was able to overcome such challenges. For me, maintaining a lot of patience was key. In addition to preparing myself to adjust to unexpected circumstances and with the guidance of my supervisor and loved ones, I was able to carry on with my research and collect the necessary data to answer my research questions.
7.6 Researcher's Role in Conducting Field in Conflict Areas

The role of researchers conducting studies in areas of conflict has been a significant concern in the methodology literature (Mazurana, Jacobsen and Gale, 2013; Raheim, Magnussen, TveitSekse, Lunde, Jacobsen & Blystad, 2016; Karnieli-Miller, Strier, and Pessach, 2009). According to Mazurana, Jacobsen and Gale (2013) contexts going through conflict often deteriorate fast and as a result, researchers are required to be flexible and have the ability to adapt their methodologies according to specific circumstances as experienced by the author of this thesis. They claim that researchers working in areas of conflict are not only responsible for how they represent themselves in and out of the field, but should also carefully consider how they will represent their research communities, and the research findings. Raheim, Magnussen, TveitSekse, Lunde, Jacobsen & Blystad (2016) argue that although researchers and participants do not have fixed roles, these roles tend to evolve during the research or project. The authors examined the researcher-researched relationship in addition to how researchers often have both insider and outsider roles which “seemed to lead to power relations and researcher vulnerability” (p.1).

Recent literature emphasize that qualitative traditions all have “…a common epistemological ground: the researcher determination to minimize the distance and separateness of researcher participant relationships,” as echoed by Karnieli-Miller, Strier, and Pessach (2009:279). In earlier research, Willson (1995) cited in Nilan (2002) describes the shifts researchers may go through during field research and supports his claim with an example of a qualitative research situation where an ethnographer is expected to be ‘simultaneously detached and yet intensely engaged’ (p. 255). Highlighting her experiences of conducting ethnographic research in dangerous and unpredictable fieldwork situations, Nilan (2002) describes how in some situations or incidents in which it was difficult she unintentionally shifted from a position of being an emotionally detached researcher to an emotionally immersed researcher. I found myself playing the role of both the insider and outsider and was forced to move from one role to another according to the situation. I recall two unforgettable incidents that tested my positionality as researcher. In the middle of observing a lesson taught by one of the target student teachers, a loud “Boom” sound startled the entire class; a garage near the school premises blew up and went into flames. I was very frightened not only for myself but for the student teacher and pupils. Pupils started to panic but remained in their seats, while the student teacher was confused on how she should react in this situation. No regular classroom teacher was present. I approached her and asked her to calmly inform the pupils to collect their belongings as they may be asked to leave school. One of the pupils stood up and said “teacher don’t be afraid, we have gotten use to this as things like this happen every day, we are immune to such incidents”. That was extremely upsetting to hear from a little fifth grader, an innocent child who was stripped of his childhood.
Towards the end of the fifth week, a further incident occurred when conflict flared up again and the school was in a cross conflict area and was hit by a grenade. No major damage was caused however the school was forced to close down for more than a week as military officials were obliged to make sure no remainders of the grenade were left behind in the school playground before pupils were allowed to return to school. This was now the third week lost from the original plan of 12 weeks of TP. This conflict was different from previous conflicts, this continued for several weeks non-stop. During the day, life was like any other day, people went to work, shops were open for business however, and most schools were closed for safety reasons. As night approached, militias started their battles, light and heavy artillery used by amateurs, as if they were playing on their Play Stations, had severe consequences. Homes were hit, some even destroyed, people injured, several killed. I endured sleepless nights remaining awake just to make sure everyone was safe, being afraid a flying rocket lands on the roof of your house while sleeping, sounds of grenades in the night sky, the roaring blasts of machine guns, the sight of shaking walls and glass windows, the fear of losing one’s life, these are things that will remain in my memory until the day I die. Waking up alive each morning was a blessing and miracle for some (Wood, 2006).

The final section of this chapter concludes with/informs specific advice to others who may be considering undertaking fieldwork in near-similar settings.

### 7.7 Considering Undertaking Field-work in Conflict areas?

Through fieldwork, you incorporate everything you have learned behind your desk and put it into practice. That allows you to “step beyond the known and enter into the world of participants, to see the world from their perspective” (Corbin and Strauss 2008:18). Apart from learning about the ‘other’, through fieldwork researchers also inform their knowledge, understanding, and insight into certain phenomena they wish to study. While this certainly requires careful preparation, the importance of preparing yourself and not just your project for fieldwork should not be underestimated. Fieldwork has its own way of unfolding itself. Because it is so heavily dependent on both the context and the people you encounter, it is virtually impossible to create a research plan and timeline that you will be able to stick to (Artikelen & Meer, Uit t’veld, 2018). That said, my first piece of advice to other researchers embarking on research in conflict areas is to “expect the unexpected”. While it is useful to have a rough outline of what your fieldwork period will look like, it is even more important to keep in mind that you will most likely not stick to this plan. Mentally preparing yourself for a research period during which you feel like you have little control over what is happening and when, helps you deal with these more chaotic moments. Furthermore, in combination with a rough outline of your research, you will still be able to find
structure in it. My second piece of advice is to “become familiar with some of the feelings and challenges other people encounter”. As Amy Pollard (2009) has written for Anthropology Matters, many research students experience feelings of anxiety, frustration, loneliness and isolation, stress, and powerlessness. While probably not all researchers will experience all these feelings, most of them at some point during their fieldwork will have experienced some. By simply preparing yourself that you might encounter these feelings and that they are normal, can help in working through them while in the field. This also brings me to the third piece of advice, which is to find a support system in which you feel comfortable discussing these feelings in case you experience them yourself. Doing fieldwork in areas affected with conflict is hard to compare to anything else, and at times it can feel like nobody understands what you are going through. When researchers avoid discussing their feelings of anxiety, depression, fear, etc. associated with their fieldwork, there is a potential to not only do harm to yourself, the participants but also to the next generation of researchers. To avoid fieldwork challenges feeling like personal failures, it is absolute key to have people close to you with whom you feel comfortable discussing the emotional labour of fieldwork. I was fortunate to have had my family with me, while concerned for their safety, provided a place for myself to express and talk about my feelings and emotions on a daily basis. This helps us to understand that these feelings are normal and shared, and helps researchers to see that they are not personally responsible for ‘failure’ in the field. Furthermore, on a more personal level, it can help us put these experiences in perspective, because when we are prepared for periods of struggle, they feel less overwhelming and it becomes easier to focus on overall positive experience of fieldwork. On a more practical level, it is important to give yourself some time to adjust and find your way in the field. Fieldwork is not only unpredictable, it also takes place in a place you may not be familiar with, thus can leave you feeling quite vulnerable. Therefore, by allowing yourself the time to adjust to an environment going through conflict and at the same time preparing yourself for some unexpected changes during your fieldwork, will help you to feel more comfortable and confident. During my fieldwork experience, for instance, I was already familiar with the environment and the people but was not able to adjust to the situation I found myself in until after being in the field for a while.

My final piece of advice to other researcher is to keep a personal journal or diary alongside your fieldwork notes as this can help in documenting your personal struggles, your positive moments and so on. This definitely helped me. By keeping a personal diary, I was able to use the information I documented during my time in the field to produce this reflexive chapter and this was something that I needed to put down on paper as perhaps part of my own healing. Prepare yourself to write without any reservation and without any judgements. It can really help to simply ‘write it off’, even when these are feelings you might not really want to admit to (for example in
my notes I wrote many times: I really am scared....I just cannot do this anymore...why am I here in the first place....do I really want to continue in such severe conditions?....etc.).
Chapter 8   Conclusions, Recommendations & Further Studies

8.1   Introduction

The purpose of this study was to examine the concerns, experiences and perceptions of student teachers in attending an Initial Teacher Education Program at one university in Libya. The main focus was on student teachers training to teach English in one Initial Teacher Education Programme. The study gathered quantitative data from one cohort of 40 (originally 150) English teachers and traced four of these students through some school-based teaching opportunities across a period of 7 weeks. A description and interpretation of their concerns, experiences and perceptions during this period of their initial teacher education were discussed in detail in Chapter Five and Chapter Six.

8.1.1   Overview of the chapter

In this chapter, the main findings with regards to the research questions are summarised and overall conclusions based on these findings of the study are outlined. Moreover, the limitations of this research study are considered and suggestions for further studies into teacher education are presented. This chapter concludes with recommendations for three groups of stakeholders in higher education in Libya: policy makers, teachers, and students. In view of the sharply changing context for this thesis and the experiences of the writer, recommendations and advice are also offered to researchers who plan to enter conflict areas to carry out research. An overall summary of the major conclusions from this research study:

- A major conclusion from this study was that the Teacher Concerns Questionnaire could be applied within an Arabic context, in this case Libya. Libyan teacher educators could use such a questionnaire to determine the types of concerns Libyan student teachers go through during their initial teacher education. The use of the TCQ and the results from the questionnaire could help in part restructuring the Teacher Education Programme in Libya as it will assist in revealing what student teachers might be concerned with before and during their teacher education programme while at the time remaining alert to the complexity of their thinking as evident in the work of Burn and colleagues in the DEBT project.

- Strength of concerns for classroom management and pupil behaviour increased across survey results and persisted on even after securing teaching posts in private sectors.
-Interviews revealed greater concerns for pupil learning (impact concern) which mirrors other research (Capel, 2001).

-Teaching practice was not only considered a significant milestone in student teachers’ learning (Fuller, 1969) and development (Maynard & Furlong, 1995; Katz, 1972), it was seen as one of the most important and valuable components in the student teachers’ initial teacher education programme. Through teaching practice, student teachers acquired new insights on how to implement theory learned at university in classrooms in addition to the effect authentic material and games had on their lessons and pupil interest.

-Findings showed that through student teachers’ development during their ITE, student teachers’ learning occurred and changed over the period of teaching practice through trial and error (repetition of lessons), observation and modelling of research in this case, problem solving (pupil behaviour) and making sense of theory learned at university once they started teaching practice.

-Results showed that student teachers’ had idealistic views and expectations of what they expected to find prior to entering schools. A major conclusion was how student teachers were made to feel so unwelcomed and isolated in school-by-school staff and schoolteachers in addition to not being looked at as real teachers.

-Another major conclusion from this study was amidst all the challenges (internal posed by the school and external through the conflict), student teachers were genuinely upset that teaching practice had to come to an end and felt the need to spend more time in schools. This is a clear indication of their determination and resilience towards learning to become teachers.

-A major conclusion from this study was how student teachers were occasionally undermined by regular classroom teachers and continuously made to feel unwelcomed and isolated in school.

-Findings revealed that there is a great need for trained and qualified teachers that would be able to take the part of the cooperating teacher. The Ministry of Education should train or assign teachers to take up the role of cooperating teachers.

-Findings showed that although some student teachers did make sense of the theory they learned in university with practice during their teaching practice experience......
8.2 Findings with Regard to the Research Questions

8.2.1 Research Question One

"What are the concerns of English language teachers during their final year of their initial teacher education in Libya?"

The primary aim of this research question was to examine the concerns of student teachers at three different occasions during a 7-week sustained period of ‘Teaching Practice’, particularly to identify any changes in concerns about school experience as they developed as teachers.

The results from the TCQ administered at three different occasions to a cohort of 40 student teachers including the four target student teachers and the individual interviews with the four target student teachers, revealed that Libyan student teachers experience many concerns during their developmental stage of becoming teachers. The survey results indicated that at all three administrations of the Teacher Concerns Questionnaire, the ‘Self’ and ‘Impact’ concerns were included in the six items ranked highest as causes of concern. The results of the TCQ suggest that student teachers’ concerns changed relatively over time. The items causing most concern at all three administrations were ‘impact’ and ‘self’ concerns and the items causing the least concern at all three administrations of the questionnaire were ‘task’ concerns (see Chapter Five). These results suggest that student teachers do not have concerns for task related items. A possible explanation might be that so much of their experience was within a somewhat limited period of time and about establishing discipline or perhaps somewhat speculatively whether non-target students were wondering if they would be able to manage behaviour when they finally have the chance to do so (not until the beginning of the first year of teaching). While the interviews did not question the children about the conflict itself, it is quite likely that this conflict did have an effect on their behaviour but the conflict actually might have (Bede Sheppard, 2009; Shemyakina 2006 cited in UNESCO, 2011; Ommering, 2011).

Given the shifting concerns for these student teachers in Libya, the findings suggest that the TCQ could be applied within an Arabic context such as Libya. Teacher educators could use such a questionnaire to determine the types of concerns Libyan student teachers go through during initial teacher education mainly focusing on teaching practice. The use of the TCQ and the results from the questionnaire could help in restructuring the Teacher Education Programme in Libya as it will assist in revealing what student teachers might be concerned with before and during their teacher education programme.
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On the other hand, across the interview results (involving the four target students), there was a noticeable increase in the strength of concerns for classroom management and pupil behaviour (self-concern) (Capel, 2001). The content of the degree prior to the teaching practice had included little if any practical experience. As for the non-targeted students, this rising concern can be attributed to the lack of any sustained placement experience meaning they would quite likely discover if they could manage a classroom after they qualify as teachers and one wonders what support they might receive at this stage of their career. Interviews also revealed greater concerns for pupil learning over time (impact concern) which mirrors other research conducted on student teachers’ concerns (Capel, 2001; Mtika, 2008). The results from the interviews suggest that more applied attention to strategies to manage classroom management is needed in the ITE programme in Libya. This is mentioned in the recommendations later in this chapter.

8.2.2 Research Question Two

“What are the student teachers’ expectations of and responses to the school-based placement experience?”

A major conclusion from this study was how student teachers were made to feel unwelcomed in school. Responses from ‘Interview One’ conducting before the teaching practice placement revealed that student teachers had idealistic views and expectations of what they expected to find prior to entering the school environment. Some expected teachers and school staff to be welcoming and supportive of them and others expected teachers and staff to look at them as real teachers or colleagues. These expectations changed once they entered into the school environment. The reception the student teachers found could be described as ‘cold’, not having support and being made to feel unwelcomed, point to a very difficult and frustrating experience for them. Perhaps had the regular class teachers been present during classes, their experience might have been even more difficult. Therefore, the absence of the class teachers might have eased the concerns for the student teachers as when present these regular class teachers had nothing positive to say to the student teachers. Since schoolteachers were resistant to serving their roles as cooperating teachers, this is when the role of the university supervisor became even more important in providing support and advice to the student teachers during teaching practice. It is necessary to point out that the university supervisor made frequent visits to the practising school to assess student teachers’ learning progress during teaching practice; however, because of his heavy workload between the university and the school, he was unable to attend all lessons. This was one of the reasons why the researcher felt it necessary to step in, support and advise student teachers. The task of developing a supportive mentoring system is clearly one next step for Libyan teacher education at this institution.
Although student teachers were affected by pupil behaviour and the unprofessional conduct on the part of the school and class teachers, they were still yet looking forward to learn and develop into professional and qualified teachers. Amidst all the challenges (internal posed by the school and external through the conflict), these student teachers felt sad that teaching practice had to come to an end and felt the need to spend more time in schools as opposed to university. A key development here is that not only does the material presented in university link well with schools, but that student teachers have opportunity to reflect back on their school based experiences with their peers during the teaching practice placement. In the current Teacher Education programmes in Libyan, the syllabus is packed with so much content that it becomes a burden for university tutors to complete which leaves little or no time at all for practical training. Student teachers also found the teaching practice experience to be one of the most beneficial courses they had taken during their teacher preparation programme (Mtika, 2008; Al-Mahrooqi, 2011). The overall results suggest that Teaching Practice contributed to the student teachers’ learning development. They acquired new insights on how to implement theory learned at university in classrooms in addition to the positive effect authentic material and games had on their lessons and pupils. Teaching practice also contributed to boosting student teachers’ self-image and confident as teachers.

Given all the obstacles from being undermined and the lack of support from school staff and teachers to the on-going conflict, student teachers were still looking forward to learn and develop; they were genuinely upset when the teaching practice experience ended. This frustration persisted in the interactions that followed their graduation and we could only admire them for their efforts to seek some form of teaching experience, as the government was unable to sign on new teachers to teaching posts. It would have been ideal for them to move into a full time teaching post to continue their development, but this was not possible. It is argued that they have in affect become victims of the current situation in Libya and in particular the major disagreements across the three governments in respect to teacher allocations to schools, each of which are claiming power over this process.

8.2.3 Research Question Three

“What changes in the student teachers practice occurred across the period of school placement?”

The aim of this research question was to explore the changes in student teachers' practice across a 7-week period of teaching practice. The researcher examined student teachers’ lesson observations in addition to the field-notes made during fieldwork. Results from the observation lessons and field-notes indicated that not only was the teaching practice period considered a
significant milestone in student teachers’ learning and development, it was seen as one of the most important and valuable components in their teacher education programme. Although the findings indicated that learning to teach was an emotional and challenging process for all four-target student teachers, they remained resilient and determined to learn. Through their presence in a school environment, they were able to explore what they thought about teaching (expectations) and perhaps develop their own pedagogy, rather than imitating their past teachers practice. Findings showed that through their development, student teachers’ learning occurred and changed over the period of teaching practice through trial and error (repetition of lessons), observation and modelling of (researcher in this case), problem solving (pupil behaviour), and making sense of theory learned at university once they started teaching practice. Although lesson observations and field notes suggest that student teachers struggled with classroom management and pupil behaviour across the entire sustained period of teaching practice, they were sad when teaching practice came to an end. Student teachers showed greater concerns for pupil learning and their impact on pupils’ lives towards the middle and end of teaching practice. Findings from the TCQ revealed that Libyan student teachers were anxious regarding a number of concerns similar to Capel’s findings, however, they were not sequential as Fuller suggests which might suggest that they were applicable to findings from studies such as the DEBT project.

8.2.4 Research Question Four

“ **In what ways have the research participants continued to prepare themselves for teaching since the completion of teaching practice? What is their rationale?**”

Findings from the interview data suggested that despite the challenges student teachers encountered during teaching practice and the frustration and fear they had experienced, their resilience and determination was still evident even after the completion of teaching practice. Findings suggest that although all four student teachers expressed their frustration towards the affect the conflict had on their daily lives and the fact that they were unable to secure teaching positions in public schools, they were still determined to seek alternative options to attach themselves to schools and teaching, and contribute to their learning development. For instance, some secured teaching positions in private sectors, whereas others secured administrative roles. Some decided to give private lessons to pupils at home, whereas others decided to further develop themselves as teachers and enrol in a teacher development programme. One of the student teachers even considered postgraduate studies while she waited to secure a teaching position in a public school.
8.3 Original Contribution to Knowledge

A PhD dissertation is an authentic piece of research (University of Southampton, 2013). For this reason, researchers should be capable of demonstrating that their research argument has not been explored before or demonstrate that they are challenging a new or different viewpoint on a topic previously studied. To date, a considerable body of research sought to understand student teachers’ concerns (Capel, 2001) and experiences (Mtika, 2008) during their learning development during their initial teacher education programmes (see Chapter Three). To the researcher’s knowledge, this is considered the first study conducted in Libya (see Chapter One & Chapter Two), which investigates the concerns and experiences student teachers go through during their learning development across their final year at university. This study demonstrates that Libya has some very determined student teachers with considerable grit. As a matter of fact and to the researcher’s knowledge this is the first empirical study of student teachers in the world that has investigated student teachers’ concerns and experience during a teaching practice placement during a time of war. Therefore, this research can be considered as an addition to knowledge. Findings from this research study were supportive of other research findings from across the world adding a developing country perspective to concerns and issues regarding Initial Teacher Education, which have not yet been explored in Libya until the point in time under discussion. This knowledge can help assist teacher educators in re-evaluating their teacher education programmes (especially the teaching practice element) by developing a pedagogy that embraces the needs of future student teachers, their co-operating teachers, mentors and teacher educators. Reflecting upon the researcher’s fieldwork experience, she believes that this study could also contribute to a better understanding of the importance of relationships between student teachers, schoolteachers (co-operating teachers) and university supervisors as a requirement for learning. This in turn, can contribute to a better learning experience for student teachers.

As referred to in several sections of this research (see Chapter Three & Chapter Four), previous studies have examined student teachers’ concerns during their learning development. The Teacher Concerns Questionnaire (George, 1978) was one of several measurements used to investigate student teachers’ concerns during their teaching practice period in schools (Capel, 2001). In contrast, the current research is the first attempt in using the Teacher Concerns questionnaire to explore student teachers’ concerns across a sustained period of teaching practice in the context of teacher education in Libya and other Arab countries across the region. By using the Teacher Concerns Questionnaire to explore the concerns of Libyan student teachers during their initial teacher education, this study has provided new insights into student teachers concerns during their learning development. Furthermore, by introducing such measurement to
an Arabic context, this could reveal a new perspective in the application of this measurement tool, which to the researcher’s knowledge has never been used.

Despite the ever-increasing body of literature regarding the conduct of educational research in areas of conflict (Amour, 2012; Skaras, 2016) and to the best knowledge of the researcher, no research has been conducted nor published on field research during the conflict in Libya. This thesis might be the first in the field to report on lived experiences of researchers’, student teachers’ and pupils’ in field research during a time of war in Libya. This thesis might be the first in the field to report on lived experiences of researchers’, student teachers and indirectly pupils in field research during a time of war in Libya. The reported experiences of student teachers illustrated their resilience and determination to learn in the face of challenges internal to the school setting and those beyond. Furthermore, the researcher's experience during fieldwork can add knowledge to the already existing literature on researchers' experiences conducting fieldwork during times of conflict. Therefore, this research can be considered as an addition to knowledge on field research that has not yet been researched in the Libyan context. Findings of this research were supportive of other research findings adding a developing country perspective to the field research conducted during times of war. It is the researcher’s hope that this research inspires others conducting research in unstable or stable environments to examine their practices in order to improve them.

8.4 Limitations of the Study

It is important to acknowledge some of the limitations of this research study. The results of this research study were cautiously interpreted due to a number of weaknesses in the study. One of the limitations of this study centred on its generalizability. Given that the study was conducted in only one public school, the findings cannot be assumed to be applicable to other schools in Libya. Furthermore, all the lessons observed were intended to teach only English and not any other subjects such as maths, history, geography, science, etc. Teachers of other subjects may focus more on content than on the teaching of a language itself. Fourth year students involved in this research were all attending the same education course at one university in the city of Azzawia in Libya. However, only four of these students participated in the sustained period of teaching practice with a specific structure and experience. Therefore, on reflection this was a manageable number for purposes of data collection as the researcher was the sole researcher. The results from this research may prove hard to generalise to the other 4th year students who were not involved in this sustained period of teaching practice. The third limitation involved the number of students included in the analysis of questionnaires, and specifically the smallish sample size, which was influenced by the ability of students to be accessed at points during fieldwork. On this
latter point, it was evident that the four target student teachers also had variable numbers of lessons they could teach, with one (Khola), severely impeded by the conflict leading to fewer opportunities to travel to the school to teach.

The researcher believes that much was lost in terms of opportunities. For instance, spending more time in the field might have helped to learn whether student teachers were able to shift their concerns from classroom management to the concerns of the quality of pupil learning: conceptualised as ‘moving on’ according to Maynard and Furlong (1993). Moreover, it would have been interesting to see whether student teachers were able to manage their classroom effectively and gain more confidence as teachers (reaching the plateau). Additionally, it would have been interesting to see whether teachers’ involvement would have made any difference to student teachers’ learning development. Most importantly, it would have been helpful to have had the opportunity to track student teachers into their first teaching positions as the initial intention was for this study.

8.5 Recommendations for Teaching Practice in Higher Education

In light of the leading conclusions, the researcher would like to propose a summary of the suggested recommendations first, following a discussion of these recommendations in more detail in the further sections:

1. Necessity of building strong partnerships between Libyan universities and schools to provide an effective Teaching Practice experience for student teachers
2. One of Libya’s next steps is to train teachers to take up roles as cooperating teachers.
3. Libyan university supervisors and school teachers need to collaboratively work together for the benefit of student teachers’ professional growth.
4. Teacher Training institutions in Libya (Faculty of Education in this case) should work hand in hand with schools and organise workshops to train and support school teachers who take up roles as “mentors”.
5. Universities/Colleges in Libya should prepare students during their time in university/college more thoroughly, for what they might experience during their teaching practice.
6. The Teaching Practice timetable should be designed so it does not coincide with school terms such as towards or during the months of April/May when schools are preparing pupils for term examinations.
7. The content of Teacher Education in Libya should include factors in relation to the Teacher Concerns Questionnaire and student concerns (George, 1978) in addition to
theories on teacher development (Fuller, 1969; Fuller & Bown, 1975; Maynard & Furlong, 1995; Katz, 1972).

In the following section, the suggested recommendations are made for stakeholders in higher education, such as policy makers, teacher educators, teachers, and students.

8.5.1 Educational Policy

In Libya, no strict criteria is applied to those who wish to become future teachers. A perfect example of this, is the researcher herself. The researcher graduated from the Faculty of Education in 1998 without any prior teaching practice whatsoever, and was then assigned a teaching post at one of the public schools in Libya. Learning how to teach for her was a long and complex process as she was literally ‘thrown into a classroom’ with nobody to guide her nor advise her. Therefore, in situations such as this, policy makers might consider setting a clear criteria for those who are interested in taking up teaching as a profession. For example, students graduating from the Faculty of Education should not be assigned to schools to teach unless they have experienced at least a year of teaching practice in schools with the support of cooperating teachers and university supervisors who can assess them and decide whether they are eligible for teaching.

8.5.2 Adequate Preparation of Student Teachers at Universities

Despite the positive experiences encountered during the teaching practice experience, student teachers experienced challenges, which affected their practice during TP. From the findings of this study, student teachers found difficulty in connecting theory acquired at university with the reality of practice in classrooms, which not only influenced their performance in class but hindered their self-confidence at times as well. Based on these findings, measures are suggested on how universities, especially Faculties of Education and university tutors, might consider preparing student teachers during their time in university more thoroughly and adequately for what they might experience during their teaching practice in schools.

8.5.3 Reform of Teacher Education (Teaching Practice Component)

The research findings revealed that the means in which the teaching practice programme is presented at universities does not facilitate students’ comprehension of the consistency within the programme; neither does it bring their various types of experiences and learning together in a way, which contributes to the integration of theory and practice. The reason for this is the way theory is introduced at university in addition to the way university tutors teach and present this theory. As a graduate from Azzawia University (target-university) myself, university tutors tended
to pack students with so much theoretical content that it usually became a burden for both the teachers and students. Consequently, university tutors struggled to complete the syllabus (theoretical content) leaving little time or none for practice. Therefore, it is recommended that there be a substantial change or modification in the present teacher education programme at Azzawia University and its design in order to offer student teachers opportunities to be able to connect between theories learned at university and practice implemented at schools. For instance, from lessons observed during teaching practice, student teachers struggled with pupil behaviour. These behaviours and ways of overcoming them could perhaps be presented as case illustrations of what really goes on in classrooms and schools for other future student teachers to discuss and debate with their university tutors or amongst themselves on campus. In order to make the Teacher Education programme at Azzawia University and other Libyan universities more educational or informational for student teachers, significant changes are required. For example, the teacher education programme should not only limit micro teaching sessions to the third year, but also incorporate them into the first and second year at university and continue on until their final year. Moreover, it would be interesting to incorporate some macro teaching sessions with group discussions as well, as such activities could provide student teachers with opportunities to practise and test out theories they had learned at university with the support and guidance of their university tutors. Furthermore, university tutors who teach the teaching practice syllabus at university should provide student teachers with opportunities to develop confidence and expertise in teaching before sending them out into the real world of teaching. Consequently, student teachers will benefit a great deal from occasional contact (e.g. meetings) with university tutors who could provide them with exceptional support and motivate them to experiment with teaching by applying theories learned during their university courses, in addition to providing them with constructive feedback.

8.5.4 Timing of Teaching Practice

As discussed in Chapter Two, teaching practice is only offered during the final year at university (Year 4). During the time of fieldwork, student teachers played dual roles of being students at university and teachers at schools. According to the research participants’ interview responses, this put enormous pressure on them, as there was always a struggle between preparing themselves for final exams and teaching in schools. Based on the findings from this research study, student teachers suggested that teaching practice begin much earlier, perhaps during their third year at university or maybe even sooner. Indeed having a progressive system of micro-teaching opportunities, team-teaching and independent teaching (that was the intended fieldwork structure in this thesis) could comprise the teaching experiences of the Libyan students.
across their degree programme. Moreover, it would be interesting to incorporate some macro
teaching sessions with group discussions as well, as such activities could provide student teachers
with opportunities to practise and test out theories they had learned at university with the
support and guidance of their university tutors. Having ‘teaching practice’ earlier and which is
developmental might give future student teachers a chance at learning the needed managerial
and instructional tasks to help in teaching in general and as evident in this thesis
disciplining/managing pupil behaviour specifically. These tasks and periods in school might in time
ease the student teachers into their roles as teachers as they integrate into school environments
across their degree program. It could be argued Libya is certainly not ready to have the greater
proportion of ITE in schools (e.g. School Direct) in view of a severely under-developed mentoring
system and uncertainties over the presence of any form of positive support in some schools.
Indeed it could be argued the balance of time between schools and university in Libyan ITE move
to the opposite of a PGCE/School Direct system in England as systems of support and mentoring
are slowly developed.

8.5.5 The Role of Schools and School Teachers within the Teacher Education circle should
be Defined and Implemented

From the research findings, it seemed that student teachers were not always made to feel
welcome and were not generally respected by school staff including class teachers. They were
often excluded from school activities and were made to feel insignificant which deeply affected
them. Therefore, it is recommended that universities and schools work in partnership in providing
support to student teachers during teaching practice in schools, in addition to clarifying and
implementing the roles of both the school and class teachers especially after accepting student
teachers in their schools for TP. The researcher suggests that head teachers in schools receiving
student teachers provide strong leadership around initial teacher education and find appropriate
ways motivate and encourage schoolteachers to take on the role of a cooperating teacher.
Teacher educators in Initial Teacher Education programmes at universities in Libya might
consider, for example, having annual meetings with the Ministry of Education and school staff
regarding a possible or stronger partnership between universities and schools in regards to
sustained periods of Teaching Practice.

8.5.5.1 The Classroom Teacher’s Role

In the case of this research study, the role of the cooperating teacher (mentor) was non-existent
despite the target school being obliged to take in student teachers and support them during
teaching practice. School teachers at the target school were not interested in contributing to
student teachers’ learning during teaching practice and saw the presence of student teachers in school as a waste of time. This was evident in the comments made by some teachers who promised their classes a repeat of the lessons given by the student teacher. They were not willing to support them or offer them advice on how to survive teaching. None the less, they were threatened by their presence. Findings showed that class teachers were threatened that student teachers might take their positions at school, therefore saw them as intruders. From this, it is evident that there was a non-existent partnership between the cooperating teachers and the student teachers. This might suggest that teaching practice in Libya at the moment appears to be University-led and therefore might reveal alternative ‘models’ of teacher education where the student teacher and the university are the key ‘craft’ partners. This relationship could possibly assist with connections between university-based ‘theory’ and the realities of the classroom. This is not to suggest any involvement of class teachers but it is quite possible the take-up of potential ‘mentors’ may be slow. It is however recommended that the Ministry of Education and policy makers consider setting clear criteria for those who are willing to take up mentor roles. This recommendation is based on the evidence that student teachers in this thesis expected a great deal of support from the teachers at school. Another recommendation might be that universities arrange seminars or training for those genuinely interested in taking up mentor roles in schools and invite them to attend mentor training. After being trained, these teachers can be reintroduced into the classrooms and observe and support student teachers with the practical pedagogical knowledge they need to begin teaching. Through student teachers’ participation in class activities alongside more experienced teachers in the form of a cooperating teacher, this might minimise some of the concerns student teachers had gone through during teaching practice (see Chapter Seven). The redesigned role of ‘cooperating teacher’ could possibly enhance student teachers’ professional learning in a school-based setting and establish ‘partners’ that might ordinarily be seen in ITE systems in many parts of the world.

8.5.5.2 The Role of the School

Practising schools play an essential role in student teachers’ learning and development progress, for this reason, it is necessary to have effective dialogues with these schools regarding their roles during teaching practice. It is important to emphasise through these discussions the importance and contribution of their support on the development of student teachers. Furthermore, schools should provide a welcoming atmosphere for student teachers to develop their learning and teaching skills, in addition to engaging student teachers in school activities and offering them opportunities to interact with other staff members as a way of socialising them.
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8.5.6  **Collaborative Partnership between College and Schools**

The findings from student teachers in the research study revealed that the school where they had undergone teaching practice and university lacked collaborative partnerships. Results of the lack of collaborative partnership means that both the school and university were not joined together to support teaching practice. Furthermore, this lack of collaborative partnership could have possibly contributed to the disconnect of relations between student teachers and school staff at the practising school. In addition, they were made to feel alienated which hindered the participation of student teachers in the school’s activities and programmes, which could have been an effective source of learning to integrate in a school’s culture.

8.6  **Suggestions for Further Research**

This research study suggests there are several issues that should be explored in the future in order to fully comprehend the challenges, concerns and experiences student teachers endure during their initial teacher education programmes, especially their practicum. Taking this research a step forward could include the contribution of regular class teachers to the student teacher supervisory process. These professionals would need some training. It is speculated that the non-targeted student teachers (given the TCQ data) quite likely were becoming increasingly anxious about actually teaching in a classroom and that this prolonged delay could be questioned. Offering a more continued placement for all final year students would appear to be a focus for the future in terms of research. Following Borg’s (1998) study, it would be quite remarkable, should Libyan universities and schools allow to conduct mini case studies in which researchers could observe and video record student teachers’ lessons during teaching practice over an entire semester or year, then present student teachers with these recordings and ask them to reflect on them. This would offer educators and researchers a valuable understanding into student teachers’ thoughts about their learning and development process. Another possibility would be to draw upon (Mtika, 2008) suggestion to carry out similar research on student teachers’ experiences during teaching practice, however have student teachers, school teachers and university supervisors all as participants. This could provide educators with a more comprehensive insight into the voices of these participants rather than the voices of student teachers alone.
Appendix A

**Teacher Concerns Questionnaire (George, 1978)**

NAME……………………………………………………………… DATE……………………………………………………………………

Read each statement, then ask yourself: When I think about teaching, how much am I concerned with this? Please tick (    ) as appropriate

Legends:   1=not concerned                 2=a little concerned  3=moderately concerned
           4=very concerned                 5=extremely concerned

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Student Teacher Concerns</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>1. Self-concerns</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Doing well when supervisor is present</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feeling more adequate as a teacher</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Being accepted and respected by professional persons</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Getting a favourable evaluation of my teaching</td>
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<tr>
<td>Maintaining the appropriate degree of class control</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>2. Task-concerns</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>Lack of instructional materials</td>
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<tr>
<td>Feeling under pressure much of the time</td>
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<tr>
<td>Too many instructional duties</td>
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<tr>
<td>Working with too many students each day</td>
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<tr>
<td>The routine and inflexibility of the teaching situation</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>3. Impact-concerns</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>Meeting the needs of different kinds of students</td>
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<tr>
<td>Diagnosing student learning problems</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Challenging unmotivated students</td>
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<tr>
<td>Guiding students towards intellectual and emotional growth</td>
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<tr>
<td>Whether each student is getting what he/she needs</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

*adequate: acceptable, comfortable, competent, capable

*intellectual: academic, knowledgeable
Appendix B

Interview Schedule for Student Teachers BEFORE Teaching Practice

You will be teaching soon so:

1. How do you feel with teaching practice ahead of you? (i.e. Do you feel exited, anxious, nervous, etc.)

2. What are you excited/anxious/nervous about?

3. What are you looking forward to in teaching practice?

4. How prepared are you to begin teaching practice?

5. What are your expectations of the first day of teaching practice? or How do you expect to feel on the first day of teaching practice?

6. What are your main concerns about teaching practice? (i.e. planning, managing students, being accepted)

7. What did you learn in your initial teacher programme that can help you in teaching practice? (i.e. lesson planning, classroom management, etc.)

8. How do you think you will be perceived by the staff and the students?
Appendix C

Interview Schedule for Student Teachers *DURING* Teaching Practice

1. So far, how do you think teaching practice has helped you in teaching your lessons? Can you give me some examples?

2. So far, do you think the amount of work given to you in school was manageable, or do you think it was not enough?

3. So far, have you encountered any problems during your teaching practice and how did that affect you?

4. So far, how much support have you received from the class teachers? Were the class teachers helpful during your teaching practice?

5. So far, how do you feel your lessons went? Why do you say that? What went well/less well?

6. So far, do you feel that you have appropriate degree of classroom control?

7. So far, how do you feel when a supervisor is present while you teach?

8. So far, how adequate do you feel as a teacher?

9. So far, to what extent do you feel to begin full-time work as a teacher?
Appendix D

Pre-Observation Lesson Interview Protocol

1. Please tell me about the lesson you are planning to teach when I observe you?

2. What is the purpose of the lesson?

3. What do you want the pupils to learn or be able to do because of attending this lesson?

4. Will the lesson you are planning to teach be difficult for you to teach or for any of the pupils? Why or why not?

5. What activities have you planned for your class today?
Appendix E

Post-Observation Lesson Interview Protocol

1. How do you feel the lesson went? Why do you say that?

2. Was this lesson difficult for you to teach or for any of the pupils?

3. What surprised you in the lesson today?

4. Which task really engaged the learners?

5. Is there anything you would do differently in future lessons based on your assessment of today’s happenings?

6. Who or what would you turn to for guidance on that? Why?

7. Did you consult anyone regarding any aspect of this lesson? If so, what did you consult with and what sort of advice did you receive?
Appendix F

Interview Schedule for student teachers AFTER Teaching Practice

1. First, how do you feel now that you have completed teaching practice?

2. How do you think teaching practice helped you prepare for teaching? Can you give me some examples?

3. Tell me about some of the experiences you encountered during teaching practice which you thought caused problems for you in carrying out teaching practice?

4. Have these problems affected your decision to become a teacher? Why or how?

5. What are your main concerns towards teaching in schools?

6. What did you learn during your short teaching practice experience? How did that prepare you for teaching?

7. Tell me about the support you got from other teachers in the school?

8. Did you find teaching challenging?

9. Was your status of student teacher respected in the school? Why or why not do you think?

10. How would you want teaching practice to be organised in the future for other students?

11. Tell me about what you learned during teaching practice?

12. What do you think you failed to learn during teaching practice and why do you think you failed to learn that?
Appendix G

Follow-up Interview Schedule for Student Teachers

1. How are you coping with the situation in Libya? How have the conditions in Libya affected your everyday life?

2. Have you started teaching in schools? If yes, please tell me about your experience of teaching? If you have not started teaching in schools, what are the reasons for the delay?

3. Have you contacted the Education Administration to ask why you have not been assigned/allocated to a school yet?

4. Due to the delay of allocation, have you considered doing anything other than teaching? If yes, what have you considered doing/working? Give details.

5. Are you still excited and enthusiastic about teaching in schools?

6. What has sustained your enthusiasm in teaching?

7. How have you continued to prepare yourself for teaching? What are the different things you have been doing (e.g. planning, tutoring (teaching pupils at home or public place), enrolled in teaching programmes...etc.)?

8. If you still recall during our last interview, we spoke about your feelings towards the end of teaching practice. Do you still feel that teaching practice helped prepare you for teaching (emotionally, psychologically, and physically)? Give examples.

9. What were your last memories of Teaching Practice? What do you still remember from your teaching practice experience? What was the most and least favourable part of Teaching Practice?

10. Are you still looking forward to teaching? If so, can you tell me what you are looking forward to? How do you feel now approaching the real thing, teaching at a school on your own and given full responsibility of a class?

11. How would you evaluate your readiness to teach after graduating? Do you think you are ready to teach or do you feel the need for more practice? What are you ready and not ready for?

12. If you were to start teaching next week, what would you feel or be concerned about most (e.g. readiness, concerns about pupils’ behaviour, concerns about being accepted, support from teachers, etc.)
13. Tell me about a class you taught during teaching practice that had remained in your mind until now?

14. If you recall, we spoke about the support you got from other teachers from the school if any. How would you rate the amount of support you were offered in school during teaching practice? Do you think that you will find support from the teachers at the school you will be teaching in? What kind of support do you need from the teachers at school?

15. If you still remember when I asked you about whether your status as student teacher was respected in school during teaching practice, do you think you will be looked at as an equal when you start teaching in a school or do you think the senior teachers will look at you differently?

16. What types of responsibilities do you expect to be given when you start teaching at a school? What types of responsibilities would you prefer to have other than being a teacher at school?

17. If you still remember when we spoke about the amount of work you were given in school during teaching practice, do you think the work and responsibilities that will be given to you when you start teaching at school will be manageable or do you think that would be too much for you?
## Appendix H

Sample of responses to Interview ONE Questions asked BEFORE Teaching Practice (SEHAM)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Interview transcript</th>
<th>Initial coding framework</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Interviewer:</strong> How do you feel with teaching practice ahead of you, do you feel excited, anxious, nervous or concerned?</td>
<td>- EXCITEMENT</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Samia:</strong> I feeling inexcited and nervous some nervous not .... (giggled for a moment), I felt a little excited that ..... just that</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
| **Interviewer:** 'What are you excited, anxious, concerned about?' | - CONCERNED WITH TEACHING PUPILS  
- CONCERNED WITH BEING ACCEPTED  
- CONCERNED WITH CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT |
| **Samia:** I ..... ah........ I excited about how to learn the students and how to explain the lesson and how ah...how ah...(sounds of artillery I the background .... boom!! which made the interview quite uncomfortable ). I am also concerned about how pupils how accept me and what their reaction towards me when I explain a lesson what are your concerns about? (music can be heard from an unidentified source, probably from a cell phone) Samia: I was excited on one hand but disappointed one the other as I expected pupils to be easier to work with in order for the lesson to be taught in an easier way, but I found the opposite | |
| **Interviewer:** 'What are you looking forward to in teaching practice?' | - CONCERNED WITH TEACHING |
| **Samia:**uhm.......(silence) (sounds of birds and children in the background can be heard) Interviewer: for example, teaching itself or being in school Samia: I think I think I teaching in school is ah......I expect that the coming stage will be better than previous stages as I personally will try to choose and use the best methods to make the lesson clear | |
| **Interviewer:** 'How prepared are you to begin teaching practice?' | - CONCERNED WITH TEACHING |
| **Samia:** I prepared read the lessons very carefully and prepare the lesson and I ah..... I ah..... I try ah .....make some ah some ah make some ah ....and will use posters and authentic material that may help students understand lesson more clearly. I tried to improve my teaching skills and I have been working with the students to make sure they understand the material. | |

*With Dr. Sadeg and all the rest of the teachers and*
Samia: in university not read……..(silence) ….in the university, what we had from my point of view, and from what I've seen, what we had studied I university (subjects), have no relationship with what we are living now in school.

I believe the theory we had studied at university was useless and did not benefit from it at all. What we see here in school is much different from what we read in our books at university. (someone interrupted the interview therefore had to stop recording)

Interviewer: 'What are your expectations of the first day of teaching?'

Samia: concerning my expectations....... "What are my expectations? , what are my expectations?" you mean my expectations in teaching? If we are to teach the same way our expectations in teaching?... teachers taught us then we will not be able to improve and main at the same level we are now develop ourselves and will remain at the same level we are now uncertain about their futures as teachers...

Interviewer: 'What are your main concerns about teaching? (e.g. planning , managing students, being accepted??)'

Samia: what I'm more concerned about is planning my lesson carefully because that itself gives me confidence . If I had planned my lesson well then I have something to give to pupils . Another thing I am concerned about , is being accepted by pupils because if they accept you then they will interact with me in class and they will benefit from the lesson.

Interviewer: 'What did you learn from your initial teacher education program that can help you in teaching?'
| Interviewer: yes  
Do you mean what is it that we studied at university that will help me during TP?  
| Samia: (takes some time to read the question again from the paper before attempting to answer).  
Do you mean what is it that we studied at university that will help me during TP?  
| Interviewer:  
| Samia: no, we had no clue on how to write our lessons in the teacher's book nor did they show us how to do it.  
| Interviewer: Really?  
Samia: no, we had no clue on how to write our lessons in the teacher's book nor did they show us how to do it.  
| Interviewer: How do you think you will be perceived by the staff and the students?  
| Samia: in school?  
| Samia: um ... it was a normal look.  
Interviewer:  
| Samia: no, just like there are the bad, there are still the good teachers that helped us out and benefited from especially when we were able to observe them while they were teaching. But there were also teachers that were even lower.  
Interviewer: thank you very much Samia  
Samia: you're welcome, no problem | - NO BENEFIT FROM UNIVERSITY COURSES 
AND CONCERN WITH LACK OF TRAINING  
- LACK OF SUPPORT FROM TEACHERS |
Appendix I

Sample of responses to Interview Two Questions asked DURING Teaching Practice (ZARA)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Zara's Interview Transcripts</th>
<th>Initial coding framework</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Interview transcript</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&quot;Interviewer: ok these are some questions I’d like to ask you because now you are doing teaching practice for a while but you’re still not finished...um so far how do you feel your lessons have gone, why?&quot;</td>
<td>- CONCERNED WITH TEACHING</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Zara</strong>: Some some of the lessons varied some were successful and some were not. <em>Interviewer: why do you think some were successful and were not successful?</em> Zara: I believe that I did not do well in some lessons because I did not prepare the lessons carefully...that’s it <em>Interviewer: ok, regarding the lessons that you believe went well, why do you think they had gone well?</em> Zara: I believe that I prepared well for them and brought in posters and the class was calm and quite.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Interviewer</strong>: ok, so far how much support did you receive from the school-teachers?</td>
<td>- CONCERNED WITH BEING ACCEPTED</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Zara</strong>: no, there wasn’t any support at all...after you just left the office, the principal came in and yelled at us when she saw the cup of coffee and the cup of water that we decided to use as authentic material for one of our lessons. She said that this was not a coffee shop, so we replied to her and said that we were going to use them as authentic material but continued to yell at us, so how are we going to expect teachers to support us if the principal herself did not support us at all and made us feel uncomfortable. <em>Interviewer: ok, how do you feel when a supervisor is</em></td>
<td>- CONCERNED WITH THE LACK OF SUPPORT FROM TEACHERS</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Appendix I

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Zara: I feel a little afraid but after that I got used to it. At the beginning when he first entered the class for the first time, I got very nervous but then when I started the lesson, I felt alright.</th>
<th>CONCERNED WITH EVALUATION</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Interviewer: but why did you feel nervous when he was inside with you?</td>
<td>--</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zara: I don’t know but maybe because he was going to evaluate me so I was afraid and started to ask myself “how am I going to give the lesson and what if I make a mistake?”</td>
<td>--</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interviewer: last question. To what extent do you feel prepared to begin full time work as a teacher?</td>
<td>CONCERNED WITH TEACHING</td>
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<tr>
<td>Zara: you mean, how I benefited from teaching practice?</td>
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<tr>
<td>Interviewer: yes...how did you benefit from teaching practice and do you feel that teaching practice has prepared you to teach?</td>
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<tr>
<td>Zara: I’m not completely ready and need more time but so far I have benefited from teaching practice in many ways. I have learned how to deal with the pupils and manage the classroom and how to give a lesson and how to use posters in my lessons</td>
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<tr>
<td>Interviewer: thank you very much</td>
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Appendix J

Sample of responses to Interview THREE Questions asked AFTER Teaching Practice

Conversation between researcher and Seham via Facebook (Messenger) after translation

Date: April 12th 2015 / Time: 12:36 pm
Seham: Hello, teacher it’s me Seham

Date: April 22nd 2015 / Time: 2:53 am
Seham: Hello?

Date: 10th October 2015 / Time: 3:37 pm
Seham: Hello?

Date: 27th September 2016 / Time: 9:54 pm
Researcher: Seham? Are you Seham who participated in my research?

Date: 28th September 2016 / Time: 8:40 pm
Researcher: How are you Seham and how is your family?

How is your mom’s health?

I have really missed you.

Date: 12th October 2016 / Time: 4:22 pm
Seham: How are you Dr. I hope you are doing well. I swear to God I miss you and would love to see you. God bless you.

Time: 6:15 pm:

Researcher: Salam Alikum Seham. How are you darling?

Alhamdullah, I am well.

I really miss you as well. How’s your mom’s health?

How have you been doing and what have you been up to?
Appendix J

Have you started working? Or are you in the same situation as the other girls (Khola, Zara and Hala) who have not been allocated to schools yet?

**Date: 26th October 2016/ Time: 10:46 pm**

**Seham:** My mother is doing fine thank GOD.

I am doing fine as well. In regards to working, I work at a private school now.

How are you doing?

**Time: 11:03 pm:**

**Researcher:** Salam Alikum. How are you and what have you been up to?

I have missed you and the girls a lot.

Thank GOD your mother is well, it’s good to hear that.

It’s good that your working now so you don’t forget what you learned at university. What school do you teach at and what grades do you teach? How long have you been working now?

**Seham:**

**Researcher:** I’m sure you have gotten use to teaching and the pupils by now.

**Seham,** Do you have an email account?

**Seham:** I work in management not in my field. I manage a private school.

**Researcher:** Oh, too bad you don’t teach English then

**Seham:** I have an account on Facebook by the name of Southern Sun

**Researcher:** Do you have a Yahoo or Gmail account?

**Seham:** Well, I have to work, its better than just sitting at home doing nothing. Plus I have living expenses to take care of in addition to taking on a big responsibility of raising my niece as I have adopted her and I am her key carer. Do you remember when I told about the death of my brother, his wife and their youngest daughter in 2011? Well, this is their remaining daughter that I am taking care of now. When her parents and sister died, she was only 3 years old. She will be in the second grade this year. Alhamduallah.

No, I don’t teach English at this school but I do teach English courses and tutor pupils at home in the afternoons.
Researcher: Yes, I do remember you telling me about the death of your who died in a car accident and left a little daughter behind.

Seham: And that’s my latest news. Thank GOD.

Hope you and your family all the best.

Researcher: I am in the final stages of my research and I need your help in addition to the girls help if you do not mind.

If you still remember last time we met, I informed you and the girls that I will conducting a follow-up interview after you graduate.

And that’s why I asked whether you had an email account.

If you don’t have an email account, then I can conduct the interview via Facebook or Viber.

Seham: Of course, I will help you in any way I can.

No, unfortunately I don’t have an email account but you can always send the questions to me via Viber.

Researcher: HEART (icon)

Seham, if you’re busy, I can text you some other time. Could you send me the number you use on Viber?

Date: November 7th 2016/ 11:52 am

Seham: 09110913...

Date: November 13th 2016/11:32 am

Seham: Good day Dr.

How are you?

I’m sorry the internet is weak and I do not have access to it regularly.

You said that you had questions you wanted me to answer. I sent you the number I use on Viber. You didn’t send anything? I’ve been thinking about you especially with the poor access to the internet and how I could help you in any way.

Researcher: Hello Seham. How are you and the family? I hope all is well. Thank you for your concern. Yes, I just received your number and I will definitely send you the questions tomorrow Inshallah.

So, how are you and work? Are schools open these days especially with the conflict going on these days? I hope the situation is much more stable now.
Appendix J

Seham: Yeah, the past few weeks there was heavy fighting but now it’s much more stable. In regards to work, it’s not as before especially with the lack of money in the banks, the pupils who come to the private school are no longer able to make the payments on time so they just withdraw. Alhamduallah anyway.

I do not really have access to the internet but I will try my best to get access in order to go through the questions you will send me. Due to the on-going fighting, the internet company is not able to give access to the public so sometimes they give access to the internet one day and then do not allow access for ten days.

I wish to God the country goes back to normal.

Researcher: Yes, I hope everything improves and the fighting comes to an end. Take care and stay safe.

Thank you Seham for your help.

Seham: Inshallah. Thank you.

Researcher: Alright then, I will send you the questions tomorrow.

Seham: I would do anything for you Dr. and with pleasure. Ok, take care.

Researcher: Thank you so much darling

Seham:

Researcher:

Date: November 14th 2016/Time: 12:02

Researcher: Hello Seham.

I have attached the questions that I would like you to answer. You could answer them in English or in Arabic whichever way you feel comfortable.

Seham, I will send the same copy via Viber just in case you cannot download the file.
Appendix K

Classroom Observation Schedule

1. How does the teacher set up the classroom before the pupils arrive? How does the teacher start the lesson? Draw or describe the room arrangement.

2. Explain how the teacher makes the lesson objectives clear to students?

3. What materials or resources were used in the lesson? Technology? Media? Teaching aids?

4. What are the main activities of the lesson? What is the teacher’s style (Authoritative, Calm, Reasonable, Energetic, Purposeful)?

5. Observe the teacher explaining a task to the learners. How does the teacher do this so that the learners understand? Describe an effective teaching strategy the teacher used?

6. How does the teacher encourage students’ participation? How are pupils responding to the teacher’s lesson?

7. How does the teacher encourage students’ participation? How are students responding to the teacher’s lesson?

8. How did the teacher maintain interest throughout the lesson?
9. Note the number of pupils responding to the teacher and the number who are not. Why do you think this is happening?

10. How does the teacher monitor the progress of the learners during the lesson?

11. What does the teacher say or do to manage behaviour in the lesson? How does she respond to disruptive behaviour?

12. Were the outcomes of the lesson achieved? How do you know the pupils learned anything?

13. How was the lesson culminated?
## Original Plan for Research Study

### PHASES OF THE TEACHING PRACTICE EXPERIENCE

#### PHASE ONE: 2-WEEK OBSERVATION PHASE

*(3 days a week, 2 classes per day)*

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<td><strong>15&lt;sup&gt;th&lt;/sup&gt; March</strong></td>
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<td><strong>19&lt;sup&gt;th&lt;/sup&gt; March</strong></td>
<td><strong>Thursday</strong></td>
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- Beginning of the ‘Observation’ phase (observe expert teachers teach in classrooms)
- Pre-observation meeting with you before the observations to explain what you will be observing exactly
- I will give you the observation tool to use during the observations
- Meet up with you for a 10-minute post-observation meeting to discuss what went on in the classroom (post-observation questions)
- Class teacher will join in on the post-observation meeting
**WEEK 2 OF OBSERVATION PHASE**

| 22nd March | Sunday  | - Pre-observation meeting with you before the observations to explain what you will be observing exactly  
|           |         | - I will give you the observation tool to use during the observations  
|           |         | - Meet up with you for a 10-minute post-observation meeting to discuss what went on in the classroom (post-observation questions)  
|           |         | - Class teacher will join in on the post-observation meeting  |
| 24th March | Tuesday | - Pre-observation meeting with you before the observations to explain what you will be observing exactly  
|           |         | - I will give you the observation tool to use during the observations  
|           |         | - Meet up with you for a 10-minute post-observation meeting to discuss what went on in the classroom (post-observation questions)  
|           |         | - Class teacher will join in on the post-observation meeting  |
| 26th March | Thursday | - Pre-observation meeting with you before the observations to explain what you will be observing exactly  
|           |         | - I will give you the observation tool to use during the observations  
|           |         | - Meet up with you for a 10-minute post-observation meeting to discuss what went on in the classroom (post-observation questions)  
|           |         | - Class teacher will join in on the post-observation meeting  |
| 27th March | Friday  | DAY OFF  |
| 28th March | Saturday | DAY OFF  |
# PHASE 2: 2-WEEK MICRO-TEACHING PHASE

## WEEK 1 OF MICRO-TEACHING PHASE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Date</th>
<th>Day</th>
<th>Activity Details</th>
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</thead>
</table>
| 29th Mar | Sunday   | - Prepare and plan mini-lesson and then teach a 15-20 min. lesson to pupils in one of the participating schools  
- Lessons will be then reviewed, discussed and verbal feedback will be given as encouraging advice from the class teacher  
- After getting feedback, you will then prepare and plan the same lesson again and reteach it to the same group  
- You then will get feedback from the class teacher on the the second mini-lesson and afterwards compare the strengths and weaknesses of the first and second mini-lesson  
- I will debrief you and ask you to:  
  1. Talk about their lesson, how it went  
  2. What challenges they had  
  3. What they were concerned about |
| 31st Mar | Tuesday  | - Prepare and plan mini-lesson and then teach a 15-20 min. lesson to pupils in one of the participating schools  
- Lessons will be then reviewed, discussed and verbal feedback will be given as encouraging advice from the class teacher  
- After getting feedback, you will then prepare and plan the same lesson again and reteach it to the same group  
- You then will get feedback from the class teacher on the the second mini-lesson and afterwards compare the strengths and weaknesses of the first and second mini-lesson  
- I will debrief you and ask you to:  
  1. Talk about their lesson, how it went  
  2. What challenges they had  
  3. What they were concerned about |
| 2nd Apr  | Thursday | - Prepare and plan mini-lesson and then teach a 15-20 min. lesson to pupils in one of the participating schools  
- Lessons will be then reviewed, discussed and verbal feedback will be given as encouraging advice from the class teacher  
- After getting feedback, you will then prepare and plan the same lesson again and reteach it |
You then will get feedback from the class teacher on the second mini-lesson and afterwards compare the strengths and weaknesses of the first and second mini-lesson.

I will debrief you and ask you to:
1. Talk about their lesson, how it went
2. What challenges they had
3. What they were concerned about

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Date</th>
<th>Day</th>
<th>Note</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>3rd April</td>
<td>Friday</td>
<td>DAY OFF</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4th April</td>
<td>Saturday</td>
<td>DAY OFF</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Week</td>
<td>Day</td>
<td>Tasks</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------</td>
<td>-----------</td>
<td>----------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| 5th  | Sunday    | - Prepare and plan mini-lesson and then teach a 15-20 min. lesson to pupils in one of the participating schools  
   - Lessons will be then reviewed, discussed and verbal feedback will be given as encouraging advice from the class teacher  
   - After getting feedback, you will then prepare and plan the same lesson again and reteach it to the same group  
   - You then will get feedback from the class teacher on the second mini-lesson and afterwards compare the strengths and weaknesses of the first and second mini-lesson  
   - I will debrief you and ask you to:  
     1. Talk about their lesson, how it went  
     2. What challenges they had  
     3. What they were concerned about |
| 7th  | Tuesday   | - Prepare and plan mini-lesson and then teach a 15-20 min. lesson to pupils in one of the participating schools  
   - Lessons will be then reviewed, discussed and verbal feedback will be given as encouraging advice from the class teacher  
   - After getting feedback, you will then prepare and plan the same lesson again and reteach it to the same group  
   - You then will get feedback from the class teacher on the second mini-lesson and afterwards compare the strengths and weaknesses of the first and second mini-lesson  
   - I will debrief you and ask you to:  
     1. Talk about their lesson, how it went  
     2. What challenges they had  
     3. What they were concerned about |
| 9th  | Thursday  | - Prepare and plan mini-lesson and then teach a 15-20 min. lesson to pupils in one of the participating schools  
   - Lessons will be then reviewed, discussed and verbal feedback will be given as encouraging advice from the class teacher  
   - After getting feedback, you will then prepare and plan the same lesson again and reteach it to the same group  
   - You then will get feedback from the class teacher on the second mini-lesson and afterwards compare the strengths and weaknesses of the first and second mini-lesson  
   - I will debrief you and ask you to:  
     1. Talk about their lesson, how it went |
PHASE 3: 2-WEEK CO-TEACHING PHASE

WEEK 1 OF CO-TEACHING PHASE

12th April Sunday

- Prior to fieldwork, I will have a conversation with the class teachers about which of Friend and Cooks’ (1995, 1996, 2005, 2010) strategies they are familiar with and with agreement with you and classroom teachers, one of the strategies will be applied in this stage:

1. one teach, one observe
2. one teach, one support/assist
3. parallel teaching
4. alternative teaching
5. station teaching
6. team teaching

- You along with the class teachers will share the planning, organization, delivery and assessment of instruction as well as physical space.

- You will be provided with modelling, coaching and feedback from the class teachers in which they will provide a model of good teaching and work collaboratively with you, helping you to understand the complexities of the teaching profession.

- Prior to fieldwork, I will have a conversation with the
### 14th April Tuesday

Class teachers about which of Friend and Cooks’ (1995, 1996, 2005, 2010) strategies they are familiar with and with agreement with you and classroom teachers, one of the strategies will be applied in this stage:

1. one teach, one observe
2. one teach, one support/assist
3. parallel teaching
4. alternative teaching
5. station teaching
6. team teaching

- You along with the class teachers will share the planning, organization, delivery and assessment of instruction as well as physical space
- You will be provided with modelling, coaching and feedback from the class teachers in which they will provide a model of good teaching and work collaboratively with you, helping you to understand the complexities of the teaching profession.

### 16th April Thursday

- Prior to fieldwork, I will have a conversation with the class teachers about which of Friend and Cooks’ (1995, 1996, 2005, 2010) strategies they are familiar with and with agreement with you and classroom teachers, one of the strategies will be applied in this stage:

1. one teach, one observe
2. one teach, one support/assist
3. parallel teaching
4. alternative teaching
5. station teaching
6. team teaching

- You along with the class teachers will share the planning, organization, delivery and assessment of instruction as well as physical space
- You will be provided with modelling, coaching and feedback from the class teachers in which they will
provide a model of good teaching and work collaboratively with you, helping you to understand the complexities of the teaching profession.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>17th April</th>
<th>Friday</th>
<th>DAY OFF</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>18th April</td>
<td>Saturday</td>
<td>DAY OFF</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**WEEK 2 OF CO-TEACHING PHASE**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>19th April</th>
<th>Sunday</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

- Prior to fieldwork, I will have a conversation with the class teachers about which of Friend and Cooks’ (1995, 1996, 2005, 2010) strategies they are familiar with and with agreement with you and classroom teachers, one of the strategies will be applied in this stage:
  1. one teach, one observe
  2. one teach, one support/assist
  3. parallel teaching
  4. alternative teaching
  5. station teaching
  6. team teaching
- You along with the class teachers will share the planning, organization, delivery and assessment of instruction as well as physical space
- You will be provided with modelling, coaching and feedback from the class teachers in which they will provide a model of good teaching and work collaboratively
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Date</th>
<th>Day</th>
<th>Activity</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| 21st April | Tuesday | - Prior to fieldwork, I will have a conversation with the class teachers about which of Friend and Cooks’ (1995, 1996, 2005, 2010) strategies they are familiar with and with agreement with you and classroom teachers, one of the strategies will be applied in this stage:  
  1. one teach, one observe  
  2. one teach, one support/assist  
  3. parallel teaching  
  4. alternative teaching  
  5. station teaching  
  6. team teaching  
- You along with the class teachers will share the planning, organization, delivery and assessment of instruction as well as physical space  
- You will be provided with modelling, coaching and feedback from the class teachers in which they will provide a model of good teaching and work collaboratively with you, helping you to understand the complexities of the teaching profession. |
| 23rd April | Thursday| - Prior to fieldwork, I will have a conversation with the class teachers about which of Friend and Cooks’ (1995, 1996, 2005, 2010) strategies they are familiar with and with agreement with you and classroom teachers, one of the strategies will be applied in this stage:  
  1. one teach, one observe  
  2. one teach, one support/assist  
  3. parallel teaching  
  4. alternative teaching  
  5. station teaching  
  6. team teaching |
- You along with the class teachers will share the planning, organization, delivery and assessment of instruction as well as physical space.
- You will be provided with modeling, coaching and feedback from the class teachers in which they will provide a model of good teaching and work collaboratively with you, helping you to understand the complexities of the teaching profession.

**I will conduct the 2nd interview and ask you about how you benefited from the last two phases and about what your expectations for solo-teaching are. I will also prepare you for solo-teaching by explaining to you what you will be involved in.**

- I will also administer the 2nd TQC to both target and non-target students.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Date</th>
<th>Day</th>
<th>Notes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>24th April</td>
<td>Friday</td>
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<tr>
<td>25th April</td>
<td>Saturday</td>
<td>DAY OFF</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26th April</td>
<td></td>
<td>DAY OFF</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28th April</td>
<td></td>
<td>DAY OFF</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30th April</td>
<td></td>
<td>DAY OFF</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1st May</td>
<td></td>
<td>DAY OFF</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2nd May</td>
<td></td>
<td>I will meet with you to prepare you for solo-teaching</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
PHASE 4: SOLO-TEACHING

(6 weeks of independent teaching)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>WEEK 1 OF SOLO-TEACHING</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>3&lt;sup&gt;rd&lt;/sup&gt; May</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5&lt;sup&gt;th&lt;/sup&gt; May</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- Plan and teach a lesson independently for the first time
- I will meet up with you for a brief meeting to discuss what you will be teaching and how you have organized your lessons and ask you about what concerns you have about teaching independently
- I will be present in the classroom while you teach and will be taking notes
- I will meet up with you after the teaching sessions and interview you about how the lesson went and what you would change in the next lesson you teach
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Date</th>
<th>Day</th>
<th>Event Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>7th May</td>
<td>Thursday</td>
<td>- Plan and teach a lesson independently for the first time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- I will meet up with you for a brief meeting to discuss what you will be teaching and how you have organized your lessons and ask you about what concerns you have about teaching independently</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- I will be present in the classroom while you teach and will be taking notes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- I will meet up with you after the teaching sessions and interview you about how the lesson went and what you would change in the next lesson you teach</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8th May</td>
<td>Friday</td>
<td>DAY OFF</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9th May</td>
<td>Saturday</td>
<td>DAY OFF</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

**WEEK 2 OF SOLO-TEACHING**
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Date</th>
<th>Day</th>
<th>Activity Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>10th May</td>
<td>Sunday</td>
<td>- Plan and teach a lesson independently for the first time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- I will meet up with you for a brief meeting to discuss what you will be teaching</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>and how you have organized your lessons and ask you about what concerns you</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>have about teaching independently</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- I will be present in the classroom while you teach and will be taking notes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- I will meet up with you after the teaching sessions and interview you about how</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>the lesson went and what you would change in the next lesson you teach</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12th May</td>
<td>Tuesday</td>
<td>- Plan and teach a lesson independently for the first time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- I will meet up with you for a brief meeting to discuss what you will be teaching</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>and how you have organized your lessons and ask you about what concerns you</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>have about teaching independently</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- I will be present in the classroom while you teach and will be taking notes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- I will meet up with you after the teaching sessions and interview you about how</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>the lesson went and what you would change in the next lesson you teach</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14th May</td>
<td>Thursday</td>
<td>- Plan and teach a lesson independently for the first time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- I will meet up with you for a brief meeting to discuss what you will be teaching</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>and how you have organized your lessons and ask you about what concerns you</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>have about teaching independently</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- I will be present in the classroom while you teach and will be taking notes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- I will meet up with you after the teaching sessions and interview you about how</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>the lesson went and what you would change in the next lesson you teach</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
**Appendix L**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Date</th>
<th>Day</th>
<th>Activity</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>15th May</td>
<td>Friday</td>
<td><strong>DAY OFF</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16th May</td>
<td>Saturday</td>
<td><strong>DAY OFF</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**WEEK 3 OF SOLO-TEACHING**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Date</th>
<th>Day</th>
<th>Activity</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| 17th May   | Sunday    | - Plan and teach a lesson independently for the first time  
- I will meet up with you for a brief meeting to discuss what you will be teaching and how you have organized your lessons and ask you about what concerns you have about teaching independently  
-I will be present in the classroom while you teach and will be taking notes  
-I will meet up with you after the teaching sessions and interview you about how the lesson went and what you would change in the next lesson you teach |
| 19th May   | Tuesday   | - Plan and teach a lesson independently for the first time  
- I will meet up with you for a brief meeting to discuss what you will be teaching and how you have organized your lessons and ask you about what concerns you have about teaching independently  
-I will be present in the classroom while you teach and will be taking notes  
-I will meet up with you after the teaching sessions and interview you about how the lesson went and what you would change in the next lesson you teach |
### Week 4 of Solo-Teaching

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Date</th>
<th>Day</th>
<th>Activity</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| 21st   | Thursday   | - Plan and teach a lesson independently for the first time  
|        |            | - I will meet up with you for a brief meeting to discuss what you will be teaching and how you have organized your lessons and ask you about what concerns you have about teaching independently  
|        |            | - I will be present in the classroom while you teach and will be taking notes  
|        |            | - I will meet up with you after the teaching sessions and interview you about how the lesson went and what you would change in the next lesson you teach  |
| 22nd   | Friday     | **DAY OFF**                                                                                                                                 |
| 24th   | Saturday   | **DAY OFF**                                                                                                                                 |

**WEEK 4 OF SOLO-TEACHING**

- Plan and teach a lesson independently for the first time  
- I will meet up with you for a brief meeting to discuss what you will be teaching and how you have organized your lessons and ask you about what concerns you have
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Date</th>
<th>Day</th>
<th>Notes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| 26th May   | Tuesday  | - Plan and teach a lesson independently for the first time  
- I will meet up with you for a brief meeting to discuss what you will be teaching and how you have organized your lessons and ask you about what concerns you have about teaching independently  
- I will be present in the classroom while you teach and will be taking notes  
- I will meet up with you after the teaching sessions and interview you about how the lesson went and what you would change in the next lesson you teach |
| 28th May   | Thursday | - Plan and teach a lesson independently for the first time  
- I will meet up with you for a brief meeting to discuss what you will be teaching and how you have organized your lessons and ask you about what concerns you have about teaching independently  
- I will be present in the classroom while you teach and will be taking notes  
- I will meet up with you after the teaching sessions and interview you about how the lesson went and what you would change in the next lesson you teach |
| 29th May   | Friday   | DAY OFF                                                                                                                                |
### WEEK 5 OF SOLO-TEACHING

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Date</th>
<th>Day</th>
<th>Activity</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>30th May</td>
<td>Saturday</td>
<td>DAY OFF</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31st May</td>
<td>Sunday</td>
<td>- Plan and teach a lesson independently for the first time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- I will meet up with you for a brief meeting to discuss what you will be</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>teaching and how you have organized your lessons and ask you about what</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>concerns you have about teaching independently</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- I will be present in the classroom while you teach and will be taking</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>notes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- I will meet up with you after the teaching sessions and interview you</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>about how the lesson went and what you would change in the next lesson</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>you teach</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2nd June</td>
<td>Tuesday</td>
<td>- Plan and teach a lesson independently for the first time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- I will meet up with you for a brief meeting to discuss what you will be</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>teaching and how you have organized your lessons and ask you about what</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>concerns you have about teaching independently</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- I will be present in the classroom while you teach and</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
## Appendix L

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Date</th>
<th>Day</th>
<th>Events</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>4th June</td>
<td>Thursday</td>
<td>- Plan and teach a lesson independently for the first time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- I will meet up with you for a brief meeting to discuss what you</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>will be teaching and how you have organized your lessons and ask you</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>about what concerns you have about teaching independently</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- I will be present in the classroom while you teach and</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>will be taking notes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- I will meet up with you after the teaching sessions and interview</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>you about how the lesson went and what you would change in the next</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>lesson you teach</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5th June</td>
<td>Friday</td>
<td>DAY OFF</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6th June</td>
<td>Saturday</td>
<td>DAY OFF</td>
</tr>
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</table>

**WEEK 6 OF SOLO-TEACHING**
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Date</th>
<th>Day</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| 7th June   | Sunday    | - Plan and teach a lesson independently for the first time  
- I will meet up with you for a brief meeting to discuss what you will be teaching and how you have organized your lessons and ask you about what concerns you have about teaching independently  
- I will be present in the classroom while you teach and will be taking notes  
- I will meet up with you after the teaching sessions and interview you about how the lesson went and what you would change in the next lesson you teach |
| 9th June   | Tuesday   | - Plan and teach a lesson independently for the first time  
- I will meet up with you for a brief meeting to discuss what you will be teaching and how you have organized your lessons and ask you about what concerns you have about teaching independently  
- I will be present in the classroom while you teach and will be taking notes  
- I will meet up with you after the teaching sessions and interview you about how the lesson went and what you would change in the next lesson you teach |
| 11th June  | Thursday  | - Plan and teach a lesson independently for the first time  
- I will meet up with you for a brief meeting to discuss what you will be teaching and how you have organized your lessons and ask you about what concerns you have about teaching independently  
- I will be present in the classroom while you teach and will be taking notes  
- I will meet up with you after the teaching sessions and interview you about how the lesson went and what you would change in the next lesson you teach |
### Appendix L

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Date</th>
<th>Day</th>
<th>Activity</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>12th June</td>
<td>Friday</td>
<td>DAY OFF</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13th June</td>
<td>Saturday</td>
<td>DAY OFF</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14th June</td>
<td>Sunday</td>
<td>- I will conduct 3rd and final interview with 4 target student teachers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15th June</td>
<td>Monday</td>
<td>- I will administer the final TQC to both target and non-target student teachers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- I will conduct focus groups with 2 groups of non-target student teachers (2 groups, 10 student teachers in each group)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

I will return to UK to analyse data but will follow the 4 target students until they start teaching in schools and interview them via skype about what their concerns are and how they are getting on with teaching.....Is it what they expected? Below are some possible dates for these interviews as I am not sure when they will be allocated to their schools.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Month</th>
<th>Day</th>
<th>Activity</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>December 2015</td>
<td></td>
<td>Monday Interview 2 teachers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>January 2016</td>
<td></td>
<td>Monday Interview 2 teachers</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
## Appendix M

**Contingency Plan used in Research Study**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Week</th>
<th>Sunday</th>
<th>Monday</th>
<th>Tuesday</th>
<th>Wednesday</th>
<th>Thursday</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Week 1</td>
<td>Observing</td>
<td>Observing</td>
<td>Observing</td>
<td>Observing</td>
<td>Observing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Co-teaching</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
Appendix N

Pilot Study

(A) Piloting for the Observation Instrument
Appendix N

Year 9 / Computer Science lesson
11:10 - 12:00

Classroom Observation Form

1. How does the teacher set up the classroom before the pupils arrive? How does the teacher start the lesson? Draw or describe the room arrangement.

   She starts the lesson by asking the students about the previous lesson. She writes notes on the whiteboard and encourages students to participate by walking around the class and asking students to remember details about last week's lesson.

2. Explain how the teacher makes lesson objectives clear to students.

   She clarifies the lesson objectives by providing examples on the board and giving very simple vocabulary that students can understand easily.

3. What materials or resources were used in the lesson? Technology? Books?

   The teacher is using a textbook and the whiteboard. She also used a book with previous exam questions from past years.
Appendix N

4. What are the main activities of the lesson? What is the teacher's style?

The teacher is authoritative and has control over the classroom. She presents the lessons in a fun way. The teacher's style of teaching is not traditional. She tends to do a lot of pair work and group work.

5. Observe the teacher explaining a task to the learners. How does the teacher do this so that the learners understand? Describe an effective teaching strategy the teacher used.

The teacher explained a lesson about the World Wide Web / Internet. She used examples from websites and links to explain the lesson.

6. How does the teacher encourage students' participation? How are students responding to the teacher's lesson?

The teacher is encouraging student participation by asking them questions about the lesson from time to time to check if the students are following him and if they have understood the content of the lesson. This strategy is effective.

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Appendix N

7. How did the teacher maintain interest throughout the lesson?

The teacher told the students interesting stories about specific websites.

8. Note the number of students responding to the teacher and the number who are not. Why do you think this is happening?

9. How about the teacher monitor the progress of the learners during the lesson?

She asks questions to check if the students are learning and if they have any questions or any difficulties they will then give in previous lessons.

10. What does the teacher say or do to manage behavior in this lesson? How does the teacher respond to disruptive behavior?

The student (male) is making noise with his feet. The teacher says, "Quiet!" meaning please behave and sit.

11. How do you know the students learned anything? In what areas do you think the outcomes of the lesson achieved in your opinion?

The students seemed to have understood the majority of the lesson well because when the teacher gave each student a question about the lesson, they were able to answer the questions.

12. How was the lesson evaluated? Or, how does the teacher dismiss the class?

The teacher takes out another resource (textbook) and shows the students the book and tells them where they can find it online. This book is an updated version of all previous exams given in the past. The purpose of this book is to get student familiar with the exam questions.
This is a computer science class. The teacher begins by revising a previous lesson and 3 students respond but the rest hesitate. The teacher uses the whiteboard to explain the lesson. She clarifies by giving examples from the Libyan context.

"Omar" is one of the students attending the lesson and is surprisingly behaving himself. Ten students from 1 are attending the lesson and the majority are behaving well. The students seem interested in the lesson perhaps because computer science is an interesting and fun subject. Students ask the teacher questions such as "Who was the first internet?" "Who invented the internet?" "What is the person who invented the internet still alive?" The teacher responds to their questions using short, reasonable answers.
I noticed that some students have difficulty in reading the questions in Arabic. That is because, most of the students have lived most of their lives here in the UK. Some of the students asked the teacher if she could translate the questions to English. She replied and said, "It would not be useful to you if I translate the question to English because the exam will be written in Arabic. I can translate it for you now so you can understand what the question means, but you have to get used to seeing the question in Arabic because your exams will be corrected in Libya not here."

The teacher is going around the class and giving students questions related to the lesson and is assisting them give acceptable answers.

The teacher asked the students about a previous exam they were not well in. She asked them if they had studied for the exam. Some of the students replied and said that because they were attending classes at their British school and had exams and were busy studying for those exams.
The teacher offers to rescind the exam so the students could get a better grade.
The students were happy and agreed to do another exam next week in the same sections.

The teacher ends the lesson by reassuring the students that the final exam “will not be that difficult for you because you all are good students.” The students started giggling and left for recess.

I asked the teacher whether that student was “shy” and she replied “Yes, that was him.” I was surprised because he was quiet all through the class/lesson. She told me that the majority of teachers complain about him. She told me maybe it’s because computers and science are a fun subject and most students use computers and the Internet. Therefore, that might be a reason why he was quiet and behaving...
Appendix N

Physics Class
Year 9
Teacher: Moreman

Classroom Observation Form

1. How does the teacher set up the classroom before the pupils arrive? How does the teacher start the lesson? Descrive the room arrangement.

The teacher asks the students to sit down and then introduces me to the class. The teacher asks the students to take out their books so they could finish last week's lesson. Today's lesson is a continuation of last week's lesson and it's about "Electricity."

2. Explain how the teacher makes lesson objectives clear to students.

The teacher started by explaining what they were going to do during the lesson. She told them that they were going to try to solve some problems in their textbook as part of the activity.

3. What materials or resources were used in the lesson? Why? Mention.

The teacher uses the whiteboard and textbook.
4. What are the main activities of the lesson? What is the teacher's style?

- Teacher managed the classroom well and drew every student's attention by constantly moving around the class and encouraging students to participate. The teacher asks something funny from time to time and the students laugh.

5. Observe the teacher explaining a task to the learners. How does the teacher do this so that the learners understand? Describe an effective teaching strategy the teacher used.

- The teacher is explaining an activity that needs solving and is encouraging the students to solve the problem by thinking of different equations that can be used. He gives the teacher an equation that could be used to solve the problem, but the teacher explains why this equation cannot be used, and gives another one.

6. How does the teacher encourage students' participation? How are students responding to the teacher's lesson?

- While the teacher explains the lesson, she goes around the class and asks the students to list the number of electrical things they use at home. Students responded and said: "iron, computer, hair iron, vacuum, television, washing machine, kettle, etc."
Appendix N

1. How did the teacher maintain interest throughout the lesson?

2. Note the number of students responding to the teacher and the number who are not. Why do you think this is happening?

3. Did students attend the lesson? If not, why do you think they did not?

4. The teacher gave each student an activity from the textbook and waited around to assist the students.

5. How does the teacher monitor the progress of the learners during the lesson?

6. What does the teacher say or do to manage behavior in this lesson? How does the teacher deal with disruptive behavior?

7. How do you know the students learned anything? Were the outcomes of the lesson achieved in your opinion?

8. The student asks the students to write down most of the problems and name.

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The teacher blanks by writing an equation on the board and the students participate while she writes the equation. She reads out an exercise problem from the textbook and the students follow. She explains the problem to be solved and asks the students which equation should be used. The student respond and give the teacher an option of equations and then decide to choose this equation:

\[
60 \times 0.25 = 15
\]

\[
60 \times 1.88 = 89.2
\]

\[
\frac{89.2}{1.88} = \frac{50}{500} = \frac{60}{0.5}
\]
Appendix N

The teacher asks the student to give a solution to a problem related to a dishwashing task.
The teacher writes an equation on the board, and asks the students on how they solve the problem using this equation.

\[ \frac{b}{2} \cdot h = \text{area} \]

\[ (b \cdot h) \times \frac{1}{2} = \text{area} \]
Appendix N

Classroom Observation Form

1. How does the teacher set up the classroom before the pupils arrive? How does the teacher start the lesson? Please or describe the room arrangement.

The teacher explains some basic language rules and writes them down on the board. He asks the students about last week's lesson and tells them that they had to finish a particular section before they continue to today's lesson.

2. Explain how the teacher makes lesson objectives clear to students.

The teacher tells the students about what they were going to take today and there were:
- Basic language rules
- Poem by khiyariir
- Analysis of the poem

3. What materials or resources were used in the lesson? Technology? Media?

The teacher used the whiteboard and two different text books.
Appendix N

4. What are the main activities of the lesson? What is the teacher’s style?
   Authoritative? Class/reasonable? Engaging? Purposeful?

   The teacher is very direct. He is a great guide, patient, especially when students continue to ask about the page number.

5. Observe the teacher explaining a task to the learners. How does the teacher do this so that the learners understand? Describe an effective teaching strategy the teacher used.

   The teacher explained how to read a poem properly. He showed his students how particular words in the poem should be stressed because more emphasis should be put on the word for its meaning.

6. How does the teacher encourage student participation? How are students responding to the teacher’s lessons?

   The teacher walks around the room and makes sure that all the students are following him while he reads the poem. He stops reading and asks one of the students to start where he stopped. He did this more than once. The students were participating and they read the poem properly.
Appendix N

7. How did the teacher maintain interest throughout the lesson?

8. Note the number of students responding to the teacher and the number who are not. Why do you think this is happening?

9. How did the teacher monitor the progress of the learners during the lesson?

10. What does the teacher say or do to manage behavior in this lesson? How does this respond to disruptive behavior?

11. How do you know the students learned anything? or Were the outcomes of the lesson achieved in your opinion?

12. How was the lesson concluded? or How does the teacher dismiss the class?

The teacher summarized today's lesson and asked if the students thought they had understood today's lesson. He said, "Do you want me to ask you questions about today's lesson?" in a friendly tone.
Additional Comments:

This is an Arabic lesson. Twenty students are in the class. The classroom is quite small for a large number such as theirs.

The class is fairly quiet and seems to be interested because they are all concentrated on what the teacher is saying.

The teacher asks the students if they had memorized a poem he had given them in the last lesson. The majority said they had not memorized it. The teacher then asked if they had written their homework. Half of the class had handed in their homework, but the rest were not keen to hand it in.

The teacher asks the students to open their books on page 120.

He asked one of the male students if he could read a poem. He said that he read it quite well but not in a way a poem should be read.
One of the female students attempted to read the poem and the teacher corrected her from time to time.

The teacher explained the meaning of some of the difficult words in the poem and asked them to write down the meaning of words especially for the students who did not have books or forgot to bring their books.

Students participated when the teacher was explaining the meaning of the words and asked the students if they did not understand some of the other words in the poem.

The other students did not understand a specific word so the teacher clarified the word and gave other alternatives for the word. While explaining the words, he encouraged the students to give alternative meanings to the same word. The teacher continued to give additional information on other parts that had similarities to the poem given to them today.
The classroom is quite stuffy. Students are sitting very close to each other and are sharing desks. There are posters and flags upon the walls. There is a projector and a typing machine at the front and the back of the class. There is a globe beside the whiteboard.

The teacher reads the assignment from her text book. 5-6 students respond and answer the question but the rest are quiet. He asks them about the difference between "thinking" and "imagining." 4 students respond.
Observation Form Version
One
3rd observation

Class layout: organization

- Whiteboard
- Projector
- Ceiling
- Teacher's desk
- Projector drawer
- Male
- Female
- Male
- Female
- Female
- Male
- Cupboard
- Cupboard

Posters, notices on the walls. Very interesting signs all over the class.
Appendix N

Year 7 / Experienced teacher / Islamic Studies

1. How does the teacher set up the classroom before the pupils arrive? How does the teacher start the lesson? Describe the room arrangement.

2. What is the teacher's style of teaching? How does the teacher manage the classroom?

3. What materials or resources were used in the lesson? Technology, media?

4. What is the main activity of the lesson? What is the teacher's role?

5. Observe the teacher explaining a task to the students. How does the teacher do this so that the students understand it or describe an effective teaching strategy the teacher used?

6. How does the teacher encourage students' participation? How are students responding to the teacher's instruction?
When the teacher first approached the classroom, she found out that the students had locked her out because they had spit water all over her desk, and after (we) all walked in, the desk and floor were covered in water. The teacher tried to settle students down, but there were a number of students that were causing a lot of commotion in the back.
Students were anxious to leave the class at 3:15 (five minutes) before the end of the class and the teacher asked them to sit down and behave. I think the reason is because they have a 15 min. recess break.
Appendix N

7. How did the teacher maintain interest throughout the lesson?

The teacher made eye contact with all the students and tried to encourage student participation.

8. Rate the number of students responding to the teacher and the number who are not. Why do you think this is happening?

I rated the rest (8/9) students as only interested in the lesson.

9. How does the teacher monitor the progress of the learners during the lesson?

The teacher asks questions from time to time and walks around the classroom.

10. What does the teacher say or do to manage behavior in this lesson? How does the teacher respond to disruptive behavior?

The teacher tends to lecture students, but they are quiet when they start working. I had to yell at one of the students because they were disturbing others.

11. How do you know the students learned anything? Were the objectives of the lesson achieved in your opinion?

I think that the majority who were participating learned something today, but for the rest, I doubt that they had learned anything.

12. How was the lesson concluded? Or how does the teacher dismiss the class?

The teacher concluded the class by saying, "Test giving in the next lesson is about right, but it was too much!"

Source: Francis Biddle (Chair) and Committee on "Planning Human Resources", "Education for a New Era", Second Edition.
Additional Comments:

1. 
2. 
3. 
4. 
5. 
6. 
7. 
8. 
9. 
10. The disciplined one of the students by moving his place because he was making noise with his sheet.
11. 
12.
Observation Form Version Two
# Appendix N

## Observation Checklist Form

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Evidence or Suggestions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Began lesson efficiently</td>
<td>Teacher initiated lesson by introducing the topic and explaining the purpose of the exercise.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Clearly stated the objectives and purpose of each activity.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Demonstrated enthusiasm, animation, and articulation oral expression</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Explained directions for activity clearly</td>
<td>Teacher explained the directions in detail, ensuring students understood the task.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Encouraged equitable student participation</td>
<td>Encouraged student participation and ensured all students were involved.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Gave adequate time for student response</td>
<td>Provided ample time for students to respond to the activity.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Moved around classroom appropriately</td>
<td>Moved around to monitor and assist students as needed.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Effectively checked for understanding</td>
<td>Checked and helped students clarify any misunderstandings immediately.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Used a variety of instructional techniques</td>
<td>Used different teaching methods to cater to various learning styles.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Maintained appropriate tone</td>
<td>Kept the tone appropriate for the lesson.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Consistently monitored student behavior</td>
<td>Consistently monitored student behavior, ensuring a safe and conducive learning environment.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. Explained concepts clearly</td>
<td>Clearly explained concepts and ensured all students understood the material.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. Closed the lesson effectively</td>
<td>Wrapped up the lesson by summarizing the key points and thanking the students.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: These observations were made during the 9th year.
Teacher starts class by asking the students to settle down and to take a seat.

Teacher hands out an exercise sheet activity and asks each student/pupil to work on a particular number. For example, "X" works on number one, and "Y" works on number 2... etc.

Students work on the activity as groups, then the teacher asks them to work on their own.

- Organization of class:
  - Airy, not very comfortable to sit in because it doesn't feel like a classroom environment at all. Only a few posters are on the walls (3 walls) and other wall has the windows.

  - Although the teacher was a professional, it was just too overwhelming for her to explain, clarify, justify, manage the classroom, and classroom behavior (especially with the character "Omar" being in the class). He made it difficult for everyone to learn anything and made my job extremely very difficult. I felt very overwhelmed with the situation in the classroom and the behavior of the students.

  - Spoke to teacher about "Omar" and it turns out that he just arrived from Libya and is still influenced by the chaos in Libya.
The students/pupils are extremely noisy and although the teacher seems very nice and is trying her best to control the class but it is a little overwhelming in my opinion.

I am finding difficulty in hearing the teacher and the pupils are not settling down. Some of the pupils are trying to do the activity.

I even heard one of the students, say a curse word which I found inappropriate and unladylike. The teacher was working with one of the students while this was said and said:

The teacher is finding it very very difficult to explain anything because the class has become very chaotic and misbehaving students are acting up and getting out of control.

The teacher moved from group to group to assist but the rest of the class...

Because it was not a lesson given to the students today, the teacher did not use the board at all.

At the end of the chaos, the teacher asked the students to start answering the questions one by one in front of the class.

In my opinion as a teacher who has taught for more than 15 years, I was not able to understand the purpose of the class at all. I also feel that no learning took place.
1. Important to keep attendance because similar questions may be found in the final exam.

2. Should do better on the exercise.

3. During teaching.

4. Student behaving because “man” was disruptive. Student was constantly causing problems. Class to disrupt.

5. Printed out these lessons as very essential and required that the students do a trial test in order for them to get used to the real exam.
Observation Form Version
Three

I observed

used in first class
Appendix N

Reflections I am writing these while sitting in the staff room. I was welcomed by the principal and showed around by a colleague of mine and we walked around the school. He showed me the staff room and kitchen. We then walked around the school classrooms. Teachers were very cheerful and welcoming and passed by and smiled. Teachers came up to me and offered to come and attend their classes which I found very nice and professional. I can hear some of the teachers discussing the situation and name, and one very angrily. The students are playing outside now because it was nice. The principal also met me. It looks so clean.

This will be attending the second lesson around 1.30 and I will be attending with a teacher who taught...
### Classroom Observation Form

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Review Method</th>
<th>Transcribing/Composer</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>1. SUBJECT MATTER CONTENT</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shows good command and knowledge of subject matter: demonstrates breadth and depth of mastery</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>2. ORGANIZATION</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organizes subject matter, outlines preparation, a meaningful structure, clear and concise, emphasizes main points, meets class at scheduled time, regularly monitors classroom</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>3. RAPPORT</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maintains interest of students, is respectful, fair, and impartial, provides feedback, encourages participation, interacts with students, Places emphasis</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>4. TEACHING METHODS</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uses relevant teaching methods, aids, materials, techniques, and technology; includes variety, sequent, sequential, group involvement; uses examples that are simple, clear, graphic, and logical; plans focused on and meets stated objectives</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>5. PRESENTATION</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enthusiastic, uses visual or classroom environment conducive to learning, maintains eye contact, uses a variety of media, strong pronunciation, good eye contact, and standard English</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Teacher: [Name]
Course: [Course Title]
Date and Time: [Date]

Comments/Concequences: [Teacher has outstanding student-teacher rapport. Encourages active participation and maintains a high level of engagement throughout the class, making the material accessible and understandable for all students.]

Student: [Student Name]
Draws on blackboard

writes down equation $E = U \times F$

At the end of the lesson, students in the hall stand to queue close outside end as a result. Pupils/students, one beginning to be a little unkindness, class ends and teacher dismisses the students by saying: “That’s the end of the lesson and you can have now.”

Teacher of the new student together

The lesson that she hadn’t attended and taking them in next time.
The teacher gave a metaphor and explained that the word "cam" which means "the sword" in Arabic is mentioned in the poem to mean "death."
Appendix N

Teacher student interaction:
Teacher explains lesson by reviewing a previous lesson and asks students about questions.
As students and two/three students reply,
some students in the back are acting up.
A little bit but teacher has a good control over them.

Classroom organization:
Classroom is very well organized and posters that illustrate subjects are put on the wall.
The tables and chairs are arranged so every two students sit beside each other.

Teaching methods:
Teacher makes apart by telling students to give a student who did not attend an important lesson related to the lesson, to explain a very important equation to the rest of the class. Students set quietly and listened to the teacher's explanation. Other students participated in the explanation which I found very interesting.

Culminating of lesson:
Teacher ends the lesson by reassuring pupils the similar questions may be found in their final exams and therefore wants his pupils to study and think this into consideration. Pupils were very interested in the class and asked a lot of questions. Teacher improves his presentation today but says it is running out of time and the lesson is about to end.
Appendix N

(B) Piloting of the Interview Instrument

The Interview Schedule piloted during the Pilot study Phase

1. Tell me about some of the things you did during your school teaching practice (e.g. teaching, preparing lesson plan, involvement in extra-curricular activities)?
2. How do you think they helped you prepare to be a teacher? Can you give me some examples?
3. Tell me about some of the activities you did during teaching practice which you found less useful in your learning to teach?
4. Tell me about some of the experiences you encountered during teaching practice which you thought caused problems for you in carrying out teaching practice?
5. Have the problems affected your decision to become a secondary school teacher, how?
6. How do you think the problems could be reduced or solved completely?
7. Tell me some of the resources, be they tangible or psychological, that you need to successfully carry out learning to teach during teaching practice?
8. What resources were available to you in the school for teaching practice?
9. Tell me some of the resources that were not available to you? How did their absence affect you in your learning to teach?
10. What resources did the other teachers have in the school that you did not have?
11. Who did you interact or mix with in the school? Who did you have to work with and get on with in school?
12. How helpful were the people you interacted with in your activities?
13. Tell me about the support you got from other teachers in the school?
14. Tell me if you had sufficient opportunity for professional interaction with other teachers in the school?
15. Tell me about the roles and responsibilities you took up in your teaching practice school?
16. Tell me how you were given those roles and responsibilities?
17. How did you find the roles and responsibilities? Were they challenging/appropriate if so, how and why?
18. Tell me about the amount of work you were given in the school? Was it manageable?
19. Did you encounter any problems and how did that affect you?
20. Was your status of student teacher respected in the school? What was the effect of that on you? How did they treat you?
21. Tell me about what you learned from teaching practice?
22. What do you think you failed to learn during teaching practice and why do you think you failed to learn that?
23. How would you want teaching practice to be organized?
The main aim for piloting the interview questions was to get a sense of the answers and reaction of the teachers, which helped the researcher rephrase and modify the interview questions to obtain richer data during the field work. Pilot interviews were carried out with two university tutors and the goal was to ensure that the questions were appropriate for the students to obtain rich and deep data from them. The university tutors pointed out the interview questions they felt students would have difficulty in understanding and suggested that I would change the wordings of some questions. Such questions were: “Tell me some of the resources, be they tangible or psychological, that you need to successfully carry out learning to teach during teaching practice?”. They also suggested to change the wording of some questions in order for the students to answer them accurately. Questions such as: “What do you consider to be the attributes of an effective teacher?”. All obtained feedback was taken into consideration and the interview schedule was then divided into three separate interview schedules used (before, during, after) the Teaching Practice experience.

**Interview Schedule for Student Teachers BEFORE Teaching Practice**

1. How do you feel with teaching practice ahead of you? (i.e. Do you feel exited, anxious, nervous, etc.)
2. What are you excited/anxious/nervous about?
3. What are you looking forward to in teaching practice?
4. How prepared are you to begin teaching practice?
5. What are your expectations of the first day of teaching practice? or How do you expect to feel on the first day of teaching practice?
6. What are your main concerns about teaching practice? (i.e. planning, managing students, being accepted)
7. What did you learn in your initial teacher programme that can help you in teaching practice? (i.e. lesson planning, classroom management, etc.)
8. How do you think you will be perceived by the staff and the students?
Interview Schedule for Student Teachers **DURING Teaching Practice**

1. So far, how do you think teaching practice has helped you in teaching your lessons? Can you give me some examples?

2. So far, do you think the amount of work given to you in school was manageable, or do you think it was not enough?

3. So far, have you encountered any problems during your teaching practice and how did that affect you?

4. So far, how much support have you received from the class teachers? Were the class teachers helpful during your teaching practice?

5. So far, how do you feel your lessons went? Why do you say that? What went well/less well?

6. So far, do you feel that you have appropriate degree of classroom control?

7. So far, how do you feel when a supervisor is present while you teach?

8. So far, how adequate do you feel as a teacher?

9. So far, to what extent do you feel to begin full-time work as a teacher?

**Interview Schedule for student teachers **AFTER Teaching Practice**

1. First, how do you feel now that you have completed teaching practice?

2. How do you think teaching practice helped you prepare for teaching? Can you give me some examples?

3. Tell me about some of the experiences you encountered during teaching practice, which you thought, caused problems for you in carrying out teaching practice?

4. Have these problems affected your decision to become a teacher? Why or how?

5. What are your main concerns towards teaching in schools?

6. What did you learn during your short teaching practice experience? How did that prepare you for teaching?

7. Tell me about the support you got from other teachers in the school?

8. Was your status of student teacher respected in the school? Why or why not do you think?

9. How would you want teaching practice to be organised in the future for other students?

10. Tell me about what you learned during teaching practice?

11. What do you think you failed to learn during teaching practice and why do you think you failed to learn that?
(C) Piloting of the Survey (Teacher Concerns Questionnaire, George, 1978)

By this questionnaire being a validated questionnaire by George (1978), changing any item or word deemed unacceptable. However, clarifying words that might be confusing to students by referring to them at the bottom of the questionnaire was necessary according to the university tutors’ suggestions and feedback. The words the tutors pointed out might be vague to some of the students were: “adequate” in “Feeling more adequate as a teacher” in the self-concerns scale; another word was “intellectual” in “Guiding students towards intellectual and emotional growth” in the impact-concerns scale. The following changes were made to the TCQ used in the fieldwork study:

Read each statement, then ask yourself: When I think about teaching, how much am I concerned with this? Please tick as appropriate

Legends: 1=not concerned 2=a little concerned 3=moderately concerned 4=very concerned 5=extremely concerned

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<td>3. Impact-concerns</td>
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*a adequate: acceptable, comfortable, competent, capable

*intellectual: academic, knowledgeable
### Appendix O

#### Student Teachers’ Timetable and Experience during Teaching Practice (18th March- 5th May 2015)

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**Feb 2015**
- **8th-9th**: RESEARCHER VISITED STUDENT TEACHERS AT UNIVERSITY TO INVITE THEM TO PARTICIPATE IN RESEARCH.
- **15th-16th**: STUDENT TEACHERS’ 1ST INTERVIEW.
- **22nd**: Seham: Co-Teaching with Zara.
- **23rd**: Zara: Co-Teaching with Zara.
- **24th**: Seham: Co-Teaching with Zara.
- **25th**: Seham: Observing colleagues teach.
- **26th**: Seham: Co-Teaching with Zara.
- **27th**: DAY OFF.
- **28th**: Zara: Observing colleagues teach.

**Mar 2015**
- **22nd**: Seham: Co-Teaching with Zara.
- **23rd**: Seham: Co-Teaching with Zara.
- **24th**: Seham: Co-Teaching with Zara.
- **25th**: Seham: Observing colleagues during co-teaching.
- **26th**: Seham: Co-Teaching with Khola.
- **27th**: DAY OFF.
- **28th**: Zara: Observing colleagues teach.
- **29th**: Hala: Co-Teaching with Zara.
- **30th**: Zara: Co-Teaching with Hala.
- **31st**: Hala: Observing colleagues teach.
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**Apr 2015**

2nd ADMINISTRATION OF TCO

19

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Seham: Independent Teaching

Zara: Independent Teaching

Hala: Observing colleagues teach

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Seham: Observing colleagues teach

Zara: Observing colleagues teach

Hala: Independent Teaching

22

Seham: Independent Teaching

Zara: Observing colleagues teach

Hala: Observing colleagues teach

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SCHOOL CLOSURE

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Selena's experiences during Teaching Practices:

Number of Observations: 8
Number of Co-Teaching: 6
Number of Independent teaching: 8
Number of Interviews: 8
Number of Questionnaires completed: 8
### Zara's Timetable and Experience during TP (18th March - 5th May 2015)

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- **17**: Visited student teachers at uni and fellow trainee to participate
- **18**: First visit to student teachers at participating school
- **20**: Teaching activity
- **21**: Student teacher's interview

Appendix O

345
Zara’s experience during teaching practice:

Number of Observations: 10
Number of Co-Teaching: 5
Number of Independent teaching: 5
Number of Interviews: 3
Number of Questionnaires completed: 3
(C) Hala’s Timetable and Lessons taught during teaching practice
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<td>Co-Teaching 7th grade 1st lesson, regular and irregular works co-teacher: Zara</td>
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Appendix P

Hedi's experiences during Teaching Practice:

Number of Observations: 12
Number of Co-teaching: 5
Number of Independent Teaching: 5
Number of Interviews: 5
Number of Questionnaires completed: 3
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Kehoe's experience during Teaching Practice:

Number of Observations: 2

Number of Co-Teaching: 2

Number of Independent Teaching: 1

Number of Interviews: 3

Number of Questionnaires completed: 3
Appendix P

Co-Teaching Experiences of the four Target Student Teachers
Observation One

Date: 9/4/2015
Class: Kindergarten
Lesson: Snack Time
Classroom teacher: [Signature]
Student teacher's name: [Signature]
Teacher writes words that were previously given to them by another teacher (Hanan)
the day before in order to remind them of
the words:

- Big ≠ Small
- Tall ≠ Short
- Long ≠ Short
- Hot ≠ Cold
- New ≠ Old

"Hanan" helped her out with
writing the other half of the
lesson on the other side of the
board in order for "Khulud" to
answer/do the task with the
students.

Ask and Answer:
I suggested they ask students:
What do you see in picture No. 1?

A _______ bird

Ask students to use the adjectives that
were explained above.
Classroom Observation Form

1. How does the teacher set up the classroom before the pupil enters? How does the teacher start the lesson? Draw or describe the room arrangement.

   Teacher starts by writing words on the board
   (previously given by another teacher, Hanan)

2. Explain how the teacher makes lesson objectives clear to students.

3. What materials or resources were used in the lesson? Technology? Media?

   Teacher uses whiteboard and authentic materials

4. What are the main activities of the lesson? What is the teacher's style?

   Teacher is energetic
You can not say "long bird" x

Small bird -> in the lesson
big bird ->

Small bird / big cat
5. Observe the teacher explaining a task to the learners. How does the teacher do this so that the learners understand? / or Describe an effective teaching strategy the teacher used.

6. How does the teacher encourage students' participation? How are students responding to the teacher's lesson?

Teacher encouraged students' participation by asking them to come to the board and fill in the gaps using only.

7. How did the teacher maintain interest throughout the lesson?

8. Note the number of students responding to the teacher and the number who are not. Why do you think this is happening?
Observation One

Date: March 20
Class: 2/2
Lesson: 5/30
Classroom teacher:
Student Teacher's name:
Feedback

- This class is the same class that was taught by [Tade and Eman].
- Regular classroom teacher is present.
- Students today are willing to participate and are very energetic.
- Teacher is attentive, calm, authoritative, encouraging.
- Khalid assists the students and helps them during the exercise.
- Recommend that from the beginning of the lesson, you explain what the new words are.
- New words on the board are explained during the lesson. When these words are found in the text.
- Use black marker instead of red, if possible.
- Try to read slower.
- Good use of interaction.
- I have to take a break.
What’s your father’s job?  

What’s your father’s job?  

Khulud = scared  

scared of my face/mask

- Very good participation from the students during the exercise.

- When you give them a new word in the middle of a lesson, try to describe what the word is by giving an example.

  Khulud attempted to describe the word but then used Arabic to describe the word.

  I recommend you use authentic material for example tools or things that these people use in their jobs.
- Outcome of lessons were achieved from what the students responded.

At the end of explaining the lesson, the teacher asks if students understood the lesson or if there was something that was not clear.

Teacher moves on to "student's workbook" and writes down the pig number.

Wait for the student until writing on the board to finish before you move on to the next exercise.

- Two space X
  - Two space X
  - Two answer X
  - Two answer X

Make sure your phone and students' phones are off in order to not distract others.
- Always prepare your lesson thoroughly.
- Ended lesson by asking students to do:
  - Question B × Kindled
  - Section B □
Observation Four
- Class seems to be quiet although I heard that they were a difficult class to work with.

- 10 males and 10 females

- The majority of male students are participating and some but not all female pupils are participating.
Appendix P

Classroom Observation Form

1. How does the teacher set up the classroom before the pupils arrive? How does the teacher start the lesson? Draw or describe the room arrangement.

Teacher starts by writing the new word on the board. Students write the new word in their notebooks.

2. Explain how the teacher makes lesson objectives clear to students.

The teacher makes the lesson objectives clear to the students from the beginning. She says: "Today's lesson is about opposites."

3. What materials or resources were used in the lesson? Technology? Media?

Teacher uses course book and authentic material during the lesson (pencil, notebook, pupil's own book) to explain (tall/short).


Teacher is energetic and reasonable.

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Observation One

Date 30th November
Class 6/1
Lesson 6th lesson
Classroom teacher: Elham
Co-teaching: Elham (non-target)
Student teacher's name: Sarah (target)

Elham had to leave and Sarah took Elham's place and stepped in.
Elham sets up the classroom for "Sarah" and "Jared".

Teacher starts by writing down the new words and page number.

Don't spend a lot of time disciplining them and start the lesson, and they will settle down.

* (I believe you spend way too much time in getting them down).

* Why do you think it was important for them to write down what you wrote on the board when they already have it in the book?

- It would be better if you wrote the word and beside the word is the picture.

basketball → [pic of basketball]

- Ask students to sit down → Somia, good!
Classroom Observation Form

1. How does the teacher set up the classroom before the pupils arrive? How does the teacher start the lesson? Draw or describe the room arrangement.

Sarah greets students and asks them to be quiet. Make sure that students are settled down before beginning the lesson. Class is now quiet and teacher begins lesson.

2. Explain how the teacher makes lesson objectives clear to students.

3. What materials or resources were used in the lesson? Technology? Media?

4. What are the main activities of the lesson? What is the teacher's style? Authority? Calm / reasonable? Energetic? Purposeful?
After explaining the lesson, Sarah asks the students to open their coursebooks on pgs. 46.
She begins by reading the sentences in the course and students read after her.
Then takes the same sentences and asks students:
Do you like basketball?
Yes, I do.
Then asks students if he/she like basketball. They respond and say:
Yes, he does.
Teacher reminds them of the words:
like 😊 and ☹️ dislike

* You can easily write:
  dislike = (does not like)
  = I/you/we/they (do not like)

  dislike = He/she/it (does not like)
  = we/you/he/they/I (do not like)
* Don't just focus on if they are participating or not just continue with the lesson because when you are only focused on saying "be quiet" you are losing time like that.

* When you correct their spelling mistakes always tell them why it's wrong.

listening X
listening —
Observation Two

5/4/2015
1st lesson
7th Grade
7/2

Student Teacher: Sarah (Target)
Co-Teaching: Hanan (Target)
Note: I came in at the end of the lesson.
- Regular and irregular verbs
- Ask students to come up to board to participate
- Give explanations to why words can be added (ed) or have to change completely (irregular verbs).
- Students should always have a list of irregular and regular verbs in front of them.
- Monitor student's progress by going around the class and asking them to answer or
Gives them section B in which the paragraph is in the present and asks them to change it to the past. Helps students to come up to the board to answer, helps student out while on board.

- Students are energetic and are very willing to participate.

- Teacher attentive and energetic.

- Outcomes of the lesson were achieved from pupils' responses.

- Obviously, pupils understood the lesson and teacher made sure that the lesson was understood by asking them questions.
Observation Three

Date: 7/1/2015
Student: John
Teacher: Sarah
Class: 7th grade
Lesson: Dates and Birthdays

Assis: Samia
Lesson: Best
- Teacher encourages students to come to the board and asks them:

Teacher: "What day is the 3rd of May?"

Pupil: Wednesday

Teacher: "What day is the 19th of May?"

Pupil: Friday

Teacher: "What day is the 31st of May?"

Pupil: Wednesday

Teacher: "What day is the 2nd of May?"

Pupil: Monday

Teacher: "What day is the 6th of May?"

Pupil: Tuesday

Teacher: "What day is the 8th of May?"

Pupil: Sat.

- After this activity, teacher asks students to open their books on page —

Match the number and word:
Teacher explains it in Arabic and then asks students to participate.
Classroom Observation Form

1. How does the teacher set up the classroom before the pupils arrive? How does the teacher start the lesson? Draw or describe the room arrangement.

Teacher draws a picture of calendar on the white board and explains to students what the way to abbreviate numbers is:

3rd = third, 2nd = second, 1st = first, etc.

2. Explain how the teacher makes lesson objectives clear to students.

Teacher explains that the lesson is about dates and birthdays and gives an example of "My birthday is on the 29th of October.""
Teacher encourages students by asking students to clap when one of the students answers the question or exercise on board.

Teacher asks students to do the next exercise in their coursebook and asks them to read the cardinal numbers.

1. 19th, 20th, 30th
20th-15th

Section C: Write these dates to numbers.

1. 21st May = the twenty-first of May
2. 24th Sep = the twenty-fourth of September

Teacher constantly gave examples of birthdays and dates to clarify aspects of the lesson.
5. Observe the teacher explaining a task to the learners. How does the teacher do this so that the learners understand? Or describe an effective teaching strategy the teacher used.

Teacher explains the dates by encouraging students to participate and to come up to the board and try to do the exercise.

6. How does the teacher encourage students' participation? How are students responding to the teacher's lesson?

Teacher encouraged students' participation by encouraging them to try to do the activities and students are responding positively.

7. How did the teacher maintain interest throughout the lesson?

Teacher and Samia (assistant) walk around the class and make sure that all students get a turn at doing the activities and that all the students are following her.

8. Note the number of students responding to the teacher and the number who are not. Why do you think this is happening?

Total = 21 students
15 out of 21 participate
Always end a lesson with a smile and wish them a good/nice day and say "goodbye."

"Have a nice day and goodbye."

Pronunciations:
- Inversion x Fatma has an inversion
- Invitation
9. How does the teacher monitor the progress of the learners during the lesson?

Teacher and assistant monitor students' progress by walking around class and asking/explaining anything that is not clear.

10. What does the teacher say or do to manage behaviour in this lesson? How does the teacher respond to disruptive behaviour?

Class very calm and quiet. Teacher rarely disciplined students as they were quiet.

11. How do you know the students learned anything? Or were the outcomes of the lesson achieved in your opinion?

Outcomes of lesson were achieved as students' responses were positive.

12. How was the lesson culminated? Or How does the teacher dismiss the class?

Teacher ends lesson by telling students that "Section 3 will begin for them in next lesson & answer a question in coursework."
School bell rings and students were asked to remain in their seats as they had an exam next lesson (computer science).
Observation One

2015

Date: 31 March
Class: 6/7
Lesson:

Classroom teacher:

Co-teaching:

Connor

Student Teacher's Name:

Connor L. (Teacher)
Appendix P

Classroom Observation Form

1. How does the teacher set up the classroom before the pupils arrive? How does the teacher start the lesson? Describe or describe the room arrangement.

Teacher comes in early. Writes the title of the lesson on the board and page number. Teacher puts posters and papers with illustrations and house in the lesson.

2. Explain how the teacher makes lesson objectives clear to students.

The teacher says: Today's lesson is about sand and activities. We are going to take a new world with the illustrations. In the picture on the board.

3. What materials or resources were used in the lesson? Technology? Media?

Teacher use authentic materials: pics of people watching TV from the internet. Sonia teaches while Sarah shows pupils pictures from the internet.

4. What are the main activities of the lesson? What is the teacher's style?

Authoritative? Cold / reasonable? Energetic? Purposeful?

The main activities of the lesson are to be familiar with different kinds of sports and activities. Teacher's teaching style is purposeful, calm and authoritative.

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Teacher attempts to encourage students to participate.

Approaches a student in the back who is obviously isn’t interested and encourages him to read.

He responds by saying:

"I didn’t attend last week’s lesson."

She insists that he reads by reading after her.

Teacher writes down:

play basketball
cycling shopping
table tennis

Ask students to connect the verbs with the sports and activities: "match the verbs and activities."
3. Observe the teacher explaining a task to the learners. How does the teacher do this so that the learners understand? Describe an effective teaching strategy the teacher used.

Teacher asks students to read the words on the board until all know the pronunciation and then ask students to say the pinyin.

5. How does the teacher encourage students' participation? How are students responding to the teacher's lesson?

Students are encouraged to participate by asking them to come to the board and answer the exercise.

7. How did the teacher maintain interest throughout the lesson?

Teacher maintained students' interest throughout the lesson.

8. Note the number of students responding to the teacher and the number who are not. Why do you think this is happening?

9. How does the teacher monitor the progress of the learners during the lesson?

Teacher's walk around the class to monitor the progress of the learners.

Pupils do not look at student teachers or real teachers and refuse to respect them.
Students' behaviors:

- Males are more uninterested than females.
- Complaining about who hit who.
- Complaining about who took what.
- When you ask a student to sit or stand beside the wall, always place him in the back so he doesn't distract the other students.
- Teacher brings in authority for back-up who puts pupils in their place.
10. What does the teacher say or do to manage behaviour in this lesson? How does the teacher respond to disruptive behaviour?

A student (name) screams out loud. Teacher asks her to behave and to not do that again. Other students start getting out of their seats. Teacher says, "Sit down." Students get back into their seats.

11. How do you rate the students' engagement with the lesson? What outcomes of the lesson were achieved in your opinion?

Teacher has achieved the outcomes of the lesson with positive responses from students.

12. How was the lesson concluded? Or how does the teacher dismiss the class?

At the end of the lesson, teachers go back to review what new words were to make sure that the outcomes of the lesson were achieved.

Additional Comments:

- Teacher does a good job at handling misbehaviour (discipline).
- Teacher does a good job at explaining the lesson and is very attentive and makes sure that all students get the same attention.
Observation Two

Date: 5/4/2015
Class: 7/12
Lessons

Student Teacher: Shania (Target)

Co-teaching: Harun (Target)

Siran (Guest)
- Sarah (co-teacher) asks 4 students to stand up and read the conversation in the book.

(Note: I would suggest you read the conversation first with your colleagues.

- Teacher explains the objectives of the lesson in order to familiarize students with the conversation.

- How many numbers in family in the conversation?

- All three teachers read the conversation and invited me to be the fourth person in the conversation.

Note:

I noticed when you asked them if they understood, they did not reply, so I suggested after reading the conversation you write down the main words like:

- tidy
- clean the house
- etc. first.
Classroom Observation Form

1. How does the teacher set up the classroom before the pupils arrive? How does the teacher start the lesson? Draw or describe the room arrangement.

   Teacher stands by greeting students. Make students do settle down and begins to write on the board.

2. Explain how the teacher makes lesson objectives clear to students.

3. What materials or resources were used in the lesson? Technology? Media?

- The student in the book who refused to talk may be "dyslexic" and that means their brain is not doing its job. Don't insist that she read aloud. This may cause her embarrassment amongst her colleagues.

(You can always ask the regular class teacher to make sure.)

- Teacher asks students to role play a conversation, then asks them to read a similar conversation using words and expressions from the board.

At that time came to the our home today.

Can you help me with homework, please?
Always make sure that what you write on the board is grammatically and semantically correct.

Mother: They are coming to our home today. Can you help me with the homework, please?

Teacher writes an exercise on board:

Starts by asking the meaning of "present" and "past" to make sure that he understands what it means for a verb to be in the present and what it means for a verb to be in the past.

Present Past

Clean
Look after
Work
Answer
Make
Success
Always start by asking them which of the verbs on the board are "regular" and "irregular" and always "brainstorm" because most of them didn't learn what they were writing.

- "Clean" (reg.)
- "Look after" (reg.)
- "Wash" (reg.)
- "Answer" (reg.)
- "Make" (irreg.)
- "Sweep" (irreg.)
- "Tidy" (reg.)

Then when you do that they will know that regular verbs → add "ed"
irregular verbs → verb needs to be changed
Additional Comments:

# good explanation of "water" then.

Sarah = verb

Ezra = noun

Ends lesson by asking students to do section 2.1 and tomorrow always tell them what homework is about.
Observation Three
Teacher was smiling more today and felt more comfortable than previous lessons which reflected on the students today.

Teacher makes sure that all students know how to pronounce the new words and asks students to come up and show her where

"Where is the 2nd day of the week in the calendar? etc.

It was very good to see what Mr. Smith teacher was encouraging students to (Clap) appplaud for students who did well and answered the questions or pronounced the words correctly.

The teacher asks the students to open their coursebooks on p.4 and starts with an exercise and asks students to come up to the board and ask them:

"Kate's father is going to England on the 13th of May."
Classroom Observation Form

1. How does the teacher set up the classroom before the pupils arrive? How does the teacher start the lesson? Draw or describe the room arrangement.

   Teacher begins by writing the new words on the board and explains the objectives of the lesson.

2. Explain how the teacher makes lesson objectives clear to students.

   Teacher starts by showing them a picture of a calendar and writes down
   fourth, seventh, twelfth
   second, fifth, eighth
   third, sixth, tenth

3. What materials or resources were used in the lesson? Technology? Media?

   Teacher used a white board, miniature poster of a calendar. Teacher draws a big calendar on the board which was then used to answer the exercises in the workbook.


   Teacher explains: first, second, third, twelfth
   Teacher asks students to read after her: first, second, tenth
"It's my birthday on the 29th of Oct."

"My birthday is on the 3rd of May."
5. Observe the teacher explaining a task to the learners. How does the teacher do this so that the learners understand? / or describe an effective teaching strategy the teacher used.

Teacher brings student to the board to do the exercise.

6. How does the teacher encourage students’ participation? How are students responding to the teacher’s lesson?

Teacher encourages student participation by asking them to come to the board and give the number specific data where the student is. The majority of students are responding positively. There is a minority interested in the lesson, which stands up.

7. How did the teacher maintain interest throughout the lesson?

She maintained interest by interposing with the students (all the students) and monitoring them during the exercise.

8. Note the number of students responding to the teacher and the number who are not. Why do you think this is happening?

Total = 21 female students
No. of student responding = 16 more or less

I believe most of students in the back may have “dyslexia”.
9. How does the teacher monitor the progress of the learners during the lesson?

Teacher walks around the class and asks questions to see if students are making progress.

10. What does the teacher say or do to manage behaviour in this lesson? How does the teacher respond to disruptive behaviour?

Students were calm and quiet and rarely asked them to "be quiet" or disciplined them in any way.

11. How do you know the students learned anything? Or were the outcomes of the lesson achieved in your opinion?

The outcomes of the lesson were achieved in my opinion as the majority of pupils were responding and participating throughout the lesson.

12. How was the lesson concluded? Or how does the teacher dismiss the class?
Observation Ten

Date: 25th Wed. March
Class: 5th Grade
Lesson:
Classroom teacher: [Name]
Student Teacher's name: [Name]

Teacher: [Name]
Assistant: [Name]

2015

Co-Teaching
Feedback:
- Objectives of lesson's clear
- Very calm environment
- Impressive teaching style
- Encourages participation
- Clarifies
- Well-behaved students
- Managed classroom effectively
- Lesson went smoothly
- Outcomes of the lesson were achieved from students' responses
- Authoritative, attentive to pupils' need
- Minimal use of Arabic (only used when necessary)
1. How does the teacher set up the classroom before the pupils arrive? How does the teacher start the lesson? Draw or describe the room arrangement.

2. Explain how the teacher makes lesson objectives clear to students.

3. What materials or resources were used in the lesson? Technology? Media?

5. Observe the teacher explaining a task to the learners. How does the teacher do this so that the learners understand? / or Describe an effective teaching strategy the teacher used.

Teacher was effective teaching strategy by asking participants to constantly participate by coming up to the front of the class.

6. How does the teacher encourage students’ participation? How are students responding to the teacher’s lesson?

Teacher encourages students’ participation by asking them if they would like to read.

7. How did the teacher maintain interest throughout the lesson?

She continually encouraged them to participate. She also repeated things that had already been explained to monitor their progress.

8. Note the number of students responding to the teacher and the number who are not. Why do you think this is happening?

13 out of 20 students are willing to participate without being forced to participate.
9. How does the teacher monitor the progress of the learners during the lesson?

Teacher asks students about objects that were already. She asks students to answer their workbook and goes around and checks on the students.

10. What does the teacher say or do to manage behaviour in this lesson? How does the teacher respond to disruptive behaviour?

Cuts well behaved and calm, quiet.

11. How do you know the students learned anything? Or Were the outcomes of the lesson achieved in your opinion?

By the students responses towards what had been taught during the lesson, the outcomes of the lesson were achieved.

12. How was the lesson culminated? Or How does the teacher dismiss the class?

Lesson completed by giving students homework.
Appendix Q

Interview Schedule for University Supervisor

1. In your opinion, how do you feel about a sustained period of teaching practice?

2. What do you think student teachers learn from teaching practice?

3. In your opinion, do you think student teachers make use of the things they learn during teaching practice experience once they join teaching? If so, can you give me some examples?

4. What did you notice about the transition of student teachers from university to school? In your opinion, how do you think student teachers coped with this transition?

5. To what extent, did the student teachers apply the ideas that they learned in university? Please explain and give some examples.

6. Describe the support that was available to student teachers from teachers in the school during teaching practice, if any?

7. Talk about how the student teachers responded to teaching practice.

8. Could you please talk to me about the student teachers individually and where you think they made progress during teaching practice? What changes in the student teachers did you notice during their teaching practice?

9. What concerns do you think the student teachers had during their teaching practice experience? Did you feel these concerns had changed or remained the same during the period of teaching practice? Can you explain? Could you give examples?

10. What are your perceptions of the concerns that were addressed by the student teachers during the teaching practice experience?

11. What problems do student teachers tell you about when you visit them on teaching practice? Do you have any examples about their problems?

12. In what ways did they support each other during teaching practice?

13. How did the student teachers benefit from this sustained period of teaching practice? Tell me as much as you can.
Appendix Q

15. Do you think that the period was long enough, why? Do you have a preferred model of teaching practice?

13. If they were given a longer period, do you think they would have benefited from it more? Why/why not?

14. How prepared do you think they are for qualified teaching? What do you think they are most prepared for and what do you think they are least prepared for?

15. What changes, if any, would you propose of teaching practice:

(a) work students do at university before teaching practice

(b) role of classroom teachers who work with the student teachers

16. Tell me anything else you have to say about the inclusion of an extended teaching practice in this university?
## Appendix R

### ERGO Approval from the University of Southampton

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ERGO Approval from the University of Southampton.

For further information, please visit: [https://www.ergo.soton.ac.uk/submission_info.php?submissionID=9676](https://www.ergo.soton.ac.uk/submission_info.php?submissionID=9676)

Date: 20/02/2015
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https://www.ergo.soton.ac.uk/submission_info.php?submissionID=5676  
20/02/2015

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Appendix S

Sample of Consent Form

CONSENT FORM

Study title: “An Examination of Student teachers’ experiences and perceptions about Teaching Practice in the College of Education at the University of Azzawia in Libya”

Researcher name: Khalid Amalghosam Khumag / Student number: 2459138 / Ethics reference:

Please initial the box(es) if you agree with the statement(s):

I have read and understood the information sheet (INSERT THE DATE AND VERSION NUMBER OF YOUR PARTICIPANT INFORMATION SHEET BETWEEN THESE BRACKETS) and have had the opportunity to ask questions about the study.

I agree to take part in this research project and agree for my data to be recorded and used for the purpose of this study.

I understand that my responses will be anonymised in reports of the research.

I consent to having my responses identified personally with me in reports of the research.

Please delete sentence as appropriate:

I understand my participation is voluntary and I may withdraw at any time without my legal rights being affected.

Data Protection

I understand that information collected about me during my participation in this study will be stored on a password protected computer and that this information will only be used for the purpose of this study.

Name of participant (Print name) ........................................................................

Signature of participant ........................................................................................

Date .......................................................................................................................
Appendix T

My PhD Journey Experiences

(A) Sharing the World Research and Culture Seminar Series (University of Southampton)

“Managing a Research Project in Locations of difficulty and conflict”
(B) Festival of Doctoral Research (University of Southampton)

"Bake Your PhD"
The People's Choice winner for #bakeyourPhd is Khulod Khmag! Well done #pgrfestsoton #phdlife
Appendix T

(C) Festival of Doctoral Research (University of Southampton)
“PGR Student Research Showcase” May 8th 2017

Student Teachers’ Concerns During a Teaching Practice Placement in War-torn Libya
Khaled Khnag
Dr. Gary Kinchin (Supervisor)

Introduction
Teacher education in Libya has been challenging for several years and PED distributions have been reduced. This has put pressure on student teachers to be prepared to teach from the beginning of their experience. The focus of this research is on the concerns of student teachers during their teaching practice in war-torn Libya. The study was conducted at a university in the province of Misrata in the west of the country. The primary aim of this study was to examine the concerns of student teachers during their teaching practice in war-torn Libya.

Research Questions
1. What are the concerns of English language teachers during their teaching practice in Libya?

Methods and Research Instruments
Methods:
Mixed Methods Approach
Research Instruments:
1. Teacher Concerns Questionnaire (TCQ): (George, 1978)
2. Interviews:

Findings/Discussion
1. Lack of support from class teachers and school staff.
2. Student teachers feeling overwhelmed by regular class teachers.
3. Concerns over the lack of support during the teaching practice.
4. Classroom management and pupil behaviour were consistent with the TCQ.

Future Recommendations
1. The content of the TCQ should include factors that influence the Teacher Concerns Questionnaire and student concerns.
2. New model training should improve the learning process and address the gaps between the content of the Teacher Concerns Questionnaire.
3. Teacher training institutions (ITEs) should offer more workshops to train and support student teachers who lack experience in teaching.
4. University staff should provide support to students during their teaching practice. More namely, to help them improve their teaching practice in the reality of schools.
(D) Festival of Doctoral Research (University of Southampton)

“3 Minute Thesis”

Congratulations to Kate Morton (far left), winner of today's FSHMS Three Minute Thesis heat!

Big well done also to Harriet Hummerstone and Tse Leung So (both far right) for winning Runner Up and the People's Choice vote respectively, and to all those brave PGRs who took part, you did brilliantly!
(E) Festival of Doctoral Research (university of Southampton)

"Voices of Experience"
Appendix T

(F) BERA Postgraduate Symposium (University of Portsmouth)

"Managing a Research Project in locations of difficulty and conflict"

BERA Postgraduate Symposium - Wednesday, 14th June 2017
University of Portsmouth, Rooms 0.05 Park Building, King Henry 1 Street, Portsmouth PO1 3PE
Discussions: Professor John (Dima) Alasalvar, Senior Lecturer in Education, University of Sussex

10:00 – 10:22 Arrival, coffee and refreshments

Morning session
10:30 – 10:50 Introduction
10:50 – 11:00 The poststructural researcher, knowledge and interpreting the accounts of others. Alyson Colman, University of Edinburgh
11:00 – 11:15 Conducting critical thinking skills intervention study in Pakistan: Practical issues researching a challenging topic in a challenging context. Shumaila Mahmood, University of Southampton
11:30 – 12:00 Effectively Combining Qualitative and Quantitative Analysis, Sally Evans, University of Portsmouth
12:00 – 12:15 Coffee and refreshments
12:15 – 12:45 Insider research into teachers' professional life: Ethnographic and other methods. Paul Legge, UCL Institute of Education
13:15 – 14:00 Lunch

Afternoon session
14:00 – 14:30 Doing research under different cultures: Issues encountered with participants. Kun Xiang, University of Southampton
14:30 – 15:00 ‘Desired in theory, but troubling in practice’: The challenges of doing narrative research and analysis in an educational setting. Hugh Klima, King's College London
15:00 – 15:30 Not Giving Up: Academic Perseverance in Adolescents. Peacock Mawey, University of Bristol
15:30 – 16:00 Sameh Asshour, University of Southampton
16:00 – 16:15 Conclusions
16:15 – 17:00 Networking drinks near the seaside (optional)

NB: You will have 15 minutes for presentations, allowing another 15 minutes for questions and discussions.

Contact person: Yvonne Xu; yxu8@port.ac.uk; mobile: 07799437929
References

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