

AN INVESTIGATION OF THE PROBLEMS  
EXPERIENCED BY PRIMARY SCHOOL  
STUDENT TEACHERS AND BEGINNING  
TEACHERS IN THE YEMEN ARAB REPUBLIC

VOLUME I

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Thesis submitted in fulfilment  
of the  
requirements for the degree  
of  
Doctor of Philosophy  
of the  
University of Stirling

Department of Education

September, 1986

5/87

## ABSTRACT

As the title of the thesis suggests, this is a study of the problems and concerns experienced by student teachers in The Yemen at different stages in their training (second, third, first year of teaching).

An initial exploratory case study of one teacher training institute, using interviews, was utilized to generate items for two questionnaires (about problems, and related beliefs respectively) completed by about 800 students in all 11 General Teacher Training Institutes in the country. The items covered several areas: School Material Conditions and Resources, Teaching Demands, Relationships with Professionals and Adults, Teaching Competencies, Institutes' Courses, Job Rewards, Pupils' Response to Teaching, and Students' Security.

Applying Factor Analysis to the ratings of the total population for the 'problems' questionnaire showed no sufficiently strong structure of problems (patterns). Further analysis using commonsense categories showed that most problem areas were of great concern to the majority of student teachers and beginning teachers and these concerns were stable across stages, except for Students' Social/Emotional Security which showed consistently decreased concern over successive stages. When males and females were studied separately, the patterns of change were different, and diverse changes

were found for the various (single-sex) institutes.

Variables such as Background (Urban/Rural), Institutes attended, Primary School Location, Job Location for beginning teachers, seemed to be dominated to a large extent by sex differences. Males mainly expressed higher concern about job rewards, females about their own ability to cope with the tasks of classroom teaching. Variables such as Age within Stages, and Stage of Joining Institutes, did not appear to have influence upon students and beginning teachers' problems.

The results of the 'Beliefs' questionnaire were analysed similarly and showed patterns of results which did not correspond with the 'Problems' results in a way which could allow the concerns to be explained by the beliefs.

The initial exploratory case study sample was followed longitudinally by interviews. This approach showed different patterns of increasing concerns on entry to teaching. Possible explanations for the different patterns are discussed.

Interviews with a sample of institutes' lecturers suggest an awareness by the majority of lecturers of some of the common problems expressed by student teachers.

The substantive findings and methodological issues are discussed in relation to the literature (e.g. Fuller, Gibson, Lacey...). Some suggestions for improving teacher education in The Yemen are offered.



## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This study has entailed studying and living in the U.K. for a number of years. It has also required travelling several times to The Yemen for the collection of evidence. This would not have been possible without a scholarship and other financial arrangements awarded by UNESCO. I am, therefore, grateful and indebted to that organization.

I must gratefully acknowledge the patient supervision given me by Donald McIntyre, Reader in the Department of Education then, who devoted so many hours to reading and discussing this work, provided invaluable constructive comments, and gave advice, encouragement and help.

I am also very grateful to Eric Drever, Lecturer in the Department of Education, who provided advice, encouragement and help, and to whom I always referred in the absence of Donald McIntyre.

My gratitude goes to Mrs Irene Lindsay for showing interest and meticulously typing this thesis.

I am indebted to the following in The Yemen, where

the empirical work took place: officials in the Ministry of Education and its offices in the different cities visited, for giving me access to teacher training institutes and schools; teacher training institutes' directors, head-teachers, lecturers, student teachers and beginning teachers. Without their co-operation this study would not have been possible.

... ..

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## INTRODUCTION

The central focus of this thesis is on the problems of primary school student teachers in Yemen as they go through their training and become teachers. It begins by outlining the recent patterns of Yemeni public education in general and the diverse attempts made in recent years to recruit and professionally educate primary school teachers in particular. This is done in the first chapter. Chapter 2 considers the international literature on student teachers' concerns, attitudes, thinking and how these change and develop according to different influencing environments. Chapter 3 reports the results of the initial exploratory case study which aimed at investigating the student teachers' problems in one of the teacher training institutes at various stages.

The next chapters (4 to 9) are concerned with the main study. Chapter 4 discusses the general design. Chapter 5 describes and analyses the findings of the student teachers' and beginning teachers' survey using factor analysis. Chapter 6 discusses the relative importance attached to the problems, and the relative validity of the belief statements asserted by the study sample as a whole.

Chapters 1 to 6 are dealt with in Volume I of this thesis.

In Volume II, chapter 7 looks at the importance that student teachers and beginning teachers accord to given problems, in relation to several independent variables. Chapter 8 examines the stability and change of student teachers' problems across stages and chapter 9 reports briefly the variety in student teachers' and beginning teachers' beliefs. It also examines the stability and change in the student teachers' beliefs across stages.

Then follows a report on a further study in chapter 10 in which the initial exploratory sample was followed into other stages. Chapter 11 contains a brief report of another study of student teachers' and beginning teachers' problems as perceived by lecturers. Finally, chapter 12 summarizes the results and relates these to the research questions raised in chapter 4 and to other research findings. It also proposes some possible measures for improvements.

CHAPTER ONE

PRIMARY SCHOOL TEACHER EDUCATION IN THE  
YEMEN ARAB REPUBLIC



## CHAPTER ONE

## PRIMARY SCHOOL TEACHER EDUCATION IN THE YEMEN ARAB REPUBLIC

This thesis focusses on the concerns which motivate or trouble primary school student teachers in Yemen as they go through their training and become teachers. It has been undertaken in the belief that an understanding of these concerns, and of how they vary according to the student teachers' and beginning teachers' circumstances, and of how they change as students train and enter the teaching profession, should be a major consideration in the planning and revision of teacher education programmes. Furthermore, through an awareness of their students' problems, lecturers in teacher training institutes, teaching practice supervisors, head teachers of primary schools and Ministry Inspectors can each judge how best they can influence beginning teachers and encourage them towards an enthusiastic, committed, professional approach to teaching.

Although no previous research in this area has been undertaken in Yemen, the study of student teachers' and beginning teachers' concerns, attitudes and thinking has been increasingly widespread internationally, especially in relatively wealthy countries. An appropriate starting point for the planning of this study is therefore a consideration of this international literature and this is undertaken in Chapter Two. Equally important, however, is the distinctive context of the Yemeni education system

in general and that of primary school teacher education in particular. This Chapter, therefore, aims at describing the recent pattern of public education in Yemen and especially of the diverse attempts made in recent years to recruit and professionally educate primary school teachers. To help the reader towards an understanding of this system, it may be helpful to provide first a brief description of the educational system, and of primary education in particular, before and after the 1962 Yemeni revolution.

### Education Before 1962

Before the advent of the 1962 revolution one could say that the Yemen had lived in complete isolation and in cultural darkness, where

... education in Yemen was solely for the purpose of religion and literacy. Schools were few, instructors were poorly trained, the curriculum depended on the individual instructor and text-books and teaching aids were all but unknown...

(Akkad, 1971, p.12)

By the end of the fifties only about 680 primary schools had been recorded in Yemen. They were distributed among the provinces as follows: (STCS, 1978, p.109)

Sana'a	262 schools	Hajjah	123 schools
Taiz	110 schools	Ibb	52 schools
Al-Hodeidah	105 schools	Sa'adah	28 schools

These schools were classified as follows:

- 1) The Quranic schools: this kind of school represented most of the above number of primary schools which existed

before the revolution. They were called in Arabic "Katateeb". In rural areas normally some literate village member (Arab Faqih) taught the boys in the open air classes. 98.5% of the schools had only one or even no classroom at all. These schools provided instruction in religion, reading and writing.

2) Primary schools: schools of this kind were located in the main cities: Sana'a, Taiz, Al-Hodeidah.

According to the Swiss Technical Co-operation Service Report (1978), only 8 primary schools provided classes for the entire extent of six years. The school programme was not standardized and included at most instruction in religion, reading, writing, arithmetic and Yemeni history.

During the first four years of primary school, pupils used to study the Quran, basic arithmetic and handwriting. In the fifth and sixth year pupils used to study Arabic grammar and the history of Kings (Ba'abbad, 1980, p.63). Due to the lack of equipment (paper, books, etc.) instruction was normally oral, relying completely on the pupils' memory.

The number of pupils in the primary schools was estimated at less than 40,000 which represented less than 4% of the children between 5 and 14. Of every 100 pupils entering school only 11 finished the six year courses, 18 attended school for 4-5 years and over 70 for 3 years only.

It should be pointed out here that before 1962 there



existed no proper budget for education. The teachers depended entirely on religious donations (Arab Waqf) the contributions of private parties and irregular donations from the Imam (King of Yemen). Consequently, it was not possible to expect any long-term provision for the establishment of a proper educational system during the reign of the Imam.

### Teachers Before 1962

In describing the position of teachers before the 1962 revolution, Ba'abbad (1980) pointed out that the job of teaching was the only job that received different standards of qualifications and graduates from different institutions, while the job in courts for example used to receive only the graduates of the schools called "scientific schools". The teacher was said to have enjoyed a high social status, more than his counterparts in other jobs. As well as teaching, the teacher used to lead people in prayers, particularly in rural areas. The teacher used to resolve disagreements between people, write the contracts of marriage and divorce, and sometimes to act as an assistant of the Sheikh (head of the tribe, or district) (Ba'abbad, op.cit.,p.69).

The limited need of primary, preparatory and secondary schools for teachers was met from many different sources. A formal certificate used not to be an essential requirement for teaching but rather it was said to be 'the ability to

teach' (Ba'abbad, op.cit., p.69).

There existed one institution for teacher training before 1962. This teacher training school was located in Sana'a. It provided a kind of in-service training for teachers whose qualifications varied from completion of primary school to graduation from the secondary school. They enrolled for periods of 3 to 12 months (Ba'abbad, op.cit., p.70, Akkad, op.cit., p.12).

Immediately after the revolution of 1962, the Ministry of Education examined the qualifications of the teachers of the different stages before the revolution. The results of this are shown in the following table (Ba'abbad, op.cit., p.72):

Table 1.1 shows the qualifications of teachers before 1962

No.	Qualifications	Percentage
1	Primary	8%
2	Intermediate (preparatory)	0.5%
3	Secondary	7.4%
4	Teacher Training School	12.5%
5	Religious Institutions (including Scientific Schools)	6.10%
6	Different Institutions	0.2%
7	University	-
8	No qualifications at all	65.3%

The table shows us that the majority of teachers before 1962, 65.3% of all teachers, held no formal certificates of any kind.

The table indicates also that the largest group of those holding certificates, 12.5% of the total, were the graduates of the only teacher training school, which was located in Sana'a. It also indicates that there were no university graduates before 1962.

With regard to primary school teachers' qualifications in particular, Ba'abbad classified them as, those who held primary school certificates, Teacher Training school graduates, and those who held no formal certificates at all. Teachers in this last category were people chosen by parents (Ba'abbad, op.cit.,p.70). This category was the predominant one at the primary stage, particularly in rural areas.

#### Primary Education after the 1962 Revolution

One of the six objectives of the 1962 revolution was 'to raise the peoples' standards culturally, socially, economically...' (The National Charter, (undated), p.1).

Therefore education was regarded as a means to achieve such an objective. Since then, education has been a free service provided by the government for its citizens.



The immediate concern of the republican government was to develop and modernize the educational system. Consequently considerable progress was realized, especially after the end of the civil war (1962-1970), where remarkable efforts were made at the level of the governmental primary school in order to spread literacy to a larger number of children of school age.

Since then primary education has witnessed a noticeable increase in the number of schools, pupils, and teachers. The following table shows the quantitative development in the number of primary schools, school enrollment, and teachers (Ministry of Education, 1982, '83).

Table 1.2 shows the quantitative development of Primary Schools

Year	School	Kuttab	Pupils	Teachers
1962/63	12	919	61335	1332
/64	18	877	62023	1278
65	25	909	66971	1268
66	28	969	69139	1238
67	38	670	63366	1336
68	39	710	66830	1499
69	37	707	66468	1443
70	52	648	72107	1449
71	821	Replaced by Primary Schools	88217	1726
72	1238		118868	3146
73	1442		153807	4253
74	1561		179079	5547
75	1952		232784	5881
76	2137		252726	7807
77	1537		220159	8180
78	1604		251876	6968
79	1711		251967	5900
80	2543		335249	6767
81	2985		414273	9812
82	3748		589186	11894
83	4359		705062	13334

The above table shows the big quantitative development of primary education which is represented in the number of primary schools, the increase in the proportion of pupils enrolled, and the increase in the number of teachers.

It may be noticed that there was some fluctuation in the number of schools between 1962-1970 due to the civil war that prevailed in the Yemen during this period. It may also be noticed that the number of schools decreased in 1977 which was a result of merging some schools which had one or two classes with other schools which had more than one class.

However the quantitative development of primary education is observable through the figures presented above. For example, the number of primary schools, pupils, teachers, in 1983 has reached 4359 schools, 705062 pupils and 13334 teachers, compared to the number of schools, pupils and teachers in 1962 which was 12 primary schools plus 919 Kuttabs, which later were converted to primary schools, 61335 pupils, and 1332 teachers.

#### Pre-service Teacher Education After the 1962 Revolution

We have seen that before the revolution there existed only one school for primary teacher training which provided primary schools with a very small proportion of their teachers and that the majority of the primary school teachers held no qualifications at all.

Due to the attempt to develop and modernize the system of education, and the increase in the number of schools and of primary school pupils which in turn has entailed an increase in the number of teachers needed for this stage, the Ministry of Education started to think of preparing teachers for this stage.

The first Initial Teacher Training Institute for boys at the preparatory stage (the 3 years after primary school) was established in 1964 in Sana'a. In 1966 a second Initial Institute was opened in Taiz. These two institutes consisted of classes which were attached to two secondary schools. In 1967 two more Initial Institutes for boys were opened, one in Al-Hodeidah and the other in Ibb (Ba'abbad op.cit.,p.114).

These Initial Institutes accepted pupils with primary school certificates. The period of study was three years after which they were awarded a certificate called 'Initial Diploma', equivalent to a preparatory school certificate. This Diploma qualified them as teachers in the primary stage. Students of these Institutes used to receive pocket money and meals as a kind of incentive to them.

The first group of trainees graduated in 1967. It included 9 professionally qualified teachers.

With regard to girls' Initial Training Institutes, two institutes started in 1967, one in Sana'a and the other



in Taiz. They started with one class in each city in two primary schools where all the graduates of the then primary schools were converted into Initial Institutes' student teachers (Ba'abbad op.cit., p.115).

In 1968/69 another kind of Primary Teachers Training Institute was started. Two institutes, one in Sana'a and the other in Taiz, were opened with 37 student teachers. This kind of institute is called a 'General Teacher Training Institute'. It accepts preparatory school graduates for three years, after which they are granted a certificate called 'General Diploma' equivalent to the General Secondary School Certificate (Ba'abbad, op.cit.,p.115).

Since 1970, the Ministry of Education has announced various different plans for further reforming the system of initial training for primary teachers, with the two main but to some extent conflicting aims of raising standards and of recruiting more teachers. Up to 1982 however, all of these plans were either withdrawn before they were implemented or else withdrawn after a trial period of a year or two. For example,

- (a) In 1970, the system of Initial Teacher Training Institutes was abolished for boys but it was re-established in 1974;
- (b) In 1974 the Initial Diploma Course was extended to four years, and diverse other reforms were announced, in a General Education Decree by the Ministry of Education, but these changes were not implemented;

- (c) In 1976, on the basis of a suggestion made by the UNESCO Education Development Project, the Initial Diploma and the General Diploma courses were each reduced in length to two years, but after being tried out in two cities, this system was abolished in 1978;
- (d) In 1978 a new additional route for entry to primary school teaching was announced, a one year course for secondary school certificate holders leading to a Special Diploma, but this course was not implemented.

Therefore, in 1982 the system was very similar to that which had been in operation in 1970. In 1982/83, however, after this present study was underway, the Initial Teacher Training Institutes were abolished and were replaced by a new system. This new system will be discussed later.

#### Quantitative Development of Teacher Training Institutes

The following tables show the quantitative development of primary school teacher training institutes (Initial and General) since their establishment (Ministry of Education, 1982, 1983, 1984).

Table 1.3 The development of Initial Institutes

Year	No.of Institutes	Students		Total
		Boys	Girls	
1962/63	-	-	-	-
64	1	55	-	55
65	1	24	-	24
66	3	90	-	90
67	5	163	27	190
68	6	185	30	215
69	6	402	84	486
70	6	266	64	330
71	4	161	124	285
72	4	-	342	342
73	4	-	590	590
74	5	32	849	881
75	7	307	336	643
76	8	508	453	961
77	10	626	486	1112
78	15	705	469	1174
79	14	565	265	830
80	11	604	303	907
81	10	424	348	727
82	10	375	284	659
83	-	-	-	-
84	-	-	-	-



Table 1.4 The quantitative development of General Institutes

Year	No.of Institutes	Student Teachers		Total
		Boys	Girls	
1962/63	-	-	-	-
64	-	-	-	-
65	-	-	-	-
66	-	-	-	-
67	-	-	-	-
68	-	-	-	-
69	2	37	51	88
70	3	102	11	113
71	3	182	65	247
72	5	192	84	276
73	6	185	148	333
74	6	192	278	470
75	7	107	180	287
76	7	155	190	345
77	7	363	175	538
78	8	211	232	443
79	7	154	253	407
80	11	285	298	583
81	12	451	325	776
82	12	578	310	888
83	11	672	421	1093
84	11	772	461	1233

The above tables show the increase in the number of Institutes since their establishment. The number of Initial Institutes has increased from one institute in 1963/64 to 15 institutes in 1978, then it decreased to 10 in 1982. The number of general institutes has increased from 2 in 1968/69 to 11 in 1984. The student teachers enrolled in the initial institutes were 55 in 1964 and their number was 659 in 1982. In general institutes the number of student teachers has increased from 88 in 1969 to 1233 in 1984.

We have seen earlier the big increase in the number of primary schools and the increase in pupils' enrollment. This in turn demanded an increase in the number of teachers needed for this stage. Despite the increase in the number of both kinds of institutes, they are unable to provide the primary stage with enough teachers. The following table shows the number of primary school pupils compared to the number of institutes' graduates for the last seven years (Mohammed, A.A., 1984, p.5).

Table 1.5 shows the number of pupils compared to the number of Institutes' graduates

Year	No. of Pupils	No. of Institutes' graduates	
		Initial	General
1977	220159	137	43
78	251286	446	186
79	252558	276	150
80	335249	212	92
81	414273	350	295
82	589186	382	181
83	705062	160	290

It is apparent that the number of pupils in primary schools has increased by very nearly half a million between 1977 and 1983. On the other hand, if one totals the number of nearly trained teachers over these years, there are 1963 graduates from initial institutes and 1237 from general institutes, a total of 3200. Even if all of these graduates had gone straight into teaching and had remained in teaching, which is very far from the case, and if none of the 1977 teaching force had resigned, the number of new teachers would fall hopelessly short of the number needed to cope with the increase in pupil numbers.

The shortage of professionally qualified teachers in primary schools is suggested by the above figures. the problem can be seen more clearly from the following table

which shows how the demand for teachers for the primary stage has been met (Qubati, undated, p.4).

Table 1.6 compares Yemeni and non-Yemeni primary teachers

Year	No. of teachers		Total
	Yemeni	Non-Yemeni	
1977	6855	1333	8188
78	5957	1011	6968
79	3785	2126	5911
80	2656	4111	6767
81	2482	7330	9812
82	1530	10364	11894

Thus, the shortage is being met, so far as it is being met, by non-Yemeni teachers. The non-Yemeni teachers with whom this demand is being met include teachers from different Arab countries like Egypt, Sudan, Syria, Jordan, Saudi Arabia, etc.

From the above table 1.6 it is observed that the number of Yemeni teachers has decreased from 6855 in 1977 to 1530 in 1982. Taking account of the 3200 new qualified teachers, 8525 teachers have either left teaching, or having qualified, have not taken up teaching posts. On the other hand, the number of non-Yemeni teachers has increased from 1333 in 1977 to 10364 in 1982 i.e. an increase of 9031. This trend of decrease in the number of Yemeni teachers and the increase in non-Yemeni teachers seems to have continued during the



last two years. It is not only the problem of the withdrawal of qualified teachers from teaching that faces the Ministry of Education. There is also the problem of students' abstinence from joining the teacher training institutes, in spite of the incentives being offered by the Ministry of Education for those who join the institutes.

The incentives are represented in a monthly grant (pocket money), accommodation, either in residence or in money, meals or equivalent in money, annual clothing, and transport. These incentives amount to 1600 Rials equivalent to £213 for the general teacher training institutes' students. Those who join the teacher training institutes are also exempted from the national army service (Ministry of Education, 1983).

In an evaluation of the Ministry of Education's first Five Years Plan (1977-81) it was pointed out that the target of the Ministry was not achieved regarding the supply of teachers from these institutes:

... it is observed that the quantitative objectives for teacher training either Initial or General were not achieved in the same proportion which was achieved regarding the general education. This is due to the abstinence of students from joining these institutes...

(Ministry of Education,  
undated, p.13)

Thus, the preparation of the Yemeni teachers in a sufficient number has become the foremost concern of the Ministry of Education, as the Minister of Education, in



one of his speeches, indicated, because of the huge expansion of primary education and the difficulty the Ministry is facing in bringing teachers from outside the Yemen (Ministry of Education, 1983, p.8).

### Teacher Training Institutes' Goals

The objectives of teacher training institutes were laid down in the 1978 decree that regulated the teacher training institutes which existed then (Initial and General). These objectives were stated as follows (Ministry of Education, 1978, p.7):

The primary teacher training institutes aim at achieving the following objectives:

- 1) Training Yemeni teachers who will be able to take an effective role in serving the surrounding environment beside performing their educational duties within the school environment.
- 2) Meeting the need of each province for teachers from among its inhabitants in order to ensure the stability of teachers.
- 3) The acceleration of the training of teachers of middle culture, to enable them to carry out the job successfully and help them to continue university education at the faculty of education.
- 4) Contributing to the modernization of primary schools through the attachment of schools to the institutes for practice.

## Teacher Training Institutes' Curriculum

In looking at the curriculum of teacher training institutes, I shall be dealing mainly with the General Institute curriculum because the system of the Initial Institute is no longer in existence.

The curriculum of teacher training institutes is concerned with certain aspects. These aspects were listed in the syllabus of the curriculum as follows (Ministry of Education, 1980, pp.9,10):

- 1) It is concerned with the personal development of the student physically, mentally, religiously, morally, and socially and it directs his/her behaviour to suit the teaching profession.
- 2) It is concerned with the cultural development of the student where it offers him/her academic subjects, at the standard of preparatory and secondary stage, which will help him/her to use them in his/her job as a teacher.
- 3) It is concerned with the professional development of the student through offering him/her suitable educational and psychological studies and training him/her in the use of methods of teaching. It is also concerned with development of his/her skills in producing, using and maintaining AVAs.
- 4) It offers opportunities to the student to apply the personal characteristics, theoretical studies and professional skills he/she has attained in the field through teaching practice in primary schools.

The curriculum is divided into academic, professional and cultural subjects. Here is a list of the subjects taught in the General Institutes (Ministry of Education op.cit. p.13):

#### Academic Subjects

- 1) Islamic Education and its methods of teaching
- 2) Arabic and its methods of teaching
- 3) Maths " " " "
- 4) Science " " " "
- 5) Social Sciences " " "
- 6) English " " "

#### Professional Subjects

- 1) Principles of Education
- 2) Teaching practice
- 3) AVAs.

#### Cultural Subjects

- 1) Drawing
- 2) Physical Education
- 3) Music
- 4) Environment service for boys
- 5) Home Economics for girls

A table of the number of lessons allocated to each of the above subjects will be shown in the Appendix (1).

It might be worth mentioning here that some minor changes have taken place to some of the professional subjects listed



above. For example, the name of the Principles of Education subject in the General Institutes was modified by a general notice made by the Department of Teacher Training in the Ministry of Education in 1984 where it became two subjects instead of one.

The following is an extract from the General Notice (Ministry of Education, TTID 1984):

According to the agreement of the Ministry Council at 13/2/84, the modification of the name of the principles of education, in the General Institutes, was decided upon so as to become two separate subjects. The first is the principles of education and its application. The second is called Educational Psychology subject. There should be also two separate exam papers for each subject.

Some studies have suggested inadequacies in the present curriculum of teacher training institutes. In a study partially devoted to knowing the student teachers' opinions of whether or not their curriculum was suitable for preparing a competent teacher, the investigator concluded that the majority of student teachers thought of their curriculum as unsuitable:

... generally the responses indicate that the standard of the present curriculum needs re-examination in order to achieve the objectives of preparing a competent teacher...

(Ba'abbad, op.cit., p.217)

Similarly, the opinions of the officials and those concerned with primary school teacher preparation (i.e. officials in the Ministry and its offices in the provinces) led the investigator to the following conclusion:

From the above responses the low standard of the student teachers becomes clear because the curriculum of these institutes is not suitable to a great extent for the preparation of the primary school teacher. Added to that is the lack of ability of the administration and the teaching staff.

(Ba'abbad op.cit.,p.219)

In a report by the Inspectorate Department the inadequacy of the Institutes' curriculum was also reported:

... in any system we follow in trying to achieve the quantitative aspect we should not neglect the qualitative aspect. We should be keen on choosing the good advanced curriculum and also the good performance in teaching which gives good results. The present curriculum and the standard of performance in teacher training institutes need to be re-examined if we are to achieve the required development in the curriculum to produce a good teacher in the field...

(Ministry of Education, ID,1981/82, p.7)

Among the recommendations concerning the improvement of the pre-service teacher education systems was the recommendation to establish a section within the Department of Teacher Training Institutes in the Ministry of Education called "curriculum section", for the purpose of improving the curriculum of teacher training institutes so as to respond to the need for preparing a competent teacher (Mohammed, A.A. op.cit., p.16).

There are some remarks regarding General Institutes, based on visits to the Institutes, made by the Adviser on the Teacher Training Institutes in the Ministry. Some of these remarks related to the content of the Institutes' textbooks:



The content of the textbooks of the general institutes depends very much on the content of the textbooks of general secondary education. This is wrong. The textbooks of the institutes should be of a special character which distinguishes them from the rest in respect of the subject and the content...

(Ministry of Education, ID, 1984, p.9)

He followed his remark by implying that the content of the Institutes' curriculum aims at preparing the students for the university rather than for teaching.

... they (textbooks) should aim at contributing to the professional and educational preparation of the teacher. They should not aim at preparing the student to join the university.

(Ministry of Education, ID, op.cit.p.9)

The Adviser also pointed to the content of some subjects as out-dated:

Some of the subjects like maths are no longer suitable for the Teacher Training Institutes because what is taught now in these institutes is the traditional maths while the contemporary maths is supposed to be taught.

(Ministry of Education, ID, op.cit.p.9)

Some of the subjects were reported as not having written textbooks. The Adviser pointed to the subject of Methods of Teaching Islamic Education and the subject of Teaching Practice; he saw having written textbooks for these two subjects as necessary (Ministry of Education, ID, op.cit. p.9).

There are some subjects for which no periods in the timetable were allocated, in particular Methods of Teaching Islamic Education, Arabic, Science, Social Sciences, Maths.

The subject of Methods is supposed to be taught by the academic subject teachers in the institutes. For example, the teacher of Science has also to teach Methods of teaching Science in primary school. But the problem is, because these subjects have no periods in the timetable, teachers tend to concentrate on teaching their academic subjects and neglect the Methods of Teaching subjects.

... many teachers neglect the methods of teaching and those who remember it do not give it due attention because there is not any period allocated to it in the timetable.

(Ministry of Education, ID, op.cit. p.3)

Because the subjects of Methods are taught only in the 2nd year of the General Institutes, the Adviser has suggested that these subjects should be taught over the three years for three lessons a week. He also suggests that these subjects should be taught in independent lessons rather than attaching them to the timetable of the academic subjects as is the case now (Ministry of Education, ID, op.cit. p.9).

### New Systems of Primary Teacher Training

Being aware of the acute shortages of qualified Yemeni teachers and of students' reluctance to join the existing teacher training institutes, the Ministry of Education is trying ways and means of adopting new systems of training.

The Ministry's new policy regarding Primary School teacher



training could be summarized in the following points (Qubati, undated, p.5):

- 1) Establishing rural and urban general institutes for teacher preparation (5 years after primary stage)
- 2) Establishing special institutes (2 years after secondary school) in the main cities
- 3) Retaining the existing General Institutes (3 years after preparatory school), developing their programmes and improving their present situation.

As I have mentioned earlier, in 1982/83 the old system of Initial Training Institutes was abolished. It was replaced by a system of five years' training and education after primary instead of three. The Initial Institutes were abolished for several reasons (Mohammed, A.A., op.cit., pp.10,11).

- 1) The short period of pre-service training
- 2) The young age of the graduates and their inability to carry the responsibility of their jobs
- 3) The Initial Institutes functioned mostly as a stage which provided the General Institutes with intakes

The new five year system was established with the following aims (Qubati, op.cit., p.5):

- 1) Increasing the channels which provide the teacher training institutes with student teachers
- 2) Achieving a kind of balance between the number of enrolled primary school pupils and the number of students enrolled in teacher training institutes

- 3) Intensive preparation of primary school teachers and meeting the need of every province from its inhabitants as a first step to achieve self-sufficiency in the teachers of primary stage as soon as possible.
- 4) Upgrading the standard of primary education for it is the base for the following stages where the qualified local teacher has a full knowledge of the child's reality and is able to connect the information with the child's environment and reality.

As well as the spread of primary schools in rural areas in a wider form and the increased need for teachers for this stage, other reasons were also given for establishing this 5 year system such as the abolition of initial institutes, the failure of the general institutes to supply primary schools with enough teachers, and the absence of an institution which prepared permanent teachers after the primary stage.

As an implementation of this new policy, 37 new institutes were opened in 1983-84.

The following table shows the total number of the student teachers enrolled in each year (Ministry of Education, ID, 1984):

Table 1.7 The number of student teachers enrolled in each year in the five year system

No. of Institutes	No. of Student Teachers					Total
	1st Yr.	2nd Yr.	3rd Yr.	4th Yr.	5th Yr.	
37	1576	1094	586	-	-	3256



It should be observed that the number of student teachers in the third year represent the students remaining from the three year system which was abolished, because the new system is only two years old.

The curriculum of such institutes covers very much the same range of subjects as that of the General Institutes.

With regard to the system of Special Institutes (2 years after secondary school) which has been referred to above as a part of the new policy of the Ministry of Education, this is still in the form of a proposal (i.e. it has not been implemented yet).

According to the proposal made by the Director of Teacher Training Institutes Department in the Ministry of Education, this kind of system will accept graduates of Secondary Education in its different forms (science and arts sections, business education). It will also accept the graduates of the General Institutes (3 year system) and the graduates of the 5 year system.

Among the aims of this two year system were varying the sources of preparation to meet the increased need for primary school teachers, and to achieve a permanent existence of qualified Yemeni teachers at this stage. It is also aimed at training subject teachers for the higher grades of the primary school and the first grade of the preparatory stage if necessary i.e. if they are needed (Qubati, op.cit. p.9).

## Student Teachers' Assessment

First and second year student teachers' assessment, whether in the General or 5 year system Institutes, is described in the Decree that regulates the Teacher Training Institutes. The students are assessed according to their attainment in the following (Ministry of Education, op.cit., p.14):

1. Monthly work which includes:
  - a) Oral and practical exams which are organized by the subject teacher
  - b) Written exam which is organized by the subject teacher once a month
  - c) Whatever tasks are set by the teacher for pupils such as studies, practical work, fieldwork.
2. Mid academic year exam which usually takes the form of a written exam.
3. Final exam by the end of the academic year which is also a written one.

The grades of each subject are distributed according to the following proportions:

1. 20% of the subject final grade is allocated to the monthly work
2. 20% is allocated to the mid academic year exam
3. 60% is allocated to the final exam.

The Decree also stated that the final exam should include all parts of the syllabus.

The grades of each subject are specified as a maximum of 100 and a minimum of 50 (Ministry of Education, op.cit., p.15).

With regard to the third year of the General Institutes, student teachers all sit the same national written exam at the end of the year, except for that part of the curriculum classified as 'cultural subjects' which are examined at the Institutes level.

According to a General Notice made by the Department of Teacher Training Institutes, third year student teachers have to be examined practically and in written form in the following subjects: Drawing, Physical Education, Music, Environment Service for boys, and Home Economics for girls.

The grade of these subjects is 100 distributed between the practical and the written exams and also distributed between the year work and the final exam as follows (Ministry of Education, TTID, 1984, p.12):

Year Work		Final Exam		Total
Practical	Written	Practical	Written	
10	20	20	50	100

### Teaching Practice Procedure and Assessment

With regard to first year student teachers whether in the old system or the new system, the following instructions regarding teaching practice were laid down by the Ministry of Education Inspectorate Department to be carried out by the institutes (Ministry of Education, 1983, pp.1,2):



1. Two successive periods, either at the beginning or the end of the school day should be allocated for student teachers to visit primary schools.
2. The period from the beginning of the academic year until the end of November should be allocated to theoretical study inside the Institute.
3. From the first of December, visits should be organized for student teachers to the attached or the nearest primary school to the Institute for two successive periods weekly according to a plan set by the teachers of Education and psychology subjects, taking into account the following points:
  - a) The first week is for visiting one of the primary schools
  - b) The second is for discussing what has been done in the visit
  - c) The third week of the month is for a visit
  - d) The fourth week of the month is for discussion
4. This procedure should continue from the beginning of December until the end of March.
5. The student teachers are evaluated and graded according to what they record in their notebooks about the visits and according to their contribution to the discussions.

With regard to the second and third year, in both the General Institutes and the 5 year system, from the beginning of the academic year until October the two periods allocated to teaching practice are used for revision of methods of teaching and lesson preparation. The student teachers start one day a week teaching practice in the first week of November. They continue this practice until the end of March (Ministry of Education, op.cit. pp.1,2)



Since the third year in the General Institute is the final year, student teachers usually have a block teaching practice which is considered as a final assessment of student teachers. During the three successive weeks in schools, each student teacher is given a timetable of at least three lessons daily.

The assessment of student teachers is carried out by supervisors from the Institute and external examiners (usually Inspectors). This assessment of students is carried out according to certain criteria specified by the Department of Teacher Training Institutes in the Ministry of Education. The grades are divided between the supervisors and external examiners. The following table shows the basis on which the student teachers are being assessed and the grades divided between the external examiners and supervisors (Ministry of Education 1984).

Table 1.8 Aspects of student teachers assessment and grades divided between the external examiners and supervisors

Aspects of Assessment	Grades	
	External Examiner	Supervisor
Appearance, Personality and Punctuality	5	3
<p>Lesson Preparation which includes:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Careful specification of lesson objectives (information, skills, inclinations)</li> <li>2. Specifying the suitable AVAs</li> <li>3. Writing down the plan of executing the lesson including the information, the presentation of the subject, specifying how the AVAs are to be used and the manner by which the lesson is to be evaluated</li> </ol>	10	6
<p>Educational Situation Management.</p> <p>It means the actual execution of the lesson plan as it has been described in the lesson preparation or modified according to the circumstances of the situation:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Good start</li> <li>2. Good presentation of the subject</li> <li>3. The positivity of pupils in the lessons</li> <li>4. The good and organized use of the blackboard</li> <li>5. Paying attention to lesson evaluation either in writing or orally</li> <li>6. Good at dealing with pupils</li> <li>7. Controlling the class without resorting to corporal punishment</li> </ol>	20	12

Cont'd....

Aspects of Assessment	Grades	
	External Examiner	Supervisor
The good use of AVAs .	5	3
Co-operation with the school administration, colleagues, exercising some administrative work and benefiting from directions	5	3
Contributing to educational activities	5	3
Final Grade	50	30

It is seen here that the final grade is 80, the remaining 20 marks are allocated to the one day practice which is being assessed by the Institute supervisor.

#### Teacher Training Institutes' Teaching Staff

The teacher training institutes were established at a time where there were no qualified Yemeni cadres to run such institutes. Like other educational institutions in the country, teacher training institutes were staffed by non-Yemeni staff from other Arab countries like Egypt, Syria and Iraq. This dependency on non-Yemeni staff is still in existence up to now.

The Ministry of Education thought seriously of staffing these institutes with a Yemeni cadre through a project called "Teacher of the Teachers Project". This project aims at



qualifying teaching and administrative staff for teacher training institutes. The qualification needed for such staff is a master's degree, and a number of 175 teachers and 11 administrators were to be qualified during 5 years at a rate of 35 teachers each year (Ministry of Education, TTID, 1982, op. cit.p.13).

To carry out this project in 1979 an agreement between the Ministry of Education and the American Development Agency was signed. According to this agreement some of the graduates of the Faculty of Education of the University of Sana'a were sent to Eastern Michigan University in the USA to study for a Master's degree in education according to their different specializations. About three groups have graduated and returned to work in teacher training institutes (Qubati, op.cit. p.35).

Some of the requirements of studying for such qualifications were specified by the Teacher Training Institutes Department. These requirements are as follows (Ministry of Education, TTID, op. cit. p.13):

- 1) The candidate should be one of the Faculty of Education graduates.
- 2) His/her grades should not be less than a 'good' grade.
- 3) He/she should be one of the Ministry's employees (i.e. working in the field of Education).
- 4) He/she should provide sufficient guarantee that they will work in the field of Education after graduation.



Some problems related to teaching staff might be worth mentioning. Some of these problems were pointed out by the directors of Teacher Training Institutes who gathered in a meeting aimed at studying the present situation of the institutes and solving these institutes' problems. Their meeting resulted in a number of recommendations directed to the Ministry of Education. Some of the recommendations have implied that the institutes are staffed with some members who are inexperienced in the field or are not graduates of institutions concerned with education (like Faculties of Education). For example, the following recommendation was made:

The participants recommend the necessity of providing the institutes with specialist teachers who have experience, competence, and have worked previously in similar institutions...

(Ministry of Education, 1983, op.cit.p.29)

Another problem referred to by the directors seems to be that some of the teaching staff are not appointed by choice or even with their agreement. This is what the following recommendation indicates:

The participants suggest that the Ministry of Education re-examine compelling some teachers to teach in the institutes without considering the educational standards, competence, experience and their choice, because the instability and the disharmony of these compelled teachers is negatively reflected in the educational standard of the institutes.

(Ministry of Education, op.cit.p.30)

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

## CHAPTER TWO

### LITERATURE REVIEW

#### Introduction

While it is necessary to approach the distinctive Yemeni situation in an open frame of mind, it was felt that the more extensive the repertoire of ideas which I had about student teachers' and beginning teachers' ideas and worries, and about the attitudes which they develop, the easier it would be for me to recognise such ideas among the student teachers and beginning teachers in The Yemen. Also, as part of my attempt to describe and explain the development of concerns among those entering the teaching profession in The Yemen, it would be sensible to ask how far phenomena observed in other countries are also apparent in The Yemen. Therefore, the focus of my literature review was on the ways in which student teachers' and beginning teachers' thinking changes during the periods of professional preparation and the first year of teaching. I was interested, in particular, in the changes which are brought about as a result of teacher training courses, of teaching practice, and of full-time teaching.

It would be an inappropriately big task to attempt to make an exhaustive list of studies in these areas, and I have chosen studies instead so that diversity of three kinds would be reflected. First I have looked for



information on diverse substantive aspects of student teachers' and beginning teachers' thinking, attitudes and concerns and the way they change. Second, I have tried to exemplify different ways of conceptualizing and theorizing about such change and development. Third, I have aimed to reflect a wide range of the kind of methods people have used for studying phenomena in this area.

### Some theoretical concepts

Many researchers have attempted to study the ways in which student teachers and beginning teachers orient themselves towards the job of teaching. Several concepts have been claimed or assumed by such researchers to be useful in understanding the ways in which student teachers and beginning teachers think about teaching and how their thinking develops. Since most researchers in the field have, however, described the phenomena that they have studied using terminology (e.g. 'attitudes', 'ideologies', 'orientation') which they do not explain, it is very difficult to know what assumptions they make or what merits they perceive in their ways of construing the issues.

Some researchers have used the concept 'attitude', others have used the term 'ideology' and others have used the term 'orientation' to refer to the views held by student teachers or beginning teachers on certain educational issues and practices. For example, in studies like



Butcher (1965), McIntyre & Morrison (1967), and Lacey (1977), a student who holds a view which regards children and others as persons to be treated as ends in themselves rather than as serving the interests of others would be labelled as having a 'tenderminded attitude' to education.

In Gibson's (1972) study of the attitudes of student teachers regarding their role expectations, to take another example, students who view the teacher's role as being more concerned with the pupil's whole personality and more concerned to break the barriers between home and school would be characterized as having a 'liberal' or 'progressive' attitude, and those whose views favour more, for example, the practice of grouping pupils by ability for academic subjects would be characterized as having a 'traditional' attitude.

Hoy & Rees (1977) and Zeichner & Grant (1981) were interested in knowing the changes in the views of student teachers regarding control of pupils and also certain behaviours and values which are encouraged or rewarded by bureaucracies. In their studies a student or beginning teacher whose views emphasized loyalty of a person to his superiors would be classified as bureaucratic in attitude. The student teacher or beginning teacher whose views stress the maintenance of order, distrust of pupils and a punitive, moralistic approach to pupil control, would be said to have a custodial ideology. The student teacher

or beginning teacher who accepts a trustful view of pupils and optimism concerning their ability to be self-disciplining and responsible would be classified as having a humanistic ideology.

In Marsland's (1970) study, a student teacher whose views were in favour of more informal methods and who did not favour the examinations would be said to be educational in his or her orientation while another student would be called academically oriented if his/her views were favourable to examinations and more formal methods.

Although the terminology has differed, it is difficult to see any clear differences in meaning among 'attitudes', 'ideologies', 'orientations', etc., as used by such researchers. All of them are concerned with dimensions of variation in what people believe and value in relation to education, and in relation to the task of teaching in particular.

There seems to have been wide diversity of practice among researchers in the extent of their efforts to identify or justify such dimensions of variation in attitudes among the particular populations they have studied. Some have conducted exploratory factor analytic studies and related the results to their theoretical ideas (e.g. Oliver & Butcher (1962)). Others have been content to assume the validity of existing scales in relation to slightly different populations. Others again have argued



theoretically for the importance of certain dimensions and carefully constructed scales to measure variation on these dimensions without asking empirically whether these preferred dimensions do reflect well the patterns of variation within the relevant populations' attitudes to education or teaching.

Other researchers, Fuller (1969), Fuller & Bown, (1975), Taylor (1975), used the concept of 'concern' to refer to the problems, worries or difficulties expressed by student teachers and experienced teachers, and how these develop in the process of becoming a teacher. For example, student teachers who are complaining of experiencing discipline problems, difficulties in mastering the content to be taught, or worried about evaluation by supervisors, are characterized as having concerns about survival or self. When the student teacher or the teacher is expressing problems related to pupils' gains and capabilities, he/she is said to have concerns with pupils. The concept of 'concern' is a rather broader idea than dimensions of attitudinal variation. It is concerned more with what people focus attention on or worry about than with the ways in which beliefs or values vary in relation to a given focus, and in that sense is a more fundamental idea than, for example, 'attitude'.

To explain how student teachers act under different constraints or difficult situations, some researchers, such as Gibson (1976), used the concept 'perspective'.

He used this concept to refer to the views and the plans of actions people follow in problematic situations. For example, he noted that student teachers develop the 'Safety and Survival Perspective' as a result of the difficulties experienced during teaching practice, therefore they acted and behaved in a way that would ensure certification.

The idea of a person's 'perspective' seems a good deal more general than others discussed above. For one thing, one would ask what perspective, in the singular, a student teacher had of teaching, whereas one would ask about his or her attitudes adopted in relation to the objects of concern. It also (like 'concern') seems to be a very open concept, with a possibility of infinite variation in the diversity of perspective which a person might adopt.

Lacey (1977) used a similar concept which he called 'Social Strategy'. He sees it as expressing the autonomy of the individual in the face of coercive social pressures. According to him this term implies a purposive, guiding, autonomous element within individual or group behaviour. In his study, student teachers were found to adopt different kinds of social strategies, depending on the situations and the constraints they were in. For example, because student teachers, during teaching practice, were on trial, they pushed the blame for the difficulties and problems they encountered in the classroom away from themselves by adopting two strategies, one 'Upwards'



towards the system, the Head, the other teachers, the other 'Downwards' towards the pupils. Also, in dealing with the problems of the situation they adopt certain strategies, e.g. 'collectivization' of the problem or 'privatization' of the problem.

'Social strategy' as a concept shares with 'perspective' an emphasis on how the person handles the situation they are in, and indeed clearly emphasises this active aspect even more. As is clear from the above examples, however, social strategies can involve either overt action or simply mental reorientation. It is a narrower concept than 'perspective', clearly distinguishable from 'concerns' and 'attitudes'; and the individual is not necessarily characterized, even within his professional role by one specific social strategy at any one time.

Thus, the student teacher's thinking about teaching is believed by some researchers to be influenced by certain experiences and external realities. I shall be focusing on such experiences and realities which have been seen to contribute to the change or the development of student teachers' thinking.

### The impact of the college course

Much has been written about the professional socialization of school teachers and the attitude changes which take place during their training or their experience of teaching. A

fairly consistent finding has been that student teachers come to teacher education programmes with "traditional" or "conservative" attitudes but they tend to become increasingly more "progressive" or liberal in their attitudes during their college or university course.

There are a number of studies which seem to support this notion. I shall outline some of these studies.

The effects of professional training upon the educational opinions of students have been studied on the early sixties in the U.K. Using the Manchester Scales of Opinions about Education (developed by Oliver and Butcher 1962), Butcher (1965) and McIntyre & Morrison (1967) have investigated changes in opinions during training and some correlates of opinions in samples of students in training in England (Butcher) and in Scotland (McIntyre & Morrison). The results in both countries showed fairly consistent changes during training in the direction of increased naturalism, radicalism and tendermindedness in educational opinions. The results also indicated that the attitudes to educational practice were more related to the effects of education, indoctrination and experience than to sex or age; that the expressed religious attitudes and behaviour and the political affiliations bear a close relation to educational opinions expressed on the naturalism and radicalism scales; and that the scale of tough- tendermindedness appeared more specific to education and less associated with areas of social attitudes.



Marsland (1970) designed a study to tease out some of the complex, inter-related effects of personal and structural variables upon students' attitudes and values. The study was based on a model in which Marsland views teacher training as a social system, that is as a complex of interactions and attitudes characterized by a determinate social structure and culture, which both in its coherency and its conflicts provides a crucial environment for learning and thus for change in the students who pass through it. He aimed at identifying the source, the strength, and the multifarious interconnections between the various influences upon students' attitude change and emerging conceptions of the teacher's role as they progressed through the college course.

Eleven rating scales were used to measure his dependent variables. The first seven scales were developed on the basis of response to a role inventory which in turn was developed on the basis of the conceptualization and techniques of Gross and his associates (1958). This inventory consisted of a set of 60 norms for the teacher role, derived from the literature and from exploratory and pilot work based on interviews with relevant sets of role-definers: student teachers, serving teachers, college lecturers and others. The other four dimensions of teacher role definition were derived from sources other than the role inventory. These scales were:

- 1) The Educational/Academic orientation dimension
- 2) The Organizational commitment/Detachment dimension
- 3) Career/Vocational orientation dimension
- 4) Uniate (i.e. professional trade union commitment/  
Detachment dimension
- 5) Professional commitment/Detachment dimension
- 6) Traditional/Modernizing community involvement  
dimension
- 7) Affectivity/Affective Neutrality dimension
- 8) Progressivism/Traditionalism of Educational  
philosophy and method
- 9) Favourability/Unfavourability to teaching as a career
- 10) Specificity/Diffuseness of rule conception
- 11) Prescription of the status structure of the professions

Various independent variables, which were taken up in the analysis, were specified as follows:

- Demographic variables (age, sex, social class)
- Personality variables (authoritarianism, extraversion)
- Attitudinal variables (towards the social system of teacher education)
- Interactional variables (the degree to which students participate in the social system)
- Structural variables (indices of structural locations of students in the social system of teacher education)

Self-completed questionnaires were administered to 150 student teachers in one college of education at the very beginning and at the close of the course.



In his findings, Marsland details the degree and direction of the changes occurring in the dependent variables measured by the above rating scales. Here is a summary of the pattern of the changes:

- 1) Students become increasingly educational in their orientation to teaching and to classroom interaction and become less academic.
- 2) They decrease in organizational commitment to the school and its demands.
- 3) They become less career orientated and more vocationally orientated.
- 4) They become more highly committed to the uni-ate organization of teachers
- 5) They become decreasingly committed to teaching as a profession. This alone, of the changes, is non-significant.
- 6) They become increasingly modern in the sorts of social life they expect of teachers.
- 7) They become more affective in their role definitions.
- 8) They become increasingly progressive, decreasingly traditional in their educational philosophy and methods.
- 9) Their level of commitment to teaching as a career declines.
- 10) Their role definitions become increasingly specific, decreasingly diffuse.
- 11) Their perceptions of the status structure of the profession become increasingly egalitarian.

Some of the independent variables are reported by Marsland to be associated with the major attitudinal changes outlined above. For instance, among the demographic variables, whereas age is not significantly associated with attitude change, sex was significantly associated with attitude change, where male students tended to remain more academic and less educational than the female students and less inclined to change towards an affective definition of the teacher role. The family status is significantly associated with only one of the eleven change measures. Working-class students tended to become more favourable towards the prospect of teaching as a career than their fellow students from different social class backgrounds.

Although personality variables appeared to play a larger part in attitudinal change than the demographic variables they were nevertheless limited in their degree of association with the dependent variables.

Authoritarianism was negatively associated with a modern conception of the teacher's social life; extraversion correlated positively with an increased educational as opposed to academic orientation.

Marsland reported a strong association between informed staff-student interaction and student attitude change. Both increasingly favourable commitment to teaching, and growing educational professionalism on the part of students is substantially associated with greater contact with the academic staff of the college. Another finding



is concerned with the association between student peer group interaction and attitude change. He shows that greater involvement among the students in discussions of teaching is associated with increasing career commitment and progressive attitudes. Another finding refers to the complex effects in the teachers socialization process resulting from the students' membership of main subject departments and professional training groups (infant, junior, secondary).

In a study aimed at studying the professional socialization of student teachers, Gibson (1972) designed a cross-sectional investigation to study the effects of a college course upon the attitudes of student teachers regarding teacher role-expectations during a three-year period of anticipatory professional socialization. He developed a Role Definition Instrument consisting of 34 items relating to the role of the primary and secondary teacher. The instrument was administered to a sample of 345 women students at a college of education. 126 first-year students completed the RDI on the first day of their course, 101 second-year students in their sixth term, and 120 third-year students at the end of their course.

The results showed that during their three years in college students come to hold a more open conception of the roles of both primary and secondary teachers. By the end of the three-year course students favoured greater flexibility in the nature of the social organization of

the school (e.g. favouring mixed ability grouping, wider age-range groupings, etc.). They saw a wider range of alternatives in curriculum and method, they saw the teacher as more concerned with the pupil's whole personality and were more concerned to break down the barriers between home and school etc. Gibson observed that the majority of these changes took place in the early part of the college course. He concluded that the findings of this study confirm the previous findings that during the course of teacher training students' attitudes towards children and educational practice changes in the direction of increased liberality. But he commented that not all the items showed significant change from first to third year.

In part of the study aimed at investigating the professional socialization of teachers, Lacey (1977) measured changes in the general attitudes of student teachers to education. He used five attitude scales, three of which were constructed by Oliver & Butcher (1962) (Naturalism, Radicalism and Tendermindedness). The other two scales (Liberalism and Progressivism) were developed by himself. These five attitude scales were completed at the beginning and end of the course in five universities. Lacey's findings showed an increase in the mean scores in the attitude scales. He noticed a move in a downward direction with regard to some scales but these moves were small and were not statistically significant.



Lacey's explanation regarding these findings was that "the PGCE courses in general produce a social milieu in which the attitudes measured by this battery of scales are intensified in the student body, that is students move towards being more Radical, more Naturalistic etc."

Some researchers have tried to investigate the contribution of variables like "personality" to the changes in attitudes during teacher training. For example, Kremer & Moore (1978) asked whether the changes occurring in attitudes towards education after one year of teacher training depended on the students' belief systems; and if there was such an influence, they wanted to know the relative contribution of the belief system to attitude change.

The concept of a 'belief system', in this study, is borrowed from Rokeach (1960), who distinguished between individuals with closed vs. open belief systems (as indicated by high vs. low scores on his Dogmatism scales, respectively). As opposed to a closed one, an open belief system is associated with the ability to create new conceptual structures, with a tolerance of ambiguity and of opinions different from one's own, and with a readiness to accept innovation and the ability to be flexible. According to Rokeach, the openness or closedness of belief systems is related to personality traits. Attitudes are defined here as sets of cognitions, effects, and behavioural intentions (Krech et al 1962).

Attitudes towards education were regarded as part of an individual's broader attitude system.

Instruments used in this study were:

- a) Rokeach's D-scale (1960) to assess the openness or closedness of belief systems.
- b) Hofman and Kraus' questionnaire of Attitudes towards Education (1971) for obtaining scores on progressivism and traditionalism.

Both the D-scale and the attitude towards education questionnaire were administered, to 125 first year Israeli female student teachers at a school of teacher training, twice - at the beginning of the school year and at its end.

Results showed a significant overall change towards less traditionalism ( $t = 3.32$ ;  $df = 17$ ;  $P < .01$ ) and more progressivism ( $t = 8.72$ ;  $df = 117$ ;  $P < .01$ ). The sample was broken down into low vs. high on the personality measures by considering the highest and lowest 30% on the openness and closedness scores of the D scale.

In the case of the students low on closed-mindedness, there is significant change in traditionalism ( $t = 3.41$ ;  $df = 37$ ;  $P < .01$ ) and progressivism ( $t = 10.59$ ;  $df = 37$ ;  $P < .01$ ). Similarly, there were significant differences in pre- and post-test scores for students high on open-

mindfulness, both on traditionalism ( $t = 3.20$ ;  $df = 36$ ;  $P < .01$ ) and progressivism ( $t = 16.80$ ;  $df = 36$ ;  $P < .01$ ). By contrast, there were no significant changes for students high on closed-mindedness or for those low on open-mindedness.

They came to a conclusion that the effects of the training were not the same for all students, it varied according to the students' personalities.

While the investigations mentioned up to this point exemplify what seems to be an unusually consistent pattern of findings in educational research, it should be noted here that not every one accepts these findings at face value. There are other lines of argument which seem to deny or question the effects of the colleges and university departments of education on the students' views. For example, Shipman, reported in Hogben and Petty (1979), although he reported similar findings to those mentioned above, suggests that the changes that occur to student teachers' attitudes during teacher training are really only superficial. Students, Shipman says, employ 'impression management' to insulate themselves from college influence and to retain the attitudes they entered with, attitudes more in line with those found in schools than those the training institution would like to transmit.

Lortie (1973) believes that biography as opposed to formal



training or teaching experience is the key element in teacher socialization. Lortie suspects that protracted exposure (as pupils) to potent models leads teachers-to-be to internalize (largely unconsciously) modes of behaviour. Therefore formal training in pedagogy at the university is seen as playing little part in altering earlier and traditional views. There are some studies that seem to lend support to the view that teacher socialization is completed before formal training. To determine the nature of attitude changes during teacher education and in the first year of teaching, Hogben and Petty (1979) surveyed two groups of primary student teachers in their final years of university and primary teachers in their first year of teaching. The attitudes of the trainee teachers and novices were compared with those of experienced teachers and non-education students over a two-year period. To measure the overall attitude structure of the different groups in order to compare structures from the same group at different times and those for different groups at the same career points a semantic differential instrument was developed containing a total of 21 concepts each rated on six seven point evaluation scales.

Their findings were that while there was some change in students' attitudes during the final university year towards the "progressive" orientations of the university course, this orientation did not persist far into the first year of teaching. They believe that the impact of

formal teacher education, and theory in particular, on attitudes is real but transitory. They believe that Lortie's contention, that the attitudes of American teachers are based on their own early experiences as pupils in school, holds for the Australian teachers also.

In a later report, using factor analysis, Petty & Hogben (1980) reported that although the students reacted to educational theory by some attitudinal change, they later reverted to the common pattern shown by themselves earlier and by everyone else throughout the study. This seems to indicate that teachers, education students and non-education students hold common attitudes towards teaching. Since some of the subjects in their study had not completed or had never been exposed to teacher education programmes, they assumed that attitudes towards teaching acquired in youth are held by everyone including teachers.

Thus, according to Hogben & Petty (1979) and Petty & Hogben (1980) "teacher socialization is largely completed before formal training begins".

Using the same instrument (used earlier by Hogben & Petty; Petty & Hogben), Hogben & Lawson (1983) measured the attitudes of a group of secondary school student teachers and the attitudes of a sample of supervising classroom teachers. Twenty-one students, enrolled for the one-year Diploma in Education course for secondary school teaching, participated in the study. Attitudes were measured three times during the year, first during

the first week of the academic year, the second measure immediately after returning to the university following their block of teaching practice, and the third measure at the end of the academic year. The teachers' attitudes were measured once only, at the completion of their teaching supervision period. Hogben & Lawson expected the attitudes of student teachers towards education-schooling to be similar at the beginning of their training to those of practising classroom teachers and to remain so despite the influence of university courses which might be quite deliberately attempting to produce certain changes. They also expected the attitudes of supervising teachers to be congruent with those of the student teachers who come under their charge during periods of teaching practice in the school. The findings showed students consistency in their attitudes towards a wide range of concepts related to education and schooling over the three rounds.

In addition the results also showed that the pattern of student attitudes at each time of measurement was highly similar to that of the supervising teachers who completed the instrument following the student teaching practice block.

Thus, their findings support the findings reported in studies of primary school teacher trainees, outlined above, where they concluded that "Attitude stability is the picture most clearly emerging from this and the previous studies".



Later, Hogben & Lawson (1984) argued that their previous conclusion was an unsatisfactory representation of the experience of teachers on their entry into the teaching profession because the results of the previous studies of primary and secondary school teachers present the aggregate views of student teachers and that contact with students during training and in the first year of teaching indicates that some quite significant changes in both attitudes and behaviour do occur for some teachers.

Using the same instrument (Semantic Differential Instrument) as well as interviews, they focused on four student teachers who were followed into their first year of teaching. They reported a considerable degree of change occurring in attitudes towards certain concepts. They saw the most powerful influences were the attitudes and practices adopted by the school in welcoming the new teacher.

There is a different set of arguments which advocate the view that teacher training institutions and schools are partners in the development of traditional teaching attitudes. Teacher education and schools are seen to have a considerable impact on the attitudes and practices of students and beginning teachers and this impact is effectively conservative.

The studies that reported changes in student teachers' attitudes, during their teacher training in colleges and university departments in the direction of progressivism

and their reverse to a conservatism, for Mardle and Walker (1980) imply a discontinuity between school and teacher training in that they suggest that students become resocialized.' Such discontinuity between the schools and teacher training is being questioned by Mardle and Walker. They argued that teachers do not become resocialized during their course of training nor in the reality of the classroom since in essence this is a reality which they never actually left. The reality Mardle and Walker refer to is what people do in classroom and lecture room and what they learn from the process of doing as opposed to what they learn from the content of the formal curriculum. This they refer to as the hidden curriculum by which one learns what is acceptable behaviour and what is not, what leads to rewards and what to sanctions. They suggest that the continued exposure to this hidden curriculum, its practices and the commonsense assumptions by which it is rationalised constitutes the core of teacher socialization.

Mardle & Walker extended their investigation empirically by collecting some data through systematic observation, interview and by using a variety of documentary sources. Their argument was that there is no dramatic change in experiences during or after training. In demonstrating the continuities between schooling and teacher training they focused on the examination of training courses in terms of two notions: "differentiation" and "domination".



In examining the methods course through course rationales, Mardle and Walker claimed to observe that it continues and revivifies a theme central to schooling itself, the gradual extension of responsibility. It is seen that before the student is encouraged to decide upon anything, he must observe schools and teachers as they are and accept their attitudes, dispositions and skills. Through looking at the course rationale material, they commented that before the student can move to the second phase of skill acquisition he must demonstrate both his commitment to and identification with teachers; and the teachers will include those whom they have just left (in schools as pupils) and those observed during visits to schools. Thus, they argued, having to submit to a particular experience, perform a specific set of activities and demonstrate commitment, appropriate attitudes and enthusiasm towards that experience is seen to constitute "domination".

"Differentiation" means that in teacher training institutions student teachers are differentiated in terms of social or personal qualities, academic ability, and commitment. This differentiation is similar to that employed by teachers in schools regarding pupils' school reports. They added that teachers and tutors are drawn towards others who are perceived to resemble themselves. Differentiation is seen to be necessary both to fulfil university requirements and to place individuals in the job market. It is also seen as a necessary prop to student motivation and staff credibility



In the first instance "differentiation" takes place on academic criteria, thereafter, attitudes, dispositions and social skills are used.

In their view, courses of educational theory result in a very few students adopting a more understanding approach to children, parents or even their colleagues, and that these courses are perceived by students as lacking explicit remedies and therefore as lacking relevance to the real job of teaching. The content of these courses is not therefore something to be taken seriously by students. They concluded that the courses of educational theory contribute to the continuity of experience from school into college. Teaching practice is also seen as another aspect of teacher training, as experienced by students, which does nothing to undermine the assumptions about teaching which they have derived from their experience as pupils.

Bartholomew also suggests that university and school both in fact encourage conservative positions in trainee teachers in that both deal in traditional perspectives on teaching and in the transmission of approved views and information. According to this view, the university might be seen as having a legitimizing role with respect to the conservative practices of the school (Hogben & Lawson 1983, Zeichner & Tabachnick 1981).

### The Impact of Teaching Practice

Teaching practice is considered as an important aspect of teacher education programmes and to be of considerable significance in the process of professional socialization (Gibson 1973, p.256, Hoy & Rees, 1977).

Within the teacher education community it has become commonly accepted that while students become increasingly more progressive or liberal in their attitudes towards education during their stay at the college or the university department, they tend to shift to opposing and more traditional views as they move into student teaching (Zeichner & Tabachnick 1981).

Several empirical studies have provided evidence regarding the influence of student teaching experience upon student teachers' views. For example, Gibson (1973) has examined the effect of school practice upon students' conceptions of the role of the teacher as measured by Role Definition Inventory Scores. A substantial proportion of a longitudinal study sample was used to measure how the college's final practice, which comprised a consecutive period of ten weeks, affected the role conceptions. The (RDI) was completed in the week before the practice and in the week following its end, by sixty-nine students.

Gibson found that scores at the start of the practice were very similar to those recorded by the entire



longitudinal sample at the end of the previous year. The results showed that the RDI scores were significantly reduced after teaching practice, representing a move towards a more closed conception of the teacher's role. For example, as a result of the school practice students appeared to favour more the practice of grouping children by ability for academic subjects, and to be rather less in favour of encouraging parents or other visitors to come into the school. The change was interpreted by Gibson as due to the "reality shock" of first-hand experience of the classroom and the operation of a school perspective.

In an interview sample comprising 18 student teachers, Gibson (1976) reported that as a result of the practice the student teachers' attitudes had changed. They saw themselves as having become less child-centred and more teacher-centred, particularly over issues of punishment and streaming. The students' views on corporal punishment and streaming had hardened as a result of the practice.

Mahan and Lacefield (1978) also studied the effects of longer field experience with multiple role models (supervising teachers) upon student teachers' value orientations towards education and schooling. Mahan & Lacefield utilized the theory of cognitive dissonance formulated by Festinger, to provide a conceptual framework for examining the changes of attitudes. This theory holds that if a person experiences prolonged cognitive dissonance he will very likely change his



attitudes or beliefs so as to reduce that dissonance. From this theory, Mahan & Lacefield expected that if a disparity exists between the student and the supervising teachers, the student will tend to experience cognitive dissonance because of his assumed perception of the experienced supervising teachers as practical experts; and so the student's value orientation will tend to shift towards those value orientations held by the supervising teachers. The magnitude of the shift will be a function of the initial disparity between student and supervising teacher and a function of the duration of the field experience. The investigators followed 123 student teachers who were clustered in three elementary schools for 36 weeks of student-teaching experience under the supervision of 42 in-service teachers and 9 university staff members. The Educational Preference Scale (EPS) was used to measure the student teachers' and inservice teachers' expressed value orientations. It was developed to examine attitudes and philosophical beliefs along four value dimensions concerning the nature of knowledge, the nature of learning, the nature of the learner, and the purpose of schooling. The value orientations towards education held by the student teachers were determined three times during the programme by administering the (EPS). This occurred (a) before the student teachers reported to their supervising teachers, (b) as they completed their assignment with their first semester teacher and (c) when

they had completed their assignment with their second semester teacher.

The findings showed that the teachers as a group were initially more traditional than were the students ( $P < .013$ ). After 36 weeks of student teaching, there was virtually no difference ( $P < .43$ ), the student group having experienced a highly significant attitude change ( $P < .001$ ). Mahan & Lacefield concluded that there seemed little doubt that the supervising teachers' values and attitudes, expressed vocally and/or concretely presented in their professional conduct, exercise a powerful influence upon the orientation of their student teachers.

Murad (1975) aimed at studying the effect of cumulative training and field experience on teacher trainees' pupil control ideology, their human relations attitudes, and their values of educational practice. A series of cross sectional samples of student teachers at different sequential points in the programme were studied, using the Pupil Control Ideology (PCI) form to measure students' PCI orientation, the Student Teacher Attitudes of Human Relations (STAHR) to measure students' attitudes to human relations, and the Educational Preference Scale (EPS) to measure students' expressed values of educational practice. Murad found no significant difference between elementary and secondary student teachers. He found that student teachers' groups at various sequential points in the programme differ significantly on overall multivariate



tests of significance. The analysis showed that students furthest along in the programme were more conservative, as he hypothesised on their measures of control ideology and attitude of human relations. No significant differences were found on measures of expressed values of educational practice. Differences on the PCI and STAHR became apparent only after student teaching experience. He concluded that programme effects of significant magnitude to change pupil control ideology and attitudes of human relations in a more conservative direction were primarily related to the experience of student teaching rather than the on-campus portion of the teacher education programme.

Hoy and Rees (1977) studied the possible influence of student teaching experience on the dogmatism, pupil control orientation, and bureaucratic orientation of student teachers. The study was designed to test the hypothesis that student teachers would become significantly more bureaucratic in their orientation as they completed student teaching and that they would become significantly more custodial in their pupil control ideologies as they completed student teaching. Hoy and Rees also expected significant change in the dogmatism of student teachers as they acquired student teaching experience. To test these hypotheses, Hoy and Rees used the following operational measures. The bureaucratic orientation was measured by the Work Environment Preference Schedule (WEPS), which is a 24-item instrument with 5-point Likert



response categories from "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree". The Pupil Control Ideology (PCI) form was developed to measure the pupil control ideology of educators along a custodial-humanistic continuum.

A short form of Rokeach's Dogmatism Scale developed by Troldahl and Powell (1965) was used to identify the extent to which individuals' belief systems were open or closed.

Data were collected from a sample of 112 prior to the student teaching and again immediately after the nine-week student teaching experience in secondary schools. Their findings indicated that the basic structure of belief systems did not seem to be modified during student teaching, but important changes in orientation as a result of student teaching did occur. The student teachers became substantially more bureaucratic in orientation as a result of student teaching. The findings demonstrate also that the student teachers became significantly more custodial in their pupil control ideology.

I have pointed out earlier that some researchers have tried to characterize the ways student teachers cope or deal with the problems they perceive. Using the concept of 'Perspective', Gibson (1976), in a longitudinal study, interviewed a sample of 18 students drawn from a cohort of 126 in a college of education. Each student was interviewed seventeen times during their three year course where the experience of school practice was extensively studied.

A major finding by Gibson from the study was the great importance which the student teachers attributed to the teaching practices and the part they played in structuring their perspective on the course. He found that most of the students saw the practices as a series of hurdles which had to be got over. Gibson saw the practices as representing times of considerable stress for the students which stand out as major landmarks in the students' perception of the whole course. Gibson found that certain "perspectives" develop relating to the experience of school practice and these "perspectives" develop in the following order:

The Service Perspective



The Safety and Survival Perspective



The Independent Perspective  
(for some students)

According to him, the "Service Perspective", what is seen as the "college view" of teaching, is characterized by idealism and initially students tend to accept this view and to make an attempt to implement such a view in their work with pupils, but most students felt that this was not possible. Due to the effect of first teaching practice, Gibson found that students moved away from the initial perspective to the "Safety and Survival Perspective". It is a perspective more concerned with surviving the practice rather than with treating it as a progressive step to acquiring professional competence. The move of students from "Idealism" to a "Safety-First" view has been attributed to the anxieties and difficulties



of the classroom situation as well as the hazard of being assessed. During the third year practice, Gibson observed a shift from the "Survival and Safety Perspective" to an "Independent Perspective", characterized by students' concern with the quality of their teaching, and with the exercise of their own practical judgement in relation to their teaching, rather than with others' criteria. This shift was attributed to the increased confidence which arose from knowledge of children and a growing repertoire of teaching techniques. But this move was only for a small number of students while the majority continued to be characterized, during the third year practice (final practice), by the "Safety and Survival Perspective".

In a case study, Lacey (1977) described the common experiences of student teachers during teaching practice. Here he proposed a model of socialization which was described as the adoption or creation of appropriate social strategies implying that the individual actor (student) has some freedom to manipulate and change the situation while at the same time being constrained to adjust to it. Several stages were observed by Lacey as emerging from the considerable strains of the classroom situation.

- 1) The first stage is characterized as the "honeymoon period", which is a period of euphoria and heightened awareness arising from the massive change in direction in the student's career from the academic 'grind' through



school and university to a practical course involving relationships with children. Experiences in the school were described as novel, students made mistakes in interpreting the inner culture of the school and are surprised and sometimes worried by what they found. But at this stage most students did not feel part of the school or feel worried by events that carried warning of increasing difficulty in the future. At this stage students were also optimistic about overcoming future difficulties.

2) The second stage was characterized as the "Search for Material and Ways of Teaching". The first major shift from the student to the teacher role comes through having to prepare material (notes, pictures, ideas, etc.) for the school and in particular the classroom and its pupils, instead of for a member of the university faculty. As student teachers emerge from the 'honeymoon period' and classroom difficulties increase in their significance, the search for material becomes a major concern. The student teachers try to compensate for their lack of control and lack of ability to improvise within the classroom by elaborate preparation. Thus, the search for material is seen by Lacey as the student teacher's behavioural response to the problems posed by the classroom.

3) The third stage observed by Lacey is called "the Crisis" where a high proportion of students, during the early part of their teaching practice, felt themselves to

be in a crisis or near a crisis situation. At this stage students feel that they are not in control of the situation, that they are failing to get through to their pupils and that they are failing to teach them. These feelings are discussed, sometimes within the privacy of confidential conversation and sometimes more generally within the seminar. Because student teachers are on trial, they push the blame for the difficulties and problems encountered away from themselves. Lacey identified two recognizable directions (social strategies) on which the blame can go: (1) Upwards towards the system, the head, the other teachers, (2) Downwards towards the pupils.

4) The fourth stage is called "Learning to get by (and failure)". At the previous stage, Lacey had noted that in order to deal with the crisis or near-crisis situations they experience, students feel the need to communicate about their problems and to displace the blame. He sees that there are limits to the extent the student teacher is able to do this without damaging the assumption that he will 'get by' and make a good teacher in the end.

Lacey has introduced four observed types of social strategies student teachers may adopt in dealing with the problems of the teaching situation and the stresses which might affect their position; "Collectivization" of the problem, "Privatization" of the problem, "Upwards" and "Downwards" displacement of the blame.



In using 'collectivizing' strategies the problem is shared by the group whose collective opinions legitimize the displacement of blame. In using the 'privatizing' strategies the student does not speak about his problem except in a most guarded way and may refuse to admit to any problem at all in certain situations (e.g. university seminar). Lacey has also described three theoretical social strategies: (a) Internalized Adjustment, in which the individual complies with the constraints and believes that the constraints of the situation are for the best, (b) Strategic Compliance, in which the individual complies with the authority figure's definition of the situation and the constraints of the situation but retains private reservations about them, (c) Strategic Redefinition which implies that change is brought about by individuals who do not possess the formal power to do so. They achieve change by causing or enabling those with formal power to change their interpretation of what is happening in the situation. Lacey examined the implications of these strategies for 'learning to get by or failure' within the course. For instance, if a student teacher has adopted a combination of "strategic redefinition", "collectivizing strategies" and "Upwards displacement" of the blame, he is likely to be 'at risk'. For example, one of the student teachers was classified as "at risk" as a result of his attempt to innovate in methods within the classroom and his insistence in using them. That put him at risk because it was not acceptable to his tutor in addition to his involvement in a long open debate with the school



about issues such as deschooling, group work, work sheets, integrated teaching and mixed ability teaching, in which this student had advocated radical change. On most of these issues he had differed from his tutor and had failed to employ 'Compliance Strategies' at crucial points during the process of moving to an 'at risk' classification.

Lacey observed that the strategies adopted differ according to the situation. For example, the strategies typical of the university are collectivist and those adopted within the school tend to be privatized. Teaching strategies devised in the collectivising atmosphere of the university were simply dropped when the student experienced the realities of the school. Learning to get by for students contains a large element of strategic compliance.

### The Impact of The First Year of Teaching

Studies that followed student teachers into their first year of teaching such as Kuhlman & Hoy (1974), Hogben & Lawson (1984) and Lacey (1977), have provided evidence for the impact of full time teaching on the student teachers' views. For example, we have seen earlier that Hogben & Lawson (1984), who had argued for a high degree of stability in students' views, in fact found that, while some attitudes did remain stable, there was a considerable degree of change occurring in individuals' attitudes towards certain concepts concerned with education

and teaching as a result of the experiences of full time teaching. Kuhlman & Hoy (1974) focused on the changes in bureaucratic and professional orientation of beginning teachers as they encountered the formal socializing experience of the first year of teaching.

"Professional orientation" was defined as a perspective characterized by a belief in a high degree of autonomy to make professional decisions in the best interests of students; a focus on expertise of professional responsibilities and obligations; and a professional reference group orientation to keep abreast of new developments in the field.

In some contrast, the basic pattern of beliefs which depict the 'bureaucratic orientation' include a reliance on the administration for guidance in controversial educational matters; a high regard for the necessity of rules and regulations; a high degree of loyalty to the administration and the school; and a general feeling of self subordination to the school and community.

The basic assumptions underlying the study were that beginning teachers will have a significantly greater bureaucratic orientation and a significantly greater professional orientation after the first year of teaching.

To test these hypotheses, the Bureaucratic Orientation Scale (BOS) and the Professional Orientation Scale (POS)



were used. The POS consisted of nine Likert items and the BOS consisted of 15 Likert items. Responses were scored along a five-point scale from 'strongly agree' to 'strongly disagree'. The scales were administered to a sample of prospective elementary and secondary teachers from four New Jersey colleges at the completion of their undergraduate teacher preparation programmes and again near the conclusion of their first year of teaching.

The results of the study showed that secondary school teachers did become significantly more bureaucratic, but significantly less professional as they completed their first year of teaching while the bureaucratic and professional orientations of elementary school teachers changed very little.

Lacey (1977 p.129) in a follow-up questionnaire study of student teachers in their first year of teaching showed that on the four attitude scales (Liberalism, Naturalism, Radicalism and Tendermindedness), the scores at the end of the first year of teaching had dropped to about the level at which they had been at the beginning of the course.

As well as the studies that focused on the change of the views of first year teachers as a result of their experiences of full time teaching, there has been a considerable number of empirical studies regarding the problems experienced by first year teachers. Felder and others (1979) aimed at identifying the concerns and problems experienced by



beginning teachers. Data were collected through the use of the Teacher Concerns Questionnaire, developed by the University of Texas Research and Development Centre, and an open-ended questionnaire designed to elicit information concerning problems encountered. The data were collected from 30 teachers in their first year of teaching on several occasions, at the end of student teaching, the end of the beginning teachers' third week with pupils and at the end of their ninth week with pupils. At the end of the student teaching, students were asked what problems they believed they would face. Their responses revealed the following problems ordered in terms of frequency mentioned.

- 1) Discipline and classroom management.
- 2) Organization of class (including grouping students).
- 3) Lack of materials and supplies.
- 4) Planning and preparation; lack of time.
- 5) Knowing school procedures, processes and rules.
- 6) Meeting school's expectations; paper work.
- 7) Being sued; extent of liability; responsibility for accidents.
- 8) Knowing what to teach; ability to teach the skills students need.
- 9) Exhaustion.
- 10) Relations with other teachers.
- 11) Working with parents.
- 12) Knowing names of students, teachers, parents.
- 13) Keeping students interested.

- 14) Living on teacher's salary.
- 15) Combining personal and professional life.

By the end of the third week of experience with pupils in schools, the study revealed the following concerns and problems which are summarized in order of frequency:

- 1) Time spent on paperwork and trivial details.
- 2) Not enough time to plan and prepare.
- 3) Disorganized - unable to manage pupils' resources and the schedule.
- 4) Being inadequate - unable to apply what I know and control the situation.
- 5) Inability to maintain order in the classroom.
- 6) Not reaching every student.
- 7) Wanting students to enjoy schools.

By the end of the ninth week of teaching, beginning teachers described how they felt and what their concerns were.

These are summarized as follows:

- 1) Successfully meeting the needs of pupils.
- 2) Keeping students interested and motivated.
- 3) Relating and reporting to parents.
- 4) Classroom management.
- 5) Organizing and managing reading groups.
- 6) How much is expected of a teacher - paperwork, telephone calls etc.
- 7) Not enough time to organize and plan for my teaching.

8) Not enough time for myself.

Thus, Felder et al noticed a shift in the type of concerns and problems experienced in the majority of the participants towards an increased concern about students and less concern about management related problems.

Wright (1975) aimed at identifying and evaluating the major difficulties encountered by beginning elementary teachers in the schools of Newfoundland, Canada. Employing a questionnaire method, he asked beginning teachers to indicate the seriousness of teaching problems encountered by them. The findings were rank ordered by problem areas as follows: working conditions, methods, discipline, evaluating and reporting, planning, interpersonal relationships, school policies and organization, and academic.

It would be a futile task to attempt to outline the very large number of studies related to the problems of first year teachers; rather I shall refer to some reviews of the studies in this area.

In describing the studies of first year teachers' problems, Ryan (1980) pointed out that for a large proportion of these studies survey methods have been used rather than more intensive case studies. These studies were characterized by him as limited in scope, poorly conceived and poorly executed.



In a review of the literature in this area, Johnston & Ryan (1983) have pointed out one major weakness of studies on beginning teachers' problems, indicating that examples of beginning teachers' problems were derived from the professional literature by most researchers or by asking principals or supervisors to list the problems they observed in beginning teachers. Given such a list of problems, researchers surveyed beginning teachers, asking them how frequently the problem occurred, how difficult a problem it was, whether they needed help with it and whether they received that help. Rarely were beginning teachers themselves asked directly "what problems do you perceive you have in your teaching?"

Johnston & Ryan pointed out the common problems cited in surveys of beginning teachers' problems. These were as follows:

- 1) Handling problems of pupil control and discipline.
- 2) Adjusting to deficiencies in school equipment, physical conditions, and materials.
- 3) Adjusting to the teaching assignment.
- 4) Adjusting to needs, interests, and abilities of pupils.
- 5) Motivating pupil interest and response.
- 6) Dealing with parents.
- 7) Grading.

However, to get a further indication of the perceived problems of beginning teachers, a more recent review of the international literature in this area may be referred to. Veenman (1984) conducted a review that dealt with the question: which problems are identified in the research literature as problems that beginning teachers perceive and experience in their first year of teaching? This review was concerned with a set of studies on primary and secondary school teachers conducted from 1960 to the time of the review, all the studies being based on empirical research. Of the eighty-three studies reviewed, fifty-five were from the United States, seven from West Germany, six from the United Kingdom, five from the Netherlands, four from Australia, two from Canada, two from Austria, one from Switzerland, and one from Finland. Most of these studies used the questionnaire method. In order to identify the most serious problems of beginning teachers, Veenman compiled a list of the problems mentioned most frequently in the eighty-three studies. From each study the fifteen most serious problems were selected. These problems were classified according to their importance and rank ordered. The following summary of the results represents the most frequently perceived problems of beginning teachers:

- 1) Classroom discipline.
- 2) Motivating pupils.
- 3) Dealing with individual differences among pupils.
- 4) Assessing pupils' work.

- 5) Relations with parents.
- 6) Organization of class work.
- 7) Insufficient materials and supplies.
- 8) Dealing with problems of individual students.
- 9) Heavy teaching load resulting in insufficient preparation time.
- 10) Relations with colleagues.
- 11) Planning of lessons and school days.
- 12) Effective use of different teaching methods.
- 13) Awareness of school policies and rules.
- 14) Determining learning level of students.
- 15) Knowledge of subject matter.
- 16) Burden of clerical work.
- 17) Relations with principals/administrators.
- 18) Inadequate school equipment.
- 19) Dealing with slow learners.
- 20) Dealing with students of different cultures and deprived backgrounds.
- 21) Effective use of textbooks and curriculum guides.
- 22) Lack of spare time.
- 23) Inadequate guidance and support.
- 24) Large class size.

It is clear that Veenman's, and Johnston & Ryan's reviews are by no means in full agreement. There are similarities in the problems listed in each, but Johnston & Ryan report only seven problems against Veenman's twenty-four, and the reviews do not appear to correspond closely to individual studies, such as Felder's and others'. The



reviews, in offering generalization, may hide important variations between different contexts, and therefore one cannot expect them to provide a definitive list for a particular context (such as that of the present study). One can of course see them as offering possibilities to be considered.

### The Development of Teacher Concerns

In this section teacher concerns are treated separately rather than according to the three different influencing environments presented above, mainly because the stages identified or the sequence of development seem to overlap the different environments.

Basing her argument on the notion that students' learning is tied to motivation and that education courses may be answering quite well questions which students are not asking, i.e. students will learn better what interests them rather than what does not, Fuller (1969) asked what data there is on the dependable motives of student teachers. These she defines as regularities in the interests of beginning education students, regularities which might furnish guides to educators in choosing course content and experiences for teacher preparation programmes. It is these regularities in interests, which she calls 'concerns', that interested her in her studies which examined the developing concerns of small groups of prospective teachers, and re-examined the findings

of other investigators to discover what teachers are concerned about. In one of her studies, a weekly counselling seminar during the student teaching semester was devoted to discussing students' concerns, and in another study students were twice asked to write about what concerned them, once at the beginning of the teaching practice semester and once at the end of the semester. The results of these two studies and the analysis of other investigators' studies of beginning teachers and experienced teachers were reported.

From the evidence of her studies and the analysis of other studies, Fuller developed a conceptualization of teacher concerns. She posited three phases of concern; a pre-teaching phase, an early teaching phase and a late teaching phase. The first phase she found to be a period of no concern. The second, early teaching phase, she characterizes as concern with self and in this phase Fuller posits both covert concerns and overt concerns. The covert concerns show concern for a stance by the student as an authority within the school and classroom. Students are concerned about where they stand, whether the class is going to be theirs or the teacher's, whether the teacher is going to tell them what to do or if they can try things themselves. The overt concerns relate to the classroom command such as concerns about class control, ability to understand subject matter, to know the answer, (or to say "I do not know"), to have the freedom to fail on occasion. It also involves concerns about evaluation.



The concerns of this phase were expressed only during confidential contacts. It is among the student teachers that such concerns were discussed endlessly. But they were not expressed in either written statements or in interviews. The third phase, late teaching, was characterized as concern with pupil gain and self evaluation, as opposed to personal gain and evaluation by others which characterized the phase of early teaching.

Later, Fuller & Bown (1975) refined this conceptualization identifying three phases of concern clusters. The first phase centres on 'survival concerns'. These are concerns about one's adequacy and survival as a teacher, about class control, about being liked by pupils, about supervisors' opinions, about being observed, evaluated, praised, and failed. These are concerns about feelings, and seemed to be evoked by one's status as a student. Fuller believes that pre-service teachers have more concerns of this type than in-service teachers. The second phase is labelled as one of teaching situation concerns which involves concerns about having to work with too many pupils, about time pressure, lack of instructional materials etc. These frustrations are believed to be evoked by the teaching situations and that in-service teachers have more concerns of this type than pre-service teachers. The third stage is identified as one of 'pupil concerns', concerns about recognizing the social and emotional needs of pupils, about the inappropriateness of some curriculum material for certain



pupils, about being fair to pupils, about tailoring content to individual students, etc. Although such concerns cluster together, they are expressed by both pre-service and in-service teachers. This, Fuller & Brown believe, may be because such concerns are associated with characteristics which cut across experience or because in-service teachers feel such concerns more while pre-service teachers express more concern about everything than do in-service teachers.

Fuller & Bown presented the sequence of concerns through describing the dominant concerns of individuals at various stages in the process of becoming a teacher.

(1) Preteaching phase: Fresh from the pupil role, education students who have never taught are concerned about pupils, that is, about themselves. They identify realistically with pupils, but with teachers only in fantasy. They have not experienced the realities of the teaching role. The identification with pupils manifests itself at the beginning of observation, when they are often unsympathetic, even hostile, critics of the classroom teacher whom they are observing.

(2) Early concerns about survival: At first contact with actual teaching, education students' concerns change radically. Their idealized concerns about pupils are replaced by concerns about their own survival as teachers. They are concerned about class control, their mastery of content to be taught, and evaluations by their supervisors. This was described by Fuller & Bown as a

period of great stress.

(3) Teaching situation concerns: Concerns about limitations and frustrations in the teaching situation, about the varied demands made on them to teach, not just survive, are added on to self-survival concerns.

Education students who are teaching now become concerned about methods and materials which were the focus of education courses taken previously.

(4) Concerns about pupils: Pre-service teachers express deep concern about pupils, about their learning, their social and emotional needs, and about relating to pupils as individuals. But they may be unable to act on these concerns. Flooded by feelings of inadequacy, by situational demands and conflicts, they may have to lay aside these concerns until they have learned to cope with more urgent tasks.

Taylor (1975) studied the concerns of students on a postgraduate certificate in education course. Using the results of earlier studies he developed forty items within six different areas. These items were selected for inclusion in a questionnaire which was administered to forty-seven students at the end of their course. Students were asked to rate them on the degree to which they concerned them when they started the course, and on the degree to which they concerned them at the time of introducing the questionnaire, i.e. at the end of the course. The findings showed that the early chief concerns of students



were the practice of teaching and discipline. It should be noted that the early concerns were based on retrospective assessment by student teachers. Therefore, these findings have to be treated with caution. Taylor found these early concerns remained important at the end of the course but were joined by 'late concerns' with 'pupils', 'theory of teaching', and 'curriculum'. These findings, Taylor believes, are consistent with Fuller's findings (1969) i.e. phase two "early teaching phase" and the third phase of late teaching where he dismissed phase one as of dubious value.

Austwick and Carter (1978) modified and replicated Taylor's study. The questionnaire was administered to sixty-five student teachers, representing different subject groupings, at the beginning of the course and again during the third term (i.e. near the end of their course and after completion of all teaching practices). The results seemed to suggest a shift from concern with personal adequacy to concern for pupils and their progress. The conclusion reached was that the results were consistent with those of Taylor's.

Adams (1980) aimed at reconsidering a five factor structure originally obtained from the Teacher Concern Checklist (TCC) (an instrument developed in the early seventies by Parsons and Fuller 1974). He also aimed at exploring the progression of teacher concerns across experience levels to test the self-task-impact concern theory proposed



by Fuller (1975). The Teacher Concerns Checklist (TCC) was administered as part of a battery of instruments to the Teacher Preparation Evaluation Programme (TPEP) participants at Western Kentucky University. Three groups of teachers were identified for the purpose of the study: student teachers; first year teachers, forming the beginning teacher group; and third and fifth year teachers, forming the experienced teacher group. Data were collected from 112 student teachers, 72 first year teachers and 83 third and fifth year teachers. Factor analysis produced sets of items that loaded reasonably highly and consistently on factors which justified constructs generally supporting the self, task and impact concerns theory. When factor analyses were applied separately to experience groups, i.e. student teachers, beginning teachers and experienced teachers, a structure was obtained that supported a division of self concerns into two separate factors for the two less experienced groups. For both student teachers and first year teachers, 'a pupil self concern factor' and 'an adult oriented self concern factor' were found. For the experienced groups of teachers the self concern factor was a combination of items from both adult and pupil concern factors. Adam's explanation of this was that student teachers and first year teachers seem to differentiate between their concerns for respect and affection from pupils and from adults, while more experienced teachers' concerns about these pupil and adult perceptions tend to be treated by them as similar.

With regard to task concerns two constructs were identified from the data. The first dealt with instructional or academic related task concerns and the second construct focused on classroom discipline. It should be observed here that different structures emerged for the different experienced levels with regard to the academic-related task concern factor. The items of the factor characterized by teacher concern for classroom discipline were consistent across experience groups but it was somewhat weaker for the experienced teachers.

As was the case for self and task concerns, two related factors emerged from the data related to the impact concerns. An academic teacher impact concern factor was differentiated from a second factor dealing with teacher concerns for the students' general well being within the school environment. The items of these two factors had reasonable loadings for each experience group. Using analysis of Variance and Scheffer tests, Adams found significant difference between experience groups for both self concern factors, indicating that the least experienced group had greater concern than the more experienced groups. No significant differences were found for the task concern or impact concern variable across the experience groups. Thus, Adams concluded that the progression of task and impact concerns identified by this study did not provide support for Fuller's concern theory.

Adams and others (1981) investigated the relationships



among the Teacher Concerns Checklist (TCC) factors, pointed out above and six sets of variables. These relationships were analysed across grade level, elementary and secondary, as well as experience level students, first, third and fifth year of teaching experience. Zero order Pearson Correlation Coefficients computed between the TCC factors and the following six sets of variables obtained from varying sources.

- a) Demographic Variables
- b) Self report Variables
- c) Classroom Observations by Trained Observers
- d) Pupil Evaluation
- e) Supervisor Rating
- f) Peer Ratings

With regard to the influence of the above variables on teacher self concern, Age was found to be negatively correlated with teacher self concerns, indicating that older teachers tend to have a lower self concern level than younger teachers. Teachers, particularly elementary teachers, who were more authoritarian/dogmatic in their views were also more concerned about how others perceived them as teachers. Elementary teachers who demonstrated more indirect teacher behaviour had higher self concerns, while the opposite findings were observed for secondary teachers. Ratings of teachers by supervisors produced positive correlates with teachers self concern data for elementary teachers, but negatively correlated with the secondary sample self concern level. The Rating of



Teachers by Peers correlated negatively with the adult self concern for inexperienced secondary teachers, but became more positive for experienced teachers.

With regard to the influences on the task concerns, Adams and others found that the Undergraduate Grade Point Averages (GPA) correlate negatively with the discipline task factor for elementary practising teachers while being positively correlated for the secondary sample. Both elementary and secondary teachers who had authoritarian/dogmatic tendencies also had higher concerns on the discipline task concern factor. Only elementary teachers data produced correlates of authoritarian/dogmatism measures with the instructional task concerns. Classroom observation showed that fifth year primary teachers who were more prone to use teacher dominated methods such as lectures and who solicited little student talk had higher levels of concern about instruction and discipline. Secondary teachers who utilized more direct methods of teaching such as directions and corrective feedback and who solicited more student talk in the classroom, have higher concerns about instruction and discipline. Elementary teachers with higher instructional task concerns were viewed more positively by pupils, whereas secondary teachers with high instructional task concerns were rated more negatively by students. Both elementary and secondary teachers with high concerns about discipline were rated lower by their pupils. Teachers with higher task concerns received lower ratings from their supervisors. These correlates

were for the most part observed for fifth year teachers. Teachers with high concerns for instruction are viewed by peers as more effective teachers only after they have experience as teachers. Third year teachers with high discipline concerns were perceived more negatively, while fifth year teachers with high discipline concerns were perceived more positively.

With regard to the variables related to the impact concerns, Adams et al found that teachers with high authoritarian/dogmatism scores tended to have higher impact concerns. Elementary teachers with high concern for pupil impact were characterized by more teacher dominated classroom verbalization and more use of indirect or student-centred behaviour. Secondary teachers who demonstrated indirect or student-centred classroom behaviour indicated less concern about the impact of teaching or educational environment on pupils. Student teachers and first year teachers with high concerns for environmental influences on pupils were perceived more positively by pupils. Fifth year teachers who had high impact concerns were perceived by peers to be more effective teachers.

It should be observed here that Adams and others did not offer any overview to the results and that no illuminating patterns can be seen from such results.

## Overview of the Research Literature

It has been noticed that most of the studies relating to student teachers' attitudes, reported above, seem to demonstrate a general tendency that student teachers' attitudes or opinions change in the direction of increased progressivism or liberalism (Butcher 1965, McIntyre & Morrison 1967, Marsland 1970, Gibson 1972, Lacey 1977). However, a shift in student teachers' attitudes to opposing and more traditional views as they move into student teaching and in-service experience, has also been reported as being commonly accepted within the teacher education community as a result of a plethora of studies related to this area (Zeichner & Tabachnic 1981). In this respect, to take some examples, Gibson (1973, p.257) reported a change towards a more closed conception of the teacher's role as a result of the teaching practice, Mahan and Laceyfield (1978) found that students become increasingly traditional as a result of the teaching practice, Murad (1975) found that due to the student teaching experience, pupil control ideology and attitudes become more conservative. Students also become more custodial and more bureaucratic in orientation as a result of teaching practice (Hoy & Rees 1977). Lacey (1977) has noticed a reverse in the scores on the four attitude scales he used (Liberalism, Naturalism, Radicalism, and Tender-mindedness).



While these common findings seemed to be largely accepted among the teacher education community, some, such as Shipman, as we saw earlier, suspect the impact of teacher education courses upon student teachers' views as a real one (Zeichner & Tabachnic 1981). Others argue that biography as opposed to formal training or teaching experience plays an important role in teacher socialization (Lortie 1975). In this respect several empirical studies supported such an argument by observing stability in attitudes before and after training (Hogben and Petty 1979, Petty and Hogben 1980, Hogben and Lawson 1983).

Another point of view maintains that both school and teacher training inculcate conservative teaching attitudes in that teacher training institutions legitimize the practices of schools (Mardle and Walker 1980).

It can be seen that the studies reporting a change in student teachers' attitudes in the direction of increased liberalism, saw the course as the key determinant of such change. Some of the studies which reported a reverse in such attitudes during the experience of teaching practice or first year teaching, tend to indicate, in general terms, that teaching practice or full-time teaching is responsible for the shift. But some attempted to relate this shift to preconceived determinants. For example, Mahan and Lacefield (1978) found that supervising teachers' values and attitudes exercise a powerful influence upon the attitudes of their student

teachers. Others such as Hoy and Rees (1977) saw the bureaucratic norms of schools as one explanation for the shift, and some others reported in Zeichner and Tabachnic (1981), Copeland (1980), saw the ecology of the classroom as responsible for the shift, McPherson (1972) saw the colleagues as playing a part in the shift, and Spradbery (1976) saw pupils as playing major roles in the reversal of the attitudes formed during training.

While I would not deny the significance of such influences upon aspects of student teachers' thinking or of changes in their thinking, problems experienced and perceived in relation to the college courses, teaching practices and the first year of teaching could play a major part in determining and structuring student teachers' and beginning teachers' views and concerns about teaching. Gibson's (1976) study seems to exemplify how the problems perceived and experienced during teaching practice play an important role in structuring students' perspectives', and Lacey (1977) suggested different coping strategies were employed by student teachers to cope with the problems experienced during teaching practice. This has been further demonstrated by Gibson (1973) who hypothesised that students' attitudes could be influenced by the degree of difficulty they encountered on the practice. He found that there was a significant relationship between difficulty or ease of the classroom situation and the change in students' attitudes. For example, he found that greater perception

of difficulty in school practice was associated with more closed role conceptions after the practice.

Veenman (1984) also pointed out that the more discrepancies the young teachers experienced between school realities and their teaching training ideals, the more their attitudes changed in a conservative direction, and the more they were inclined to use authoritarian behaviour.

It should be pointed out that focusing on student teachers' attitudes and whether or not they have changed in the direction that teacher educators wanted them to change, according to McIntyre (1980, p.303), did not appear to contribute much to the improvement of teacher education programmes. He argues that such questions are not the right ones to ask since it was found that most student teachers change, at least to a limited degree, in ways of which most teacher educators approved; but less satisfying are the fairly consistent findings that once student teachers experience teaching and leave the teacher training institutions, they tend to change to the opposite direction. Although this, he believes, made teacher educators think twice about what they were doing, nevertheless it did not give them much guidance as to how they might change their practices to make them more fruitful because it ignored the perspectives of the student teachers with whom they are concerned.

Studies focusing on 'perspectives' and 'coping strategies'



such as Gibson's (1976) and Lacey's (1970) are important in that they throw light on the experiences and reactions of student teachers. According to McIntyre (1980) teacher educators need to learn about and take realistic account of such experiences and reactions. Otherwise, he believes, teacher education would socialize students into undesirable conceptions of a theory-practice dichotomy and into isolationist roles as teachers.

If how best teacher education can influence and encourage student teachers towards an enthusiastic, committed approach to teaching is one of the questions with which teacher educators are concerned, then a knowledge and an awareness of students' problems as they go through their training and enter the teaching profession is one possible means towards an answer. Thus, in this study I intend to explore the nature of the problems perceived by primary school student teachers and beginning teachers in Yemen in relation to teaching. Knowledge of the problems of student teachers at different stages of their training and in their first year of teaching might provide information for improving pre-service education and helping student teachers and beginning teachers; it would also provide a foundation of empirical knowledge on the basis of which it would be possible to decide which other related research questions might fruitfully be investigated in later studies.

## CHAPTER THREE

### THE INITIAL EXPLORATORY STUDY

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In the previous chapter criticisms were levelled against some previous investigations carried out into the problems of student teachers. One of these criticisms was that these studies took a predetermined set of questions or items (problems) generated from the literature, or from student teachers' supervisors and tutors, and that students were not allowed to express their own problems. To avoid such a weakness, and to probe students' felt problems as deeply as possible, an exploratory study was conducted. It was hoped that this initial study would provide me with guidance on what were the important questions to be asked and how they should be asked.

This initial study aimed at exploring the Yemeni primary school student teachers' and beginning teachers' problems. In order that the student teachers' and beginning teachers' problems that relate to teaching could be reflected as realistically as possible in their responses, this study was conducted within a teaching context rather than a context distanced from practical work. Although this study was carried out within a teaching context, nevertheless, it went beyond that to include any problem the student teachers and beginning teachers perceived as relating to the profession of teaching and their preparation in teacher training institutes.



Due to the great difficulty, if not the impossibility, of exploring the problems of a large sample of student teachers at different stages and in different institutes, this exploratory case study was conducted in one of the primary teacher training institutes. This is an institute for boys and is located in the city of Taiz.

To explore problems experienced at different stages of becoming a teacher, a sample of 12 student teachers and 8 first-year beginning teachers was chosen with six of the student teachers representing second year student teachers and the other six representing third year students. Six of the sample of the beginning teachers represented the graduates of the same institute in the previous year and represented those who were teaching in rural and urban schools, the other two beginning teachers being females graduating from female institutes.

The interviews with student teachers were carried out during the one day a week practice for second year students and during the block teaching practice for the third year students. With beginning teachers the interviews were conducted during the final third of the school academic year.

Having got the permission of the Ministry of Education to conduct the study through a letter directed to the Director of the Ministry Office in the city of Taiz, I was helped in making arrangements by letters from the Ministry Office

to the Director of the Teacher Training Institute and to the head teachers of the different primary schools in which first year teachers were working.

Inside the institute I was introduced to second and third year student teachers during their classes by one of the staff members, as one of the students who is studying education in Britain and had come to the Yemen to collect some information from student teachers and beginning teachers about teachers and teaching in the Yemen. In schools I contacted the beginning teachers through the administration of the school and explained to them the purpose of the study and why I was doing it, the method and the way the information was going to be recorded. When I was introduced to the second and third year student teachers, I told them that only a few of them were needed for the purpose of the study and that they would be selected randomly from the lists of the names of the class. They showed no objection to the idea. On another day those who were selected randomly from 2nd and 3rd year were called and grouped together in an introductory meeting in which I again explained to them who I was and what I intended to do. During this meeting I told them the method by which I was going to collect the data and the manner in which I was going to record their responses, and I asked for their agreement to tape record the interviews. As a result one of the second year student teachers withdrew and was replaced by another one. I gave them the chance to ask any questions regarding the study before the

commencement of the interviews.

It should be made clear that I did not approach the student teachers and beginning teachers as an outsider who was completely ignorant of their culture because I was once a member of the same culture. I have gone through such experience and I had my similar subjective experience of training, in a similar institute and of teaching. I have come from the same cultural background as theirs. Thus, it was not difficult for me to understand them and for them to understand what I said to them. The difficulty lies in identifying and describing their problems in advance.

There is no doubt that the way respondents perceive a researcher affects the kind of information they give. It was thought that student teachers who were at the age of secondary school pupils, might perceive me as one of the tutors, or, in the case of third year student teachers who were at school during teaching practice, as an external examiner to assess them. It was thought that they might fear the consequences of the information they were giving to me, or they might feel that I was there to test their knowledge about teaching. I have tried to minimize such effects first by making it clear from the beginning that I was a student in Britain, studying Education and I came to the Yemen to meet primary school student teachers and beginning teachers in order that they could tell me what teaching is like. I tried to avoid unnecessary contact with their supervisors and external examiners and discussion of educational issues



in their presence. I also made it clear throughout my contact with them that the information they would provide me with would not be within the reach of their tutors and lecturers or external examiners and had nothing to do with their future.

To make the student teachers and the beginning teachers feel at ease and to motivate them to speak and communicate their experiences to me I did everything I could do to get them motivated to tell me the truth. Our interviews usually started with friendly chats e.g. about what they intended to do after graduation, whether they were going to teach in rural or urban schools, whether they were going to continue their study in the University and so on. When it was felt that some students were not at ease to speak about themselves, a reserved strategy was employed to encourage them to speak instead about the experiences of their friends including themselves. I do not believe that they misled me, because misleading might need certain kinds of social skills which they, as very young people, might not possess yet, and because I believe that I convinced them that there was no reason to mislead me.

It was thought that the interview method, particularly one of an informal nature, was a good source of exploratory case study information. Thus, informal interviews were employed for the flexibility they offer in modifying the sequence of questions, changing the wording, explaining the questions, adding to them and probing, etc. For

example, questions needed to be phrased in a manner that suited the different levels of student teachers and certain questions were clarified and some of the relevant information was explored through the use of such methods.

In exploring the student teachers' and beginning teachers' problems, their causes and the ways they thought these problems could be overcome, questions such as the following were asked:

- As student teachers doing teaching practice, how do you find teaching at this stage?
- What does it involve?
- What kind of things do you want to achieve?
- How far are you able to achieve these things?
- What did you want to achieve and could not?

It should be made clear here that the questions asked regarding teaching requirements and objectives and the opinions about teaching were merely instrumental towards finding out more about students' problems.

In a few cases the above questions did not result in any useful information and questions such as the following were asked:

- Are there any problems regarding the class size?
- Are there any problems regarding your relations with pupils?

- Are there any problems related to AVAs?
- Are there any problems related to class discipline etc?

These, together with the above set of questions, resulted in identifying some of the problems experienced by student teachers and beginning teachers which were further investigated to know why they saw them as problems and how they coped with them. To obtain such information several questions were asked such as:

- Why is it a problem?
- What could be done to solve it?
- How could it be solved?
- Who can solve it?
- Do you expect the problem will continue?
- What problems do you expect to face when you become a teacher?

As was mentioned earlier, a reserved strategy was used with a few second-year student teachers who, I felt, were not at ease to talk about themselves. Here students were encouraged to speak instead about their friends. They were asked questions such as the following:

- When you talk with your friends in your class about teaching what do you usually talk about?



- When you hear your friends talk about teaching, what do they talk about?
- What are the things that worry your friends in relation to teaching?
- What are the things your friends find difficult in achieving?
- What are the things they see will be difficult in the future?
- Are there any things your friends are not satisfied with in relation to teaching?

Some of the above questions were followed by a 'Why' question.

Since it is likely that the students' views regarding their problems could be influenced by their teaching practice and the lessons they taught and their observation by supervisors and external examiners, it was thought useful to relate their answers to lessons they taught by asking for incidents which happened to them. It could have been even more reliable to observe the student teachers teaching and to relate our talk to the particular lesson observed, but it was felt that my presence in the class might increase the student's suspicion about my role, in addition to making the class atmosphere artificial. Therefore, I abandoned the idea of going with them into classes.

Problems related to the teacher training programme were also explored through investigating the student teachers' and beginning teachers' views of their course. This was sought through asking questions such as:

- How do you find the course?
- What are the important aspects of the course that you feel to be useful?
- Are there any things you think the course should have told you something about and it did not?
- When you talk to your friends in the class about the course do you complain about the course?
- What do you complain about - Why?
- If your course were going to be changed, how would you like to change it?

We have seen in the previous chapter that different investigators have imposed different concepts to describe the student and beginning teachers' thinking. In this exploratory study the investigator's main concern was to discover and to report the ways in which student teachers and beginning teachers themselves talked about what they experienced as problems. This has been done through extensive quotation of what they had to say. However, some understanding of what was being said, and of what things that were being said were similar or related or quite different, had to be achieved and used in order to

organize and summarize the evidence and also to help in planning the rest of the investigation.

As a member of the culture of student teachers and beginning teachers I had to use my common sense to try to understand the concepts and the assertions made by them, to recognize similarities between these, to adopt their concepts in organizing and reporting what has been said and literally to translate the concepts and assertions for the reader.

It should be emphasized that the investigator's concern at this stage was to accept and use the concepts of the student teachers and beginning teachers and to introduce the reader to such concepts rather than to attempt to examine or dissect these concepts or to tease out the assumptions they depend upon.

The results are reported in terms largely of different areas of concerns about which respondents talked, these areas being conceived in common sense terms which could be recognized by the respondents. It is not claimed, however, that the areas distinguished reflect the ways in which student teachers' and beginning teachers' thinking is organized. In labelling areas of concerns and, within these areas, in reporting the nature of the respondents' expressed problems I have necessarily used concepts derived from the research questions as well as those used by student teachers and beginning teachers.



Occasionally it was found helpful to introduce 'second order concepts' derived from, but more general and abstract than, the concepts of respondents. Such concepts were introduced only in a few cases where they seemed to be helpful in understanding at a basic level what the student teachers and beginning teachers were saying. Wherever this has been done, an attempt has been made to demonstrate the ways in which these second order concepts reflect respondents' thinking. At this stage of the study any theorising about broad patterns of student teachers' and beginning teachers' concerns and problems was totally avoided.

Given that this is a case study of just one institute, with a small number of students and beginning teachers interviewed, it would be dangerous to attach too much importance to the frequency with which particular kinds of problems were mentioned. Nonetheless, an attempt was made to indicate in very broad terms both the prevalence of different expressed problems and any apparent tendencies for these to be concentrated at one stage or another.

### Teaching Requirements

Teaching is viewed by the majority of student teachers (second and third year) and beginning in-service teachers as something which involves 'difficulties', 'confusion' and 'embarrassment'. Therefore, 'intense effort', 'hard work' seem to characterize their responses concerning

teaching requirements. The following quotations illustrate the views of second year student teachers who have been for the first year in practice, and third year who have been for the second year in schools (block teaching).

When one meets pupils, particularly for the first time, of course one is confused. I mean he does not know what method to use and he does not know what teaching aids to use ...

(2nd year)

it is difficult, one ought to make more effort

(3rd year)

it is tiring, it needs patience

(3rd year)

The same thing seems to characterize beginning first-year teachers' views of teaching. Although some of them have expressed loving the profession and the goodness of teaching, this was followed by "but"

teaching is good, but it is tiring, particularly in first-year class

(1st year teacher)

teaching is a very good profession, it is a lovable profession ... but there are some things which disturb this love and sincerity to the teaching profession, particularly in rural areas

(1st year teacher)

As a consequence of experiencing teaching that way during teaching practice, hard work and big efforts have to be made for preparation. Being well prepared and well acquainted with the lesson content were the most frequent things which were mentioned by second and third

year student teachers as teaching requirements. The following responses exemplify such views:

... teaching requires that the teacher should be prepared, I mean he should prepare the lesson before he goes to the class, read the lesson because pupils might ask certain questions and if he is not acquainted with the lesson he cannot answer the pupil's questions...

(2nd year)

... teaching requires being acquainted with the curriculum you are going to teach so that you will avoid the embarrassing situations you will face

(3rd year)

Audio Visual Aids is also one of the requirements mentioned by student teachers and first year teachers, and one on which student teachers, particularly third year students, have to spend a great deal of time and effort. Therefore, it is a prerequisite for teaching, as it appears from student responses:

... finding AVAs is a prerequisite, particularly in lower classes

(2nd year)

... the second thing teaching requires is AVAs, this is very important in teaching

(3rd year)

Beginning first year teachers are concerned with the same requirements as those viewed by second and third year student teachers.

... prepare the lesson beforehand because if the teacher comes and he did not know much about the lesson, the benefit decreases, also the issue of AVAs. The teacher should have AVAs ... preparation is important for inspectors and others ...



Thus it appears that good preparation of lessons and AVAs have not been seen by student teachers and first year teachers as something that could facilitate explaining things to pupils or make it easier for pupils to understand the lessons. Such objectives were not apparent. What appeared was that good preparation and being well-equipped with AVAs is a strategy for avoiding embarrassing situations in the case of second and third year student teachers and would show their competency to inspectors and head teachers in the case of beginning in-service teachers.

As well as preparation of lessons and teaching aids, first year teachers' teaching requirements seem to have expanded to include requirements that are associated with the problems they face in classrooms such as dealing with pupils of different abilities and ages.

... it requires effort, it requires knowing how to deal with pupils, how to impart information to children, there are children who do not understand and there are some who understand quickly ... it requires methods so that they can understand the information.

### Teaching Objectives

Student teachers have certain objectives to be achieved. The objectives of student teachers were sought because the problems they are experiencing as student teachers can not be seen in isolation of what they want to achieve. Student teachers might perceive as problems the things that they feel are preventing, worrying, or difficult when

trying to achieve their goals.

Since my prime concern was to explore their problems as student teachers, I asked them about the things they wanted to achieve. But the question was posed in two ways, in a general way "what do you want to achieve in relation to teaching?" and in a more specific way, "what do you want to achieve in connection with your teaching now?" In answering the general question, student teachers, both second and third year, expressed to some extent, ideal objectives. Both years' students referred to the future in expressing the things they wanted to achieve "when I graduate", "when I become a teacher". The objectives they wanted to achieve in the future tended to differ to some extent, where they have expressed different opinions as their responses show:

... my aim is to develop the school  
and make pupils aware of the country's  
affairs.

(2nd year)

I want to build a good new generation  
for this country.

(2nd year)

... the thing I wish to do in the future,  
if I can, is to encourage and develop  
pupils' inclinations.

(2nd year)

when I become a teacher I want to be  
a good example for my pupils.

(2nd year)

The important thing is that I want  
to benefit the children of my village  
who are in urgent need of a teacher.

(3rd year)

I want to establish and educate a generation in whom all the good values are implanted.

(3rd year)

After graduation I want to spread education, culture and health in society and to put an end to illiteracy.

(3rd year)

Thus, the student teachers' objectives might reflect, to a large extent, the institute's views. But their responses to the specific question "What do you want to achieve in connection with your teaching now?" while they were doing their teaching practice, tended to cluster around a major objective, that is to pass teaching practice. It seems that they have perceived teaching practice as a 'test' which they have to pass rather than as a field experience from which they can acquire professional competence. This perception seems to stem from their assessment by supervisors who observe them and grade them according to what takes place in the classroom. Therefore, the risk of the assessment should be overcome. Student teachers, particularly second year, who go to school for one day a week practice, believe that nothing can be achieved during one lesson. In fact, some reported having no objectives at all at this stage apart from the lesson's objectives. The following are some of their responses:

I do not have any objectives other than the lesson's objectives.

(2nd year)



... here, frankly, I think there is no objective, particularly in one lesson a week.

(2nd year)

Now you can not achieve any objectives because you have only one lesson a week, if you are competent you will keep the pupils quiet and give them the lesson.

(2nd year)

Teaching practice is originally one lesson you go to the class, you have a supervisor and you are not concerned with anything else except your lesson.

(2nd year)

Only two of the second year student teachers seem to have perceived going to schools as a period of learning through which they wanted to acquire some experience and learn from their mistakes:

We wanted to gain experience and know something about pupils so that it will help us in the future.

(2nd year)

We go to school to practice and we are given advice by supervisors so that you do not repeat the mistakes you made.

(2nd year)

The notions of 'passing the exams' and "satisfying supervisors" characterized the objectives expressed by third year students who were on block teaching for one month:

We are now in a period of exams and we want to get a pass grade and pass this stage.

I want the supervisors to be satisfied with the lesson I taught.

At this stage I aspire to graduate and get a good grade in teaching practice.

I want to perform the teaching practice properly and get good grades.

As well as wanting to satisfy the supervisors and pass the exam, one of the student teachers sees teaching practice as a period of learning to overcome embarrassment in the future.

I want to satisfy my supervisors and familiarize myself with methods of teaching and have experience in order to avoid any embarrassing situations afterwards.

For beginning in-service teachers, who spent almost one academic year in teaching, objectives seem to differ from those expressed by pre-service teachers (second and third year of the upper level of teaching training institutes), although the objectives of both seem to reflect what Gibson called the perspectives of 'Safety and Survival'.

Success among pupils is sought by the teacher because she/he feels that this is attributable to her/him. By the end of the year if 90% or more of the pupils are transferred to advanced grade, then the teacher has achieved her/his aim of success. The success sought by the teacher through pupils' success is apparent in one of the first year in-service teachers' comments:

I want to make a success of my teaching, the level of pupils is related to me, if pupils' level is high, I feel that I am a successful teacher.

Some teachers' objectives seem to be purely related to pupils' learning, for example:

The first thing I want is that pupils about to be transferred to the second year should be able, at least, to read and write words.

But even this teacher seems to be concerned about other people's image of her. When she was talking about the problem of large classes she pointed out the possibility that not all pupils will pass and if that happened she would be regarded as responsible for it:

The class has 60 pupils. Suppose that 40 of them will pass, what can I do with the rest who fail? I mean the proportion of success is low; they will say the teacher is responsible...

### Discipline and Class Control

Discipline and class control seem to be one area in which student teachers appear to have less safety. In almost every study of student teachers' concerns, anxieties, dissatisfaction etc., discipline is quoted as one of the student teachers' problems.

In this study, 'Fear', 'Trouble', 'Worrying', are phrases expressed by student teachers in the second and third year to refer to the problems of discipline and class control.

The things that threaten student teachers are those pupils who do not listen to them while they are teaching the class, those pupils who are playing in the class, those 'abnormal disturbing children' who fight all the time with their classmates. Thus, their complaints are about difficulties in maintaining discipline and controlling the class:

... there is one thing that troubles us and that is the abnormal disturbing children, it is difficult to make them quiet ... always they fight with their classmates.

(2nd year)



... class teachers use the cane with pupils. When we come we are not allowed to use it by the Institute, therefore, pupils make disorder.

(3rd year)

For me, teaching is good, although one gets some problems in the class and some trouble from pupils.

(3rd year)

When he was asked about the kind of trouble he gets in the class, he referred to 'trouble makers':

... in the class there are some troublemakers. They got used to trouble making from the first years of their lives ... permanent trouble makers whom we cannot control.

(3rd year)

Disorder in the classroom is a problem for student teachers because they want to give their supervisors a good impression. The student teachers are on a 'test' and a good teacher is judged by his control of the class. Therefore, such a thing is not acceptable to them at this particular time and minimising it is essential.

We were afraid of the disorder in the class because we want to control pupils so that our supervisors get a good impression of us.

(2nd year)

Discipline problems can prevent pupils from understanding the lessons student teachers teach. Supervisors come and question pupils to find out the extent to which the student teacher is able to explain and impart information to pupils. Therefore, if pupils are misbehaving, not paying attention, playing in the class, then it worries the student teacher.

This of course worries the teacher when he spends time and energy and does not get any return...

(2nd year)

Student teachers try to withdraw themselves from such problems by putting the blame on others. Some blame the teacher, some blame the pupils, and some blame the school system. Those who blame the class teacher blame him for the lack of co-operation because pupils make fun of them because their teachers did not tell them about the teaching practice:

Pupils are sarcastic, maybe because their teachers did not tell them ... the teacher and the headteacher should make arrangements for teaching practice because pupils do not know.

(3rd year)

They blame the class teacher for the lack of co-ordination which they think is the cause of the trouble:

When I arrived the teacher had taught these lessons three or four times. When I taught these lessons to pupils they were disorderly, I could not teach these lessons.

(2nd year)

The class teacher is also blamed for the ways he deals with pupils which the student teachers believe have caused the misbehaviour. The following quotations illustrate this blame:

Class teachers use the cane with pupils. When we do teaching practice we are not allowed to use it by the Institute, therefore, pupils are disorderly.

(3rd year)

... when we arrive pupils trouble us very much. The trouble is due to the teacher who deals with pupils by hitting (caning) and when we come and try to make order in the class using flexible ways we do not find any benefit.

The problem is also attributed to the kind of teacher, i.e. to the nationality of the teacher, his approach and his reverence and respect and to the way pupils perceive this teacher, as one of the third year students believes that it "... may be that pupils do not know how to understand the Yemeni teacher because they are used to an Egyptian teacher who might have a different approach... he has reverence and respect and pupils think that since he is a foreigner he must have more knowledge, and this is a Yemeni, I have not seen Yemeni teachers teaching me...".

Attributing the discipline problems to pupils is apparent from some of the student teachers' responses:

... permanent troublemakers - we cannot control them...

(3rd year)

... abnormal disturbing children, difficult to make them quiet...

(2nd year)

The school system was also blamed for the discipline problems, as one third year student teacher thought "it might be the school policy to group the misbehaving pupils in one class and the good pupils in another..."

It might be worth noting that some were not sure whether



to attribute the discipline problems to the class teacher or to themselves:

... the disorder is because their teacher gives them the chance to misbehave, or maybe it comes from the student teacher who is just practising.

(3rd year)

The student teachers did not find the 'flexible' approaches they adopted to deal with discipline problems effective.

...when we come and try to make order in the class using flexible ways, we do not find benefit.

(3rd year)

As a consequence, the majority of both second and third year student teachers seem to have resorted to using approaches other than those recommended by their supervisors:

... of course our supervisors tell us not to use the cane but how can we teach the lesson if we do not have the cane? If we did not cane one they would not sit quiet.

(3rd year)

Caning one of the pupils seems to be inevitable and common among student teachers as a warning for the rest so that they can start the lesson and before the supervisor comes in, because they cannot use it in his presence:

by the end we are forced to cane one of the pupils to cure the rest so that we can start explaining the lesson. If we did not we could not explain the lesson at all.

(3rd year)

You cannot use anything to stop the disorder except the cane, particularly if you come for one lesson, you cannot use anything except the cane. We use the cane.

(2nd year)

It should be pointed out that student teachers, with whom reserved strategy was employed, have expressed similar approaches when they are talking about their friends' problems. Here is an example of one of the second year students:

... there are some who could not control the pupils completely. Therefore, they resorted to using the cane.

It has also been revealed that student teachers discuss among themselves, particularly second year, approaches which might enable them to control classes.

We talk about questions you are going to ask in order to prevent disorder and how to control them completely so that they will listen to the lesson.

(2nd year)

Some student teachers seem to be optimistic about discipline problems in the future. They predict that when they become teachers the discipline problems will disappear.

When you become a teacher you will be with them all the year. The pupils will know what makes you angry and you will know the same thing. You will be able to solve this problem.

For the majority of beginning in-service teachers discipline problems do not seem to be critical. This is probably because the majority of them have been teaching lower classes such as first year. In fact the majority of those with whom the interviews were carried out were teaching in primary first year.

Some referred to the disorder in their class, but as a consequence of the large size of the class, differences in

pupils' abilities and ages. When one of the teachers was speaking about the difference in ages of pupils in her class she pointed out the disturbance caused by small children who are not of school age yet.

...they trouble the teacher. They always make disturbance and noise, they can not sit quiet like the older child. If you tell him to sit quiet, he can not.

Large classes comprise different abilities. Some of the pupils understand the lesson quickly, some others do not. Therefore, the teacher has to explain again for those who do not understand. Those who understand quickly are the source of the problem because they get bored listening again to the lesson:

... the pupils who understand the lesson get bored and make disorder when you repeat the lesson. Therefore the teacher does not succeed in his lesson.

The teacher commented that "... if classes were smaller, it would be possible to make those who understand quiet".

### Teaching Aids

As we have seen earlier, student teachers and beginning first year teachers stated that teaching aids are a necessary requirement of teaching. Student teachers are facing some difficulties in relation to producing such aids. These difficulties have been expressed more strongly by third year student teachers, who were on block teaching for one month during which they were being assessed by supervisors and external examiners.



Frankly, we find difficulty in preparing AVAs.

(3rd year)

Third year student teachers find difficulty because they do not have enough time. Each student has to teach at least three lessons a day for six days a week for four successive weeks. Therefore, much of their time is spent on preparing lessons and designing AVAs. Thus, part of their problem lies in the difficulty of allocating some of their time to designing and preparing AVAs.

... we are still students, we do not have enough time to prepare AVAs.

(3rd year)

They feel that the time spent and the effort made were at the expense of their study, particularly since the block teaching was too close to the exam time:

... preparing AVAs needs much time and effort, we cannot study these days because of the preparations.

(3rd year)

As well as the feeling that producing AVAs is time-consuming, the problem seems also to stem from the inability to invent AVAs for the content of the lesson, i.e. what AVA can best represent the content of the lesson and explain it?

We are beginners, we can not get AVAs easily. Therefore we are forced to spend time and face difficulty and ask people.

Such difficulty is being faced by third year student teachers because, as it appears from their responses, the teacher training institute was not prepared to provide them with ready-made teaching aids or even the materials.

... we tell them to give us AVAs.  
 They say that they are not prepared  
 to do so because this is an exam and  
 each one should show his ability and  
 efforts.

(3rd year)

Since, as we saw earlier, the student teachers' prime objective, particularly third year students, is to pass this stage and get good grades, and since bringing an AVA to the class is one of the things that satisfy the supervisors and examiners, therefore, they were forced to buy the materials from their own money. This has been made clear in the following statement:

... we are forced to buy AVAs for  
 the sake of grades.

(3rd year)

One other thing with which third year student teachers are not satisfied in relation to AVAs is the quality of the things they produce. They feel that the quality of the AVAs they make is not good.

... if there were an AVAs department,  
 the quality of the AVAs would be better...

(3rd year)

One very clear piece of evidence of being so preoccupied with AVAs at this stage for the sake of survival is expressed by one of the third year student teachers who seemed to have been secure because he fulfilled all that was expected of him by the supervisors and external examiners. When he was asked about the extent to which he could achieve his aims, his reply was:

I could get high grades, the examiners  
 gave me high grades, I was able to do  
 the teaching practice because I could

quieten the pupils, make them understand and attract their attention. I did the lesson plan well in a well-organized notebook, also every day that I teach I bring AVAs so that I can make pupils understand...

He then commented:

... by these means I got high grades.

Although second year student teachers referred to AVAs as one of the teaching requirements, as we have seen earlier, the majority did not overtly express difficulties related to that. Only one of the second year student teachers has expressed fear of going to the class without AVAs because he might not be understood by pupils.

Secondly, to overcome the discipline problems:

...whenever I go to school I go with AVAs because with the AVA the pupil understands and concentrates, but if there are not AVAs, the pupil talks with his classmate.

(2nd year)

It was only through the reserved strategy, when some second year student teachers were encouraged to talk about the things they discuss with their friends when they talk about teaching, that AVAs were referred to as being one of the things they talk about.

We talk first of all about what kind of teaching aids you are going to prepare, what references you will refer to in order to prepare the lesson, how do you face pupils...

(2nd year)

Such a statement does not tell us about whether they faced difficulties in relation to producing AVAs or not. One reason for not expressing difficulties by



second year student teachers could be the number of lessons they have to teach. At this stage student teachers go to school one day a week and each one teaches one lesson a week, sometimes one lesson in two weeks. Thus, having plenty of time for preparation might be one of the factors that reduces student teachers' problems of preparation. Another factor, which might contribute more to reducing the problem is the support student teachers apparently get at this stage from the Institute. One student teacher reported that support is provided by a teaching aids teacher in the Institute:

... we have a Sudanese teacher in the Institute. We tell him what AVAs we want. We come the next day and find them ready.

(2nd year)

Among the things that first year teachers find troubling is the lack of AVAs in primary schools, both in urban and rural areas. For instance, one of the teachers who is working in an urban school referred to the absence of AVAs as one of the things that reduce the outcomes of his efforts. He referred to this when he was talking about the extent to which he could achieve what he wants:

... there are certain things which lessen the outcomes of the efforts made.

When requested to give examples of such things, AVAs were at the top of the list:

For example, some of the AVAs for some lessons can not be made by the teacher and they do not exist inside the school...

A rural school first-year teacher has referred to the lack of AVAs as one of the things that spoil his love of and sincerity to the teaching profession.

Teaching is a very good profession.  
It is a loveable profession...  
but there are some things which disturb  
this love and sincerity to the teaching  
profession, particularly in rural areas  
and that is the non-existence of AVAs.

First year teachers, in both rural and urban schools, feel this way because of the difficulty of making pupils understand the lessons they teach. They believe that being equipped with AVAs might help in making pupils understand. Therefore, the lack of AVAs was clearly referred to as one of the reasons for this difficulty.

... because there are too many pupils  
and because of the absence of AVAs, they  
do not understand the lesson properly...

Another teacher has referred to himself as being put in a difficult situation because of the absence of AVAs.

... this thing puts the teacher in a  
difficult situation in trying to impart  
information to pupils...

Thus, it is the lack of AVAs that is considered a problem for first year teachers where they feel that AVAs are necessary to facilitate explanation and to make pupils understand the lesson easily.

... if there is an AVA, the child  
understands quickly and pays attention  
because there is something in front of  
him.

The problem for them is not the preparation, as it was observed in the case of third year students. Because

these things are not available and since they are no longer being assessed by supervisors, or examiners, they do not feel obliged to prepare or buy such things as third year students do.

... we do not make any, we have never made any.

Thus, although it is felt that AVAs are important aids in teaching, they rarely use AVAs. This was even remarked upon by some of the third year student teachers:

... through our visits we found that the teacher hardly uses AVAs.

(3rd year)

In explaining why they do not make AVAs, teachers referred to time, cost and number of lessons they have to teach. First, teachers feel that preparing AVAs is time-consuming and they do not have enough time to do it.

... the teacher does not have time to prepare the lesson and the AVAs.

Secondly, the number of lessons that needed AVAs is great and buying materials cost the teacher too much money because the school administration is not prepared to provide such materials.

... if the teacher said he was going to make AVAs it was at his own expense. This cost much money and there are too many lessons.

The unavailability of AVAs has been attributed by first year teachers to the lack of co-operation by the school administration and the education office. For instance, one teacher has pointed out the lack of response by the



administration in her school where she and her friends (institute graduates and beginning first year teachers) voluntarily offered to provide materials so that the school administration could find a way of making AVAs. Their offer was rejected:

... we told the school at the beginning of the year that we would bring the materials and they could make them. They refused.

Other teachers blamed the school for not providing the materials which could assist them in preparing the AVAs.

... if the materials etc. were available the teacher would then prepare the AVAs.

Thus, the school administration and the education office are regarded as responsible for the unavailability of resources.

... the education office and the head-teacher are supposed to help...

... there should be an AVA section inside the school which can make AVAs for lessons and then teachers can exchange them.

Therefore, co-operation by the school administration and education office is seen to be essential by first year teachers in order to facilitate the performance of their tasks. The following response illustrates this view:

... co-operation between the education office and the headteacher on one hand and the teacher on the other, is necessary to make available the AVAs so that the teacher can carry out his message.

In trying to overcome the problem of lack of AVAs, first year teachers use different methods. Repeating explanations, giving examples from the environment, making use of the pictures in textbooks are all ways being used by teachers to compensate for the lack of AVAs, as their responses indicate:

... we try to explain to pupils several times. I repeat and repeat.

... sometimes with some lessons I refer to examples from the environment or by repeating the lesson.

I utilize the textbooks' pictures and give them examples when I try to make them understand the information.

#### Unqualified Headteachers

Student teachers in second year of training did not seem to experience any problem with regard to school administration, neither at the present nor in the future after graduation. Only a few third year student teachers, in fact two of them who were about to graduate, pointed out possibilities of 'hindrance' and 'restrictions' by headteachers when they become teachers.

When I am in charge of a class and I want to carry out certain activities they will restrict me...

In rural school areas there is hindrance to the educational process in general...

These third year student teachers seem to be critical of the way education is carried out in primary schools and they seem to have intentions and motives to make changes

and introduce new things, as the following responses demonstrate:

... the institute graduate will find the way education is carried out is old. It depends totally on memorization and dictation. When he starts the work he has motives of innovating, but these motives will be killed where they will launch a campaign against him in order that he is not outstanding among them, particularly those who have equivalents (non-formal certificates). They are not qualified educationally...

We can not apply modern ways in the primary school. The reason is the lack of facilities and lack of knowledge by headteachers. If the headteacher has no connection with the teacher training institute and if he has no experience of preparation of AVAs and activities, then he wants class, pupils and lesson. He does not know such activities...

Thus, as the above quotations imply, these third year student teachers seem to feel that their motives and their intentions to introduce new things (applying modern ways) will be made difficult for them. To use the student teachers' words, these motives will be 'killed' and 'restricted' by the inadequate administration. This is further explained by the following statements of these student teachers:

... when the head teacher sees that you have motives for teaching and innovation and using AVAs, he stands as a stumbling block.

... but the head teacher says teaching is most important. They regard the activity as something not related to teaching.



One of these students referred to an example of how the headteacher in his area opposed one of the institute graduates who wanted to work in his school:

... to the extent that opposition takes place even during your appointment and this has happened.

The majority of beginning teachers with whom interviews were conducted, particularly in rural schools, seem to have complaints about unqualified headteachers. The following are some of these complaints:

... the majority of headteachers, particularly in rural areas, are not qualified for administration. The problem is that you have to face him, particularly if the teacher is a Yemeni and sincere to his country.

... the headteacher in rural areas does not have qualifications, he has not been originally qualified as a teacher...

... the big mistake is that they appoint a headteacher who is not well qualified. She is supposed to have qualifications and experience better than the teachers but wrong conduct occurs from her in front of the pupils...

An example of wrong conduct was quoted by the teacher:

e.g. some of my colleagues and I used to take our classes out, two classes together, to play. The headteacher came and was angry with my colleagues and had a bad manner in front of the pupils. Then the pupils gathered around the teachers and said 'look, the headteacher shouted at the teacher!'

One of the commonly expressed complaints by rural school beginning teachers of headteachers is the low level of pupils in their classes, because these pupils were said

to have been transferred by headteachers without a formal exam. This conduct by headteachers was thought to be a result of their inadequacy.

... if the pupil comes to him and he knows how to read and write, he (the headteacher) straight away transfers him to any year which he does not deserve. He, (the headteacher) does not look at the pupil's level in general...

... you find a pupil in the third or fourth year but his level does not equal first year regarding his knowledge. So he does not do well and the reason is the school administration in the first place.

This might be a consequence of another common phenomenon that has been mentioned by rural school beginning teachers, and that is the selling of certificates to pupils by headteachers. Here are some examples which were pointed out by the rural primary school beginning teachers with whom interviews were conducted:

You find the administration gives the pupil a certificate and he does not deserve that certificate - where the certificate is sold for money...

... e.g. selling certificates. A pupil cannot read or write and he (the headteacher) sells him a certificate and transfers him to sixth year...

We have seen elsewhere that rural school beginning teachers in particular have experienced certain problems related to mixed ability classes. They blamed the headteachers for that - where they believe that part of the difficulties

faced in teaching pupils of low ability is due to transferring pupils by headteachers when these pupils cannot read or write. One of these rural beginning teachers feels that such pupils are a heavy burden being imposed on him by the headteacher.

... he (the headteacher) imposes him (the pupil) on the primary school teacher who has to deal with the problem of this pupil who cannot read or write or dictate...

What makes this worse is that the headteacher regards the teacher as responsible for the academic problems of such pupils, as this rural school beginning teacher has commented:

... by the end, the headteacher blames the teacher. Why didn't he (the pupil) understand? Why didn't he benefit from the lesson?

When discussing problems related to teaching aids, lack of co-operation by headteachers has been pointed out by beginning teachers. They also pointed out instances where headteachers' neglect and inadequacies were seen as preventing the beginning teachers from achieving certain things. Here are some examples:

... there is not continuous direction by the administration to the teacher, who is not competent in teaching and imparting information to pupils...

... we want to carry out activities which will develop the school educational and cultural standard but if you co-ordinate with the head teacher to make available the materials required, he does not bother.

It has been pointed out earlier that beginning teachers



referred to headteachers as being educationally unqualified for administration and lacking in experience. Therefore, one of the rural school beginning teachers described headteachers as having no educational aims and not acting according to a proper and sound educational system.

... some headteachers do not have higher certificates or teacher training institute certificate. Therefore, they do not have educational aims nor have they any educational system inside the school.

Another rural school teacher described the headteacher as being a hindrance to the educational process.

... the headteacher is the first representative. If he is in this state - dull - of course he is an obstacle to the educational process...

Two of the beginning teachers who expressed problems related to unqualified headteachers proposed two different ways of resolving these problems. One has suggested that education officials should offer in-service training programmes for those unqualified headteachers in primary school administration.

... in our opinion they cannot be expelled from schools, but they (officials) can provide them with in-service training on how to administer primary school, what their duties are and so on...

The other solution, which seems to be a long-term one, is to recruit more student teachers into teacher training institutes so that they can fill the gap in the future.

They should encourage people to join teacher training institutes so that they can take on the administration of these schools in the future...

### Curriculum Inappropriateness

When discussing the beginning teachers' objectives, we have seen that some of their objectives are related to pupils' learning and success. One of the problems that these teachers are facing in achieving such objectives is related to the curriculum they teach. The problem was expressed in terms of curriculum unsuitability to pupils' standards where the content and subjects cannot be comprehended by pupils.

The majority of beginning teachers, particularly those who teach first year classes, seem to share the same problems where they talked about this issue. For example, they specified first year primary science as being inappropriate. The following responses are from first year primary teachers to questions such as "what prevents you from achieving your objectives?" or "is there any difficulty which you face in connection with your teaching?"

... the curriculum is above pupils' standards. For example, science. In science, the syllabus includes topics such as going to the moon, stars, gravitation. Can first year pupils know anything about the moon? How can I explain this to them. It is wrong - I explain gravitation and pupils do not know what I am talking about. In first year they do not think.

... also the curriculum, such as science. There is the fifth unit - we explain - the pupil does not understand ... to give him what is in the textbook, he does not know.

Sometimes there are lessons in the curriculum which are above the pupils' standards. We explain, explain, explain and at the end they do not understand anything, e.g. lessons about the moon, space, the child's mind is confused.

One of these beginning teachers has pointed out another example that relates to curriculum inappropriateness:

Also, the arithmetic, the division and multiplication - pupils do not understand...

The other problem which was expressed by first year beginning teachers is the density of the curriculum, i.e. the density of the syllabuses and the similarity of topics. Reading textbooks was referred to in particular:

We have two reading textbooks, both of them are thick and they say the same thing.

They have two reading textbooks. If they were different it would be OK, but they read the same, with a slight change in the titles. The exercises are the same and they are thick textbooks.

Because of the density of the syllabus, beginning teachers feel that they do not have enough time to go over it if the topics are to be taught properly and comprehended well by pupils. This is made even more difficult by the Inspectorate's requirements where teachers are required, in most cases, to teach textbooks from cover to cover regardless of whether pupils have a mastery of the content



or not. Such discontent about this requirement and about the unavailability of time is made clear by the following two statements of two beginning teachers of a first year class:

... I have to go over the whole syllabus irrespective of whether pupils understand or not. The important thing for them in the education office is to finish the curriculum. For those who do not understand we do not have enough time, by this there is injustice to pupils.

... the curriculum is heavy and when I teach them a lesson e.g. pupils have to read a lesson. This lasts for one lesson. Writing it lasts also for another lesson. Some of them write twice to improve their writing. This is at the expense of the other subjects, when can we teach the other subjects?

To resolve the problem of unsuitability of the curriculum so as to suit pupils' standard, simplicity and usefulness were explicitly referred to by one of the beginning teachers who expressed such a problem:

... when it is simple and short, we will have time for revision and we will even try to make them understand one by one.

... e.g. the last part of the science textbook is about stars. Why don't they omit this and give something else beneficial to pupils at this stage, e.g. cleanliness...

The rest of these teachers who expressed problems of curriculum unsuitability to pupils' standards believed that the parts of the syllabus which caused the difficulty should not be taught to pupils. Because these teachers

were in the same school they have decided, collectively, not to teach the difficult parts. This was expressed by one of them.

... we said that we were not going to teach it...

To resolve the problem of density of the syllabus and similarity of content, beginning teachers who expressed this problem suggested that the curriculum should be condensed:

... why do they not decide on one textbook and leave the other ... so that we would have time to revise and go over all the exercises...?

... if the first book is different from the second it is OK, but two books - each one is very thick. If they make one ...

Problems expressed by beginning teachers who were teaching primary third year seem to differ from those expressed by first year class teachers. While first year class teachers expressed problems related to curriculum inappropriateness for pupils, third year class teachers expressed problems related to curriculum inappropriateness regarding themselves and their pupils. The problem for them was the unfamiliarity of the content they had to teach and the lack of clarity of the content the textbooks present.

There are some textbooks such as science textbooks for third year - there is a kind of confusion. It is difficult even for the teacher to teach it.

... the thing that is tiring is in the science side, there are things, perhaps the teacher does not know them, he does not know about sea animals, their shape how they cover their bodies and so on. He will not be of any help in the lesson he gives.

What 'confuses' and 'tires' these beginning teachers appears to be the way the textbooks were written, because they could not get full information in the textbooks in order to explain it, in turn, to the pupils.

The writing of textbooks is incomplete. It does not discuss the lesson fully, it gives you the title, e.g. 'The Turtle' and gives you questions - where does it live, and how does it cover its body? So if there is no explanation in the textbook, if there is not an AVA for a turtle, or a reference to which the teacher can refer, he can not give this lesson to the pupils.

... each lesson should have illustrations. There are pictures of some birds I do not know. I cannot find their names on the page so where can I get this information from?

This might be due to the unfamiliarity of these beginning teachers with the curriculum of the primary school. Although they have studied it while they were pupils at primary school, they feel that they either did not study it properly or the content has changed since then:

It is supposed that one should know beforehand. It is correct that he might have studied this but he might have learned it in a weak form, if he teaches it in this way it is a loss.



Because the student is busy with the preparatory and secondary curriculum (he is referring to the curriculum studied in teacher training institutes) and when he graduates he suddenly comes to lessons which he used to think were easy, but he finds them difficult. This is sometimes because the curriculum of primary school has changed, it is different from what he has studied...

When these beginning teachers were asked about how they can overcome these difficulties at present, different sources were mentioned which might be consulted:

If the teachers want to overcome this problem, they have to ask those who have experience or perhaps people who live near the sea (he was talking about the unfamiliarity with sea animals) or more educated people, or search for references on the same topic.

... if the teacher does not feel embarrassed he will ask teachers who are more able than him. For example, if these birds exist in Egypt he will ask Egyptian teachers, but the teacher is afraid that it should be said he has not got complete information. So he does not perform his role properly.

The fear for one of these beginning teachers, who was working in a rural primary school, seems to be the absence of those sources which he might refer to when needed regarding the content of the curriculum.

... there are some people who go to their regions and there are not any competent teachers with him and he might be weak. So who is going to tell him so that he can teach the pupils...?

## Size and Composition of Classes

### (a) Class Size:

Classes of big numbers is one problem area for a small proportion of student teachers in both second and third year of training. A few student teachers in both second and third year referred to the numbers in classes they have been to during teaching practice. The following are second year student teachers' statements:

I found very disturbing classes. I found very large classrooms. There is in it only thirty chairs, the rest of the pupils are sitting on the floor...

... we have, for example, ninety pupils. Some sit in windows. Even if you quieten them and give them a lesson, it is obvious that the class is disturbed totally because of the overcrowding.

Both of these second year student teachers referred to the difficulties of coping with the demands of dealing with classes of big numbers in terms of efforts being made and the disorder which is believed to be caused by the large number of pupils:

What worries me is the large number of pupils in the class. I am afraid if the pupil at the back of the class cannot hear me he remains talking. This is one point. The other is I cannot shout because I disturb those who are in front so the pupil begins talking with his mates...

A big class needs a big voice. Pupils nearer to me are disturbed by my voice and those who are far from me cannot hear me properly.



What makes this problem worse for those second year student teachers is that the efforts made are believed to be futile:

... it needs big efforts and the big efforts will not lead to any results for pupils...

... even if the teacher explains well, because of the big numbers they will not understand because each one talks with the other...

Again, only two of the third year student teachers who were on block teaching seemed to have experienced some difficulties related to a big number of pupils. One of these students referred to big classes as being an obstacle to pupils' understanding of lessons.

... some pupils do not understand the lesson because of the big number of pupils...

His further comment also implies pupils' attention can not be drawn in classes of big numbers:

... when you try to make those in front understand, those who are behind do not understand and when you explain or present an AVA, those who are behind play and do not care.

The other third year student teacher has referred also to the difficulty of controlling classes of big numbers and the difficulty of imparting information to pupils:

... in order that the teacher can control the class and impart information to pupils, in my opinion the class should be 20, 25 pupils...



Such a suggestion seems to be the result of the experiences the student teacher had during teaching practice where he told me a story in which he compared two classes he has been to in terms of control. Here is the story:

I went to two classes, the class which I am teaching now and another class the supervisor took me to yesterday. In this class (to which he was taken) there were around 25 pupils. The 25 pupils - one can try to control them by his personality, or by the information he has got. From the first lesson till the end of the third lesson I controlled them and I did not feel tired. But the class in which I am now, it takes you so long to start giving the lesson because you spend a lot of time shouting to quieten them...

It is perhaps worthy of noting that the majority of student teachers in both second and third year did not mention problems related to the number of pupils. This could be partly as I observed during my visits to primary schools because some of the student teachers in the sample were allocated to two schools in the city. These schools are called 'Model Schools' because they were newly built and the number of pupils in classes does not usually exceed 40 which is regarded as a small number compared to the rest of the schools in the city.

For the majority of beginning teachers the number of pupils in the primary school seemed to represent a problem area. I have pointed out earlier that beginning in-service teachers have identified requirements of teaching which reflect their concerns about problems encountered in the classroom. Dealing with classes that comprise a large number of pupils

with different abilities and different ages is one such problematic thing which they see to be required. This was common among the majority of beginning teachers, particularly by those who were teaching primary first year classes. A clear example which might represent beginning first year class teachers was given by one of the teachers when she was talking about teaching requirements:

First of all dealing with pupils. I have 64 pupils in my class, some of them are clever, some of them are weak, some of them are five years old. Teaching requires me to consider these things...

There seems to be agreement among the majority of beginning teachers, particularly first year class teachers, regarding the large number of pupils as being one of the things that prevents them from achieving their aims and causing certain difficulties.

When talking about the things that prevent them from achieving their objectives they stated:

First of all, the class, in the class I have 64 pupils. This is the first difficulty I am facing, the number of pupils in the class, and then they differ from each other: they are not at the same age...

The number of pupils is high... the teacher cannot impart the information he wants and achieve the same level for all pupils because there are differences in intelligence...

Another first year teacher, when asked about the extent to which she could achieve her objectives, said:



I achieved something, not much ...  
 if the number of pupils is small we  
 would know how to achieve. Too  
 many pupils - fifty, sixty, who can  
 you follow, we do our best.

When she was talking about the difficulties she faces  
 in teaching, she also mentioned the number of pupils  
 as an obstacle to pupils' understanding of lessons as  
 well as the efforts she has to make:

... when I explain, of course there are  
 too many. One is there, one is distracted.  
 My efforts are disrupted, I go and speak  
 to this one or quieten that one; if the  
 number of the class were small I should  
 rest and they would rest as well, but  
 when there are more than seventy they  
 can not understand, no matter how much  
 you explain.

When another beginning teacher was talking about discipline  
 and class control problems, he quoted the big number of  
 pupils as a source of disorder in the classroom:

if the number of pupils was small  
 you can make this pupil who understands  
 the lesson be quiet, but when they are  
 too many he must do something...

Thus, from the above quotations one can recognize the main  
 difficulty encountered by beginning teachers. It seems  
 that beginning teachers, particularly those who teach  
 first year primary classes find difficulty in making pupils  
 understand.

#### (b) Mixed Abilities

It should be observed at the outset that mixed ability  
 classes seemed to represent one area of concern to first-



year beginning teachers only. In fact none of the student teachers, neither in the second nor in the third year, referred to mixed ability teaching as one of their problems.

In the previous section, when talking about class size, we saw that some urban schools beginning teachers have referred to different abilities in large classes as one of the difficulties they were experiencing. For rural school beginning teachers teaching mixed ability classes seems to represent a major concern. They have referred to it as a problem independently. Therefore, this section will be dealing with rural school beginning teachers only.

When speaking of the things that prevented him from achieving his objectives in connection with his teaching, one rural school beginning teacher, who was teaching a third year primary class, tended to classify his pupils in terms of ability.

... of course pupils are three groups. You can say they are divided into three sections - of course the excellent section which is the most restful section, the middle section and the section of dulls.

When another rural school beginning teacher was speaking of the difficulties he was facing in connection with teaching he referred also to the difficulty of teaching classes of different abilities:

... you repeat the lesson till the first class, the class of excellents, gets bored and the middle class understand and the final class - you cannot impart information into their minds...

Thus, the problem of these beginning teachers seems to be the third section, i.e. pupils of low ability which was described by one of the teachers as 'dead' and with whom the teacher seems to be looking for ways of making them understand.

... it cannot be that this dead section stays dead till the end, but how can one take his hand if he is in the third or fourth year and he cannot write one of the letters?...

Another teacher seemed to suggest that no outcomes can be obtained with some of the pupils, because pupils of low ability were created as such:

There are some who are originally the creation of God on earth. You cannot make them understand the lesson...

This 'third section' is a problem for beginning in-service rural school teachers because it lessens the attention that can be given to those in the 'excellent section'. Teaching mixed ability classes is also believed to make more able pupils lose interest and return to disorder in the class. The following comments are both from rural school beginning teachers:

... it is not possible to take this dead section with the excellent section because this might decrease the importance of the excellent ones. This excellent pupil must have more encouragement, according to his mentality.

... the problem is when there is one pupil who understands and one who does not. The pupil who understands gets bored and makes disorder when you repeat the lesson.



Such problems are believed by these rural school beginning teachers to be a consequence of inadequate administration of the schools where pupils are transferred to higher classes without accurate inspection of their levels. This will be explored further under a different heading elsewhere in this report.

(c) Mixed Ages

Big classes comprise different ages. This was a major concern of teachers who teach first year primary classes. Because primary education is not compulsory, parents tend to send their children at different ages although officially pupils are supposed to be sent to school at the age of six when primary schooling starts. Therefore, ages can be expected to range between five to fifteen in the first year of primary school. This is what seems to tire the beginning teachers when trying to cope with a big class which comprises different ages and abilities. As well as the quotations presented, when talking about class size, the following statements explain this quite clearly:

... there are pupils at the age of thirteen, fourteen, eleven, twelve, even fifteen. It is supposed that pupils enter the first year at the age of six, seven, as a maximum, but not older children. With smaller children, this, as well as their number, is tiring...

... there are very small children, four and five, what can they understand? And for how long can they concentrate? When I explain the lesson, the child cannot concentrate ... there are some children



who cannot speak or pronounce. What can I do for them? Leave them there...?

I find difficulty in dealing with small children. I mean it is very difficult to make them understand the lesson because it is not at their standard...

... we find small children, those who are older than them understand. We make big efforts...

From the above quotations one can notice that beginning teachers, particularly first year classes teachers, are experiencing difficulties in teaching smaller children, partly, as the quotations suggest, because the curriculum is above their level. This is explored elsewhere under a different heading.

(d) Problems arising from teaching big classes with Mixed Ages and Mixed Abilities

Some of the problems arising from teaching big numbers with mixed abilities or mixed ages have been pointed out above. The difficulty of teaching such classes seems to lie in its requirements where beginning in-service teachers seem to find it difficult to adapt to these demands. The following responses were expressed when they were talking about how they deal with the problem:

I have to explain to the clever ones and I have to explain to the weak pupils and to those in the middle. I mean it requires big efforts in the class as well as at home.

... some understand quickly, for some it is difficult to understand. I am forced to make the lesson last for three periods instead of one period. I take them one by one and try to make them understand. It demands time. There are a small proportion who understand quickly and those are the ones who receive care at home.

... there are some children who do not understand easily and there are children who understand quickly. It needs methods in order to impart information to their minds. I try and try, I get tired with no benefit to some at all.

Disadvantages of teaching classes of big numbers with different ages and abilities were expressed by the majority of beginning teachers, teachers of first year classes in particular. It is believed that children of pre-school age reduce the benefit other older children get from school and that the interest and motivation of the older and more able pupil are lessened by the presence of younger and less able pupils:

Parents say they want their children to get used to the school environment. That is OK, but the rest who are of school age or older do not find any benefit because of getting too many pupils in the class without real benefit...

... the older child feels he is put back beside the small one. His ability might be weakened.

... it causes discomfort to the older pupil because of repetition. Even they object to repeating the explanation.

... I explain word by word, letter by letter. The clever child gets bored of the simplicity and frequency of explanation.



Reducing the number of pupils in classes seems to be a fundamental condition for pupils understanding and achieving similar levels. Almost all those who expressed problems with teaching large size classes favour small numbers of pupils in their classes.

... a reasonable number is at most 40, so that they can understand.

... if they make the number of pupils in the class small, the teacher would be able to raise all the pupils' level.

... if they reduce the numbers to 35 or 40, but when there are 60 or 70, how many can one follow...?

Since reducing the number of pupils in classes cannot be obtained except by opening more classes or building new schools, beginning teachers seem to think also in immediate practical terms. In order to overcome the problem they believed practical steps should be carried out. One of the commonly suggested steps which they believe should be taken by the school or the system is to restrict pupils' acceptance.

... when enrolling them, one should take the similar ages, e.g. take those who are six or seven. But those who are five do not understand anything, they cannot handle the pen.

... they should enrol half this year, the rest next year, e.g. the children who are now ten or six are enrolled this year and those who are five or four will be enrolled next year. By this, one can avoid the overcrowdedness and it will be better and more restful.



... the child who is six or above should be accepted and they (administrators) should fix this as the school age. I have very very small children. They do not understand anything.

... if they reduce the number of pupils to 40 and do not accept those who are less than 6, I have pupils who cannot speak or pronounce...

Some of these beginning teachers seem to offer alternatives which suggest that pupils could be grouped in terms of their ages and abilities in order to surmount the difficulties associated with classes of big numbers:

... the teacher cannot make the system, so the school administration should take the older children and put them in one class and the smaller children will be under particular attention.

... why do they not group similar ages together, e.g. clever pupils together in one class so that they can understand more and the weak children in another class so that the teacher can make more effort with them...?

### Fear and Embarrassment

This problem area was identified as a result of using a reserved strategy in collecting the data, one of asking student teachers to talk about their friends' problems and the things which they and their friends discussed. The aim was to use this strategy with those student teachers who felt uneasy talking about themselves and with those who tried to impress me by pretending that they had no problems at all relating to their teaching practice.

It was used with only a few of the second year student teachers.

It seems that teaching is a fearful experience for those who undertake it for the first time, particularly in the presence of someone who is being perceived as an assessor. This was clearly revealed when one of the second year student teachers was asked about the things that worry his friends when they go for teaching practice. His reply was:

Some students say 'I do not like to teach, I shake in the class, particularly when there is a supervisor'.

Another second year student teacher's reply to the same question seems to suggest the same phenomenon, but this time it is not the presence of the supervisor in the class, rather it is the pupils' misbehaviour that contributes to his fear:

I noticed that some students have fear when entering the class. They can not speak ... they might have enough information but they cannot say anything. They feel embarrassed, particularly when some pupils are misbehaving in the class...

Another student teacher pointed out how he and his friends felt when they started teaching, which is a similar feeling to those expressed above:

There was a fear, how to stand in front of pupils, how do you face pupils?  
How are you going to present the lesson?  
How can you make pupils understand?

Two of these student teachers have the following comments

about their friends when they were asked about why they fear:

They cannot control themselves.

This is a result of his weakness.

Pupils seem to represent a threat to the student teacher where they (pupils) are perceived as a source of the fear, as we saw above, and as the following statement of one student teacher who was trying to explain why his friends feel embarrassed:

... sometimes they (student teachers) write words wrongly and pupils say to them that is wrong...

He commented:

This is embarrassing, it embarrasses him.

The student teachers' fear is being further inculcated by the way supervisors deal with the problems that student teachers experience in the class. According to one of these second year student teachers, instead of trying to eliminate student teachers' fear, supervisors increase it:

They fear standing in front of pupils, some of the teachers (supervisors) unfortunately help to instil this problem. I found that some supervisors enter the class and they see the student is shaking and embarrassed and they tell him, 'why don't you do that?' 'this is wrong', 'why do you say that to pupils?' 'do this', 'do that'. This happens in front of the pupil. This causes problems and makes the student teacher hate teaching...



The student teacher believes that such conduct by the supervisors should be cured by the administration of the Institute:

... this is not a good phenomenon.  
I wish that the administration of the Institute were aware of these issues so that they could cure it with some teachers (supervisors)...

To avoid such fearful and embarrassing situations, this student teacher suggests that student teachers could show their lesson plans and present their lessons to their friends in the Institute in the presence of the supervisor so that the student can be corrected before going to the class, rather than being corrected in the class in front of pupils, which is a frustrating experience.

... in my opinion each student should show and present his lessons before he goes to school. If he made mistakes it does not matter if he is corrected; but if he is corrected in front of pupils at the time of explaining, it is frustrating, one does not know how to act.

### Evaluation

The issue of evaluation by supervisors and external examiners was raised by only two student teachers in third year who were having final assessment 'block teaching'.

For one of these third-year student teachers the disagreement among the evaluators (supervisors and external examiners) concerning the criteria for good lesson plans seemed to be the problem. When he was talking about the things that worry him he stated that:

there are some problems such as the lesson preparation. We did not find the basic way of preparing lessons (he means lesson plans). One external examiner comes and tells you 'do such and such', and when you prepare as he said, another examiner comes and contradicts him.

The student has commented:

We do not have a basic way.

For the other third year student teacher, the problem seems to be the supervisors and external examiners' expectations of student teachers in connection with their teaching during teaching practice. As it appears from the student teacher's response, external examiners and supervisors expect the student teacher to speak 'good Arabic' when he explains to pupils. It seems that this student did not fulfil such expectations as he pointed out the criticism made by the supervisors and external examiners:

... when we go for teaching practice we find that inspectors (external examiners) and supervisors criticise us about the way we talk, they want us to speak good Arabic.

What seemed to annoy this student teacher about it was that supervisors and external examiners themselves did not speak 'good Arabic'.

But when we observe them we find they do the same thing.

The student teacher was also annoyed by the fact that

the rest of the school teachers, the majority of whom are non-Yemeni, were using their own accents in communicating with pupils in classes:

There are Egyptians and Syrians who speak their own accents and pupils learn such accents.

### Textbooks

The unavailability and the insufficiency of the number of textbooks represents a problem area for a few of the beginning in-service teachers. The issue of an insufficient number of textbooks was raised by one of the rural beginning in-service teachers. Pupils in the Yemeni schools are supposed to possess one textbook for every subject they study in school. Here, the number of textbooks are insufficient for the number of pupils as it appears from the following response:

Here, instead of giving each pupil one textbook, five pupils share one textbook. How can we manage?

Sharing textbooks among pupils makes it difficult when they want to study, particularly if the teacher does not give them notes or a summary of the lessons. These pupils have, perhaps, to meet together from different villages for such purposes, as the teacher's comment indicates:

Pupils go long distances to read the textbook together.

This rural school beginning teacher has also pointed



out the unavailability of the textbooks for certain subjects where almost one academic year passed without possessing these textbooks:

... up to now we did not receive the textbooks of some subjects like Islamic Studies and Reading, which are important subjects.

Another urban school beginning teacher pointed out that textbooks arrived late at school. This teacher was referring mainly to Reading textbooks.

... they gave us the textbooks late, we remained three months without textbooks.

Thus, textbooks seem to have a central part for the teacher because there is not a variety of textbooks written which can be selected by teachers and recommended to pupils. The only available textbooks are those which are written and published by the Ministry of Education. Therefore, textbooks are important for the teachers in the sense that it saves them time and effort. If the textbooks are unavailable to pupils, the teacher has to write the lesson or a summary of it on the blackboard for pupils to copy it down so that they can revise it later on. This seems to be hard for the teacher, as a comment made by one of these beginning teachers shows:

... this of course causes tiredness for the teacher, having to continue writing ... perhaps most of the time is spent on writing on the blackboard.

For the urban school beginning teacher the absence of the textbook is believed to contribute to the pupils' difficulties.

When the child has not got a textbook, he does not understand whatever you write for him. Whatever you make him read on the blackboard he goes home and forgets. If he had a textbook and he looked at it at home and his parents teach him he would understand more.

Even if the teacher took the trouble and wrote the lesson on the blackboard, for certain subjects or lessons that is not helpful. According to the rural school beginning teacher that does not fulfil the function of the textbook.

... if you want to teach a story, it does not have any meaning if you cut it in the middle because when you write on the blackboard, the blackboard is not enough to accommodate the whole story and it also needs time. Nevertheless, this does not play the role of the textbook.

### Inadequate Salary

Only two of the third year student teachers talked about payment as one of the problems of the future. When they were talking about their problems and worries, both referred to the insufficient amount the teacher is paid as one of the problems they will face and it is believed to be the reason for people leaving the teaching profession or not joining it at all. The following were both views:

There are people who have a family to look after. The amount is not enough for the family, particularly if one has not got any other source of income.

It is known that the student joins the Institute because of the difficult circumstances he is in (mainly financial difficulties). When he graduates



for example he will receive 2000 Rials, or 1800 Rials. What can I spend from it on food, on accommodation, and how can I build my future from it. What can I do with it? Particularly if there is nobody supporting me. Therefore, you find people dislike or leave the teaching profession.

Salaries are paid in cash on a monthly basis. The delay in paying the salary was expressed by one of the rural beginning teachers as a problem which affects his teaching:

If the salaries are postponed for two or three months, if he needs money and he has a family, then he becomes a man with problems and he cannot fulfil his work properly.

Another rural school beginning teacher spoke of the contradictions in the education office's decrees regarding the salaries of rural school teachers:

... a decree was issued that the teacher in rural areas is to be paid more in return because he does not enjoy the same living as the teacher in the city, but after some time they said this was to be abolished. Again after some time they said it was to be re-established...

Thus, such fluctuation in decision-making is what seems to worry this beginning teacher. It is felt that this makes him uncertain about his career as his comments pointed out:

... this gives you a lack of confidence in the education office with regard to accomplishing your ambitions. If this is the case they might remove me the next day.



### Inadequate School Buildings and Conditions

A few of the third year student teachers have referred to school buildings and conditions either as problems they were experiencing during teaching practice or as things that worry them in the future.

One has referred to the classrooms he has been to during teaching practice as lacking light. It was dark inside classes and that is what seemed to annoy him as it appears from his story:

... inside the school in which we did our teaching practice, it is dark, the building is not in a proper condition. We see scenes which annoy us but we cannot do anything about it. I went to the headteacher and told him the class in which I am teaching is like a cave, I do not see anything; he told me the lamps are not working...

Another third year student teacher, who intended to teach in a rural school has referred to the small size of schools and the limited number of rooms in rural schools, as an obstacle to carrying out certain activities:

In our schools, particularly in villages, only the classroom is available. There are not playgrounds, there are not rooms for any other activities, such as a painting room. There is the class and the blackboard only...

Another third year student teacher, who intended to teach in a rural school in his village, has pointed out the school conditions there and the atmosphere of the classroom which was described by him as disturbing to the

lesson.

... in rural schools there are not seats, pupils sit on stones. This is one of the problems which face the teacher because the atmosphere of the class is not suitable, the dust is stirred up because the child moves a lot. This disturbs the lessons. The windows also, you find one window in the class. The building differs from buildings in the city.

Only two of the beginning in-service teachers, one in a rural school and the other in an urban school, spoke of the schools in which they were working in terms of the inadequacy of school buildings, unsuitability of seats etc.

The rural school beginning teacher pointed out that in the school in which he was working, teaching is carried out in the open air because of the insufficient number of classrooms to accommodate all pupils in the different grades. (From my experience this is quite common in rural areas, where it is found that a primary school comprises only three or four rooms). The following was the rural school beginning in-service teacher's statement:

... there are not enough buildings, enough classes for pupils. they study outside the buildings.

It is believed that carrying out the teaching-learning process in the open air affects both pupils and teachers by decreasing the productivity of the teacher and by lessening the gains of pupils as a consequence of being exposed to the sun, heat, winds and cold. Therefore,



this beginning teacher sees that aims of education development can not be achieved by the Ministry of Education, the teacher and pupil. The following are his remarks:

... the teacher, the education office, and the pupil cannot achieve any aim with regard to the development of education because the pupils are exposed to sun, heat, winds and cold. All his energy is spent on resisting these things. The same for the teacher. This preoccupies the pupil and he can not gain information because he is not stable, psychologically and physically...

Inappropriate ventilation inside classes was pointed out by one of the urban school beginning teachers. We have seen earlier that the large size of classes constituted a problem for beginning teachers and that seemed to make the atmosphere of the classes worse, as it appears from this beginning teacher's statement:

... there is not good ventilation inside the class and the number of pupils makes it worse...

Unsuitability of seats for children and the overcrowdedness of the seats inside the classes were mentioned as one of the problems by one of the urban school beginning teachers:

... there is also the seats inside classes, they are jammed together, and they are broken. They are not designed for small children. They are not comfortable. Any seats which are rejected by secondary and preparatory school and the higher classes in the school, they give them to first and second year, for small children.



Among other things, the unsuitability of seats is believed to discourage the child from coming to school.

... the small child gets tired inside the school and they do not want to come to school but when they find a nice atmosphere e.g. suitable seats, good ventilation, good treatment, the child likes the school. But now the child sits and falls every moment because they are broken ... what can we do?

### Lack of Guidance

This problem was explicitly expressed by only two of the beginning teachers. One of these beginning teachers was in a rural school, the other was in an urban primary school.

When the rural school teacher was talking about the requirements of teaching, the issue of lesson preparation was raised as one of the requirements. In this respect this beginning teacher thought that:

... the lesson preparation is a problem, particularly for those who are beginners like us...

As he went on talking, it appeared that he was saying as beginning teachers they lack the instructions which they used to get during their preparation because it was not associated with practice.

We were given things but we took very little knowledge out of it because you are addressing theory not practice. When we arrived at the practical reality we did not find the theoretical guidance we used to get...

From the above statement it appeared that perhaps the distance between practice and the theory he was given by the Institute might be one of the reasons why he felt they did not comprehend the things they studied. This was confirmed by further questioning of why he did not benefit from the 'guidance' he used to get where he made it clear that:

... it is not associated with reality...

Another reason for not benefiting from the instructions they were given by the Institute seems to be the intensity of these instructions:

Guidance which we used to get during study was very intensive to the extent that one does not comprehend this guidance...

At this stage, as a beginning teacher, guidance seems to be necessary to overcome the practical difficulties as this was emphasized quite strongly in the following statement:

... when one enters the land of reality, guidance is lessened to a great extent.

He also pointed out the lack of sources from which he might find some of the guidance he was looking for:

There is not any journal in which one might find some guidance. There is not a journal for education. Perhaps there is, but it does not reach teachers and graduates' hands...

He emphasized the necessity of knowing the sources in which he might find guidance and the necessity of having guidance from the experienced people who have preceded him. This emphasis is clear from the following statement:

... at least the teacher should know the source of the teacher's culture and where it comes from. He should have guidance from those who preceded us...

These sources, as seen above, do not seem to be available and remain unknown to him at the time when he is in need of them, as he indicates:

We do not know the source from which one can increase his information...

Even if he wanted to refer to books he studied in the Institute as one of those sources to find some answers to some of his questions, it is not possible. These books are not available to him because they are not in his possession when he leaves the Institute. Due to lack of resources in teacher training institutes, sometimes they tend to take back the textbooks from students at the end of the year to reserve them for new students.

... there is the psychology book (it is called Principles of Education), which we used to study but we leave the Institute without it because it is taken at the end of the year...

Even the textbooks he studied, it is believed, do not take account of the problems encountered by beginning teachers working in different parts of the country, due to the particularities of the regions, where problems differ from region to region as the following response



indicates:

... and if this textbook is available it does not suit the differences in the country because each region needs particular information for the teacher, for example, when the teacher comes to an environment like this where people do not even want to educate their children. What are the motives that can be given to parents and children?

When one of the urban school beginning teachers was talking about the things with which she was unhappy, she referred to the lack of advice. At this stage the beginning teachers needed someone to perceive their problems and help them to surmount them. The following is this urban beginning teacher's feeling:

There is not anyone from the education office who gives us advice. No one came to see and said, for example 'what are you suffering from inside the class?' We would tell him e.g. the curriculum, he will tell us how to deal with it, we would tell him 'the size of the class', and so on...

As this beginning teacher went on talking, it appeared not only that she needed advice from someone concerning the problems she was experiencing inside the class but also she seems to feel that her efforts have not been recognized and appreciated by the education authority:

... look now we work hard all the time inside the classes and no one comes from the education office. From the beginning of the year we prepare lessons every day and our lesson plans are well organized. No one comes and says 'You did this right for pupils' and 'That was not good for them'.

This was perceived by this beginning teacher as an absence

of encouragement which the teacher should get from the educational authority.

... there is not encouragement. If there were encouragement and the Inspectors came and said 'this is good and this is not', one would be more motivated.

### Lack of Parents' Support

It should be pointed out that none of the student-teachers either in the second or in the third year of training, expressed any problems in connection with pupils' parents. But this was of major concern to the beginning in-service teachers, both in urban and rural primary schools.

Urban school beginning teachers feel that their efforts with children are futile because they did not get help from parents. Parents are believed to depend entirely on the school and the teacher regarding their children's education. The following responses illustrate this view:

... the child does not receive any care from home. For example, I give him homework, next day I ask him certain questions, he forgets. There is not pursuit from home.

... it is necessary that the father helps. If I give a lesson he should look at his notebook, and ask 'what did you do?', try and make him understand, not leave him completely to the school.

... he (the father) does not observe his child or ask him 'what homework did the teacher give you? Did you do your homework?' He cares only about his body, his clothes.



This is his duty. Therefore, the teacher alone cannot raise the pupil from all aspects.

... how much effort can the teacher make? She writes for them, corrects and revises for them. If there were care from home the pupil would understand more but they (parents) depend on the efforts made by the teacher. When he (the pupil) arrives home he throws down his schoolbag and goes to play in the street.

Lack of consciousness by parents due to illiteracy seems to be one of the reasons why parents are perhaps unable to help their children as indicated by some of the beginning teachers who tried to give explanations of why pupils do not get help from home:

There is not consciousness in the home. I mean he is six years old, if the home understands they can teach him so that he comes at least clean to the school. Some of them come terrible.

... when the mother is illiterate inside the home of course when I give them homework and tell them to do it, he comes and says 'I did not know'. When I ask why he says 'nobody showed me at home'.

The child whose father is educated helps him and he understands quickly but the other child sometimes does not understand. I ask him why he does not understand. He says 'my father does not teach me. Nobody helps me'. The other child comes tidy with regard to everything: his clothes, his notebooks, discipline, he comes well-disciplined.

Another reason why pupils did not get help from parents in connection with their study seems to be that parents, particularly mothers, expect their children - girls in particular, to help when they come back from school in



the afternoon. This has been made clear by one of the beginning teachers' response:

I spoke to mothers. They say they are tired of the work at home and they want their daughter to help them in the washing or anything else. Mothers also go out in the afternoon and leave their daughters to look after the younger children.

This is believed to be at the expense of the pupils' achievement, as the following statement indicates:

... when I ask 'why did you not do the homework', she says 'yesterday my mother went out and I looked after my brother'...

Such parents' negligence was described by this beginning teacher as a disease in the Yemeni family:

This you could call a disease in the Yemeni family: many Yemeni families do not care at all.

In order that the children can get help from home, some beginning teachers suggest that parents should learn in order to help their children, which seems to be a long-term solution to the problem:

Since literacy classes are opened, why don't the father or mother learn in order to raise a better generation?

Why don't the parents study in literacy classes? There are chances now for them to learn and benefit themselves and their children.

Although some schools have parents' councils, they do not seem to be concerned with discussing pupils' problems that teachers are having according to one of the urban

school beginning teachers. Therefore, she suggests that parents should meet with the headteachers and teachers to discuss the children's problems:

It is supposed that the parents' council should discuss this problem. It is not supposed to meet only for donations to the school activity.

To get some support from parents, some of these urban school beginning teachers tried to draw parents' attention to the problems their children are having so that parents could follow them at home. One of these beginning teachers paid several visits to pupils' parents. It should be noticed here that this teacher was complaining of having pupils whom she could not improve and she believed that the main reason for her difficulty could be the home:

This might be caused by the home where there is not consideration...

Therefore, she visited parents.

I visited pupils' homes. I found the mother, of course, illiterate - she does not read or write. The father is not at home, he goes out to chew Kat (Arabic name of the leaves of a shrub which acts as an excitant when chewed) with friends...

Another urban school beginning teacher told a rather different story in which the father seems to be educated but does not seem to give concern to his son's education:

Once I invited the father of one of my pupils who is a manager of a factory. I mean he is not illiterate, he is an educated man, perhaps a university graduate, but when I talked to him about his son, he did not know anything about him. He said 'my son eats and drinks, I go to work in the early morning, I come back in the evening, I find him sleeping'.

The teacher commented:

... he is content about his health  
- that is it - his duty is finished.

For rural school beginning teachers, the problem seems to take a rather different form where discontinuation of pupils' attendance at school due to parents lack of consciousness is the problem. It is believed that parents in rural areas, as the following statements indicate, hinder their children from going to school:

... one of the problems is that the pupil wants to go to school. Of course the pupils' families are not conscious and not educated. They prevent the pupil and take him home.

... the second aspect is the lack of consciousness by parents. For example, their children come to school for one week and go absent for another...

The reasons why parents in rural areas do not send their children to schools regularly, as expressed by rural school beginning teachers in the sample, are that pupils are expected to help parents with the work of home or in the farm whenever they are needed.



...the excuse may be that his eldest child was ill and the other went to graze the sheep...

... they prevent the pupil and take him home to help with home work, with cultivation of the land...

As has been pointed out, this prevents the child from coming to school regularly. Therefore, pupils will not gain complete information if their attendance is discontinuous, according to these rural school beginning teachers' views:

... this hinders the pupil from coming to school and decreases his educational information.

... this is an obstacle, he (the teacher) can not sequence the information for the pupil so that his information could be complete. The curriculum is sequential, if the pupil went absent for some days he would lose certain information.

One of these beginning teachers believed that the problem could be resolved by inviting parents for meetings to draw their attention to the likely consequences of absences of pupils. But under the present administration of the school such a solution did not seem to be possible:

... there is not a fixed day where parents might gather to discuss these problems. If you wanted to launch a campaign to raise the consciousness of parents, it would be very difficult since the disease is in the administration.

Another alternative to resolve the problem, the teacher believes, is that the headteacher should write letters to parents explaining the problem and telling them about their children's absence:

... at least the administration should send letters to parents telling them that the pupil's absence has exceeded 4 or 5 days. There might be some directions to the headteachers concerning this matter but the headteachers do not carry out such directions and this is what tires the teacher in his work.

Another explanation of why parents do not send their children to school was raised also by one of these rural school teachers. That was the 'enrolment fees' taken by the school administration when pupils are enrolled at the beginning of the year:

... some parents do not enrol their children because of the twenty Rials (Yememi currency) which is taken by the administration as enrolment fees.

Another thing that is said to discourage parents from sending their children to school is again the money taken by administration as exam fees, or what they call 'the certificate cost' which is paid before the exam and before knowing the child's fate, whether he/she will pass the exam or not. This is made clear by the following statement:

Also, they pay fifty Rials, for the certificates and they pay it in advance, before the child is examined and the parent does not know whether his child will pass or fail. The pupil might fail and the parent has paid fifty Rials and that is a loss. For this reason the majority of parents do not send their children to school and this is a big problem facing the teacher when he enters the class on the first day and finds 30 pupils, and on the second day he finds only 10 of them.



## Professional Education

It was pointed out earlier, in Chapter One, that the professional education consists of subjects like Principles of Education, which constitutes different portions of Psychology, curriculum, and History of Education. The curriculum of professional education also includes methods of teaching for the different subjects. These educational subjects are taught in the three successive years in the General Institute.

When the student teachers and beginning teachers were asked about the important aspects of their course, that have contributed to their preparation as teachers, their replies gave an indication that the majority of student teachers and beginning teachers seem to view some of the professional education components of their course as being valuable. The following statements of second and third year student teachers exemplify the importance attached to the Methods of Teaching subject.

The most important thing in my opinion is the Methods of Teaching and Psychology. These are the only subjects I think will benefit you in the future.

(2nd year)

From the educational subjects, we benefit of course from the Methods of Teaching. You know how to pass information through these methods as well as your experience.

(2nd year)

What benefited me was the Methods of Teaching, but I referred to references in the library.

(3rd year)



Some of the second and third year student teachers have attached some importance also to psychology and education:

The education and psychology is a very good book; if I was studying science or arts (in general secondary school) I would take it and read it.

(3rd year)

The principles of education is a valuable subject. I think it is the only subject that benefits the teacher.

(2nd year)

Psychology is important because it shows the teacher how to deal with pupils.

(2nd year)

Psychology is beneficial in knowing the characteristics of the child and how to deal with them.

(3rd year)

Only one 3rd year student teacher out of the six students interviewed saw the professional subjects as being useless, describing them as 'Philosophy', indicating their abstract nature and impracticability:

We do not benefit anything from them because they are just philosophy.

(3rd year)

In their responses, beginning teachers referred to education and psychology subjects and methods as being important aspects of their programme. The following responses are typical examples:

Psychology and Methods of Teaching, these are important aspects, we benefited from them.

(B.T)

We benefited first of all from education and psychology.

(B.T)

Of course, Psychology, we benefited much from it.

(B.T)

When one of the beginning teachers was asked about the important aspects of their programme, he commented that during their course in the Institute they did not pay much attention to the curriculum in terms of its usefulness to their work because as he implied, the notion of passing the exam was the most predominant concern.

Frankly, now we felt the value of studying, when we arrived at work, but when we were students you could say there were many negative attitudes. The issue of passing the exam was very important for the majority of students.

(B.T)

### Inadequately Taught Subjects

Subjects like Music, Art (Drawing) have been pointed out by some second year student teachers as being taught in the Institute in such a way that they could not recognise their practical relevance. This was made clear when they were talking about their complaints about the curriculum:

We study the Art subject theoretically. We are supposed to learn to draw but he (the lecturer) comes and dictates and we write every day a new lesson. When I graduate I shall draw for the pupils on the blackboard. We do not know how to draw anything.

(2nd year)

For example, we study Music and we did not benefit from it at all from the start. The Art subject also, it is supposed to teach us how to draw but he (the lecturer) comes and talks about the Catholic School (one of the topics they study). I do not think the primary school pupil can comprehend these things. Why then do we study these things?

(2nd year)

Only one third year student teacher has complained of problems related to weakness in the teaching of a subject:

You find subjects like Physics. We could not read it from the book and they did not give us a teacher who can make us understand.

(3rd year)

Some beginning teachers have referred to the Arts, Music and Physical Education subjects as being taught theoretically and not serving them in practice. The following are their complaints:

Physical Education was taught theoretically. When we came to school we did not remember the exercises we were taught because we did not do them in practice.

(B.T)

The drawing is taught theoretically, e.g. they taught us the Traditional Yemeni Arts. This is culture (general knowledge) I can easily read and know. The question is am I going to teach it in school? I need to draw a bird for the pupils. What we study is imagination.

(B.T)

In my opinion there is no need for the Music subject. We did not learn anything.

(B.T)



One of these beginning teachers suggested that the Art subject could be replaced by a useful subject like hand-writing, another has commented that they had to study the Music subject because on it lies their success or failure in the course.

### Inadequacy of Training

Only beginning teachers have explicitly expressed dissatisfaction with the course, referring to its shortcomings and failure to take into account the practices of the primary school. For example, some pointed out the failure of the Institute's programme to prepare them for tasks they are supposed to perform as teachers. Tasks such as designing tests, marking pupils' work, grading them, marking the register, and so on. The following is a comprehensive account of such complaints made by one of the beginning teachers:

Can you imagine tht I could not do the monthly grades for pupils when I came (to school). We did not talk about it even one word in the Institute. There was also no previous opinion about recording the exam grades of the mid and the end of the year, even to the extent that I did not know how to rule the records or mark pupils' notebooks.

(B.T)

Another beginning teacher has affirmed the same complaint when he was talking about things the course did not introduce them to:

Preparing exams, this we did not study. This is one point. They should make the student prepare an exam, and know

how to mark it, and how to grade it,  
how to mark the register, and how to  
distribute the grades.

(B.T)

Both of these beginning teachers emphasised that these practices were unfamiliar to them before they came to school and that they had to learn such tasks from friends in the school and inspectors.

One does not find these except when he comes to reality or when the inspector comes to tell him about these things.

(B.T)

These are things I did not know before I knew them through some friends here, also the inspector showed me how to do it.

(B.T)

Another aspect of their programme's inadequacy that was raised by beginning teachers related to lack of opportunities that were given to them to practice teaching in the different grades of the primary school, and the inadequacy of their training as subject and class teachers.

If I want to teach the sixth year, our standard does not allow us to teach e.g. Science or Maths. subjects.

(B.T)

They did not teach us how to teach all primary classes, from first to sixth year.

(B.T)

We need to study the curriculum of the pupils whom we will teach because one might work in remote rural areas where he might not find any experienced or competent teachers before him to tell him about the curriculum.

(B.T)

The inadequacy of their programme to train them as class teachers was also referred to by one of the beginning teachers who was teaching a first-year class and seemed to have found difficulty in teaching:

Since we started studying in the Institute and doing teaching practice, they did not teach us the way to teach first year classes even during the block teaching.

(B.T)

### Density of the Curriculum

It appears that only a few of the second and third year student teachers felt that they are under pressure as a result of the diversity of the subjects they take in their course. For instance, one of the complaints these student teachers were having was the density of their curriculum. When they were asked about their opinions of their course, they stated:

Inside the Institute the subjects are dense. There is no mercy by the teachers and the administration. They think this density makes a good teacher, the opposite is true.

(2nd year)

The curriculum is heavy. It contains science and arts subjects.

(3rd year)



The curriculum is easy but dense.

(3rd year)

The majority of beginning teachers seem to express the same complaint about the curriculum. But as well as its density it was described as being useless. To illustrate these complaints, here are some of their responses:

We did not benefit. The curriculum is large and things inside it have no benefit.

(B.T)

We did not like it because the curriculum was too many textbooks and we did not benefit anything from it.

(B.T)

We were complaining why they gave us all these subjects, too many subjects, too many lessons. You must memorize.

(B.T)

It might be worth mentioning here that only one of the 3rd year student teachers seemed to see their curriculum as being brief in comparison with the general secondary school curriculum. In explaining how he found their curriculum, he stated:

Our curriculum is brief compared to the general secondary school. As teachers we should be equal to general school, but everything is brief. We feel we are weak and unqualified to teach more than first and second year in primary school.

(3rd year)

## Specialization

In the general secondary school system there are two sections: Science and Arts. In the second year of the general secondary school pupils have to choose either one of these sections. In General Teacher Training Institutes, at the secondary school level, no such distinction exists. Student teachers take science and arts subjects. However, they seem to value highly the distinction between these subjects. In other words they seem to compare themselves with the general secondary school pupils in terms of the subjects they study. They believe their education should not be different from the general secondary school pupils'. This was clearly manifested in the responses of the majority of beginning teachers only.

We study the general subjects, they say they are reduced. Why do they not make them like science or arts sections so that we benefit more from specialization?

(B.T)

We say to ourselves 'Who told us to join the Institute?' If we went to science or arts in general school it would have been better.

(B.T)

Our curriculum approximates the curriculum of general secondary school. Why don't they make them similar?

(B.T)

In the institute system some science and arts subjects were either omitted or condensed as a result of mixing science and arts subjects. Therefore, beginning teachers saw their curriculum as being confusing, old and useless,

i.e. they feel they are not benefiting from the present system:

Science and arts should be separated or they should give something the students benefit from.

(B.T)

The student studies arts and science as well as educational subjects, with the omission of some of the arts and science subjects. This makes the student mentally confused. He cannot devote himself to one side.

(B.T)

I was reading the curriculum of the general secondary school (science subjects). I found different subjects and they are more beneficial than ours.

(B.T)

Science as a whole is very weak. It is not like the science section in secondary school.

(B.T)

### Proposed Changes

It seems that the majority of second and third year student teachers are unable to evaluate their courses in terms of their relevance to the practices of primary school due to lack of experience, as the students themselves feel. Rather, some of them particularly in the third year, tend to evaluate their curriculum in terms of its clarity or lack of clarity and the easiness or difficulty of understanding it.

When the second year student teachers were asked about the kind



of change they would like to take place to the curriculum they study, their responses indicated their uncertainty or inability to judge:

Frankly I cannot judge about change because we are not at a high level to judge. I do not know either if it should remain or if it should be changed.

(2nd year)

Now it is still the beginning, one does not know what problems he will face in the future, so that he cannot criticise the curriculum.

(2nd year)

Nothing except one should acquaint himself.

(2nd year)

Complete change no, if they want to add things that is OK.

(2nd year)

Some third year student teachers expressed opinions about their curriculum which indicated their evaluation of it in terms of its easiness or difficulty. The following statements exemplify their opinions:

The educational subjects are easy but the academic subjects are difficult.

(3rd year)

The educational subjects are easy and comfortable, all the students find them easy, but some of the other subjects the students find difficult.

(3rd year)

The style of writing of the textbooks: if a student reads he understands little, the rest needs explanation and illustration by the teacher.

(3rd year)

Therefore, one of these students suggested a change in the style of writing of textbooks and replacing them with subjects which are suitable for their standards and age:

We want subjects which are suitable for our age and our mental abilities. We want things to be clear - as soon as we read it we understand it, but this we read and read and by the end we did not get any result.

(3rd year)

The rest of the third year students do not seem to have clear ideas of how the change should be made. The following are their proposals:

They might add.

(3rd year)

In my opinion they add. Now we study Music, Drawing and Physical Education. They should reduce these and increase the Psychology, particularly in the final year.

(3rd year)

One of the third year student's proposition of change seems to imply that the content to which they were introduced does not reflect the reality of teaching in primary school where he suggested that any change of the curriculum should take into account this reality on the basis of empirical studies.

To study the reality, its requirements, how teaching is carried out inside schools, how the methods of teaching could be modified. By this one might change but if one sits and writes books without knowing what goes on in the field, there is no benefit.

(3rd year)

With regard to beginning teachers' opinions regarding the changes they wanted to take place, there was no consensus among them regarding what should be changed. We have seen under different categories some proposals of the change, such as training in teaching the different subjects taught in primary school, studying the curriculum of pupils they are going to teach, and training to teach the different grades, i.e. to train the students as class and subject teachers. One beginning teacher has proposed change in terms of increase in the period of the teaching practice because the time allocated to teaching practice was not sufficient. Another beginning teacher indicated that some aspects of their professional education needed change and were described as imaginative because they are not linked with their work. Another two have proposed a change in the system of training as a whole, favouring the system that separates science from arts subjects similar to the general secondary school system. The following are their comments:

There are things which are like imagination. It is culture (general knowledge) for the person but it does not tie him with the reality. These could be changed.

(B.T)

If they increase the teaching practice, for example, instead of one day a week why do they not make it two days a week.

(B.T)

I believe that the previous system of not mixing science and arts is the best: students study science or arts plus the educational subjects.

(B.T)



## Conclusion

From the above descriptive picture of the problems expressed by student teachers and beginning teachers one may arrive at an account in which an understanding of the nature of these problems can be very tentatively outlined. This account does have to be tentative for two main reasons:

(1) In order to be a summary account it focuses on what are seen to be dominant features of responses and neglects what are seen to be idiosyncratic features; given the very small number of individuals involved, decisions about what is 'dominant' and what is 'idiosyncratic' are inevitably difficult and uncertain.

(2) In highlighting apparently dominant features of respondents' problems, the account necessarily characterizes these problems in more general and abstract terms than has been done up to this point. In particular, it takes a perspective which is certainly not that of the respondents, but is one of a theorizing outside observer. The theoretical picture presented from this abstract external perspective, in so far as it goes beyond the descriptive picture already presented, is constructed by the researcher and its validity and usefulness have not been demonstrated.

Despite these reservations, the formulation of a tentative generalized understanding of the student teachers' and beginning teachers' concerns is seen as helpful at this

stage in that it can help to give shape and direction to the remainder of the study.

(a) Student Teachers:

We have seen that student teachers viewed teaching as involving difficulties and that they viewed teaching practice as a test. In trying to surmount such difficulties in order to pass that test, which was a predominant objective expressed by third year student teachers, to avoid the embarrassing situations and to satisfy their supervisors and external examiners, they felt they must work hard and have patience.

It was observed that student teachers were preoccupied with how to perform the lessons i.e. they were most concerned about their own adequacy. They seemed to experience as problems the things that threatened their safety. For example, problems such as discipline and class control and AVAs seemed to be predominant in the student teachers' thinking both in the second and third year because they wanted to please their supervisors and external examiners by maintaining order in the class and preparing AVAs. Although some of these student teachers showed concerns related to effective teaching and better learning for pupils, that seemed to be in order to ensure successful completion of teaching practice. They experienced as problems the things they found hard when trying to meet the demands imposed by teaching practice and the

expectations of their supervisors.

Some student teachers in both second and third year showed concerns similar to those shown by beginning in-service teachers but the nature of such concerns seemed to differ as described above.

Due to the different situations and the different experiences they have had, different student teachers showed different problems.

A few student teachers, particularly those who were about to graduate (third year) seemed to have concerns related to the future as a result of what they anticipated their situation would be like.

None of the student teachers either in the third or the second year seemed to accept the problems they experienced as their own. Rather they blamed others, for example, the class teacher, the pupil and the school system.

(b) Beginning Teachers:

Teaching is viewed by some beginning teachers as a good profession but certain things as well as its demands make it tiring or disliked, such as the absence of AVAs or the unqualified headteachers, etc. Their objectives appear to be related to pupils' learning and success; through these beginning teachers seek success and recognition



of their success.

Most of the problems experienced by beginning teachers seem to differ from those experienced by student-teachers in kind and in nature. They seem to be preoccupied with the things that make their teaching effective. They are concerned with the things that exert pressure on them in terms of time and efforts when trying to cope with the demands of teaching in different primary schools (rural and urban).

Beginning teachers are concerned about getting help, support and answers to some of their questions. They are also concerned about being recognized and accepted within the schools in terms of implementing ideas and becoming effective members of the school.

It has also been observed that most beginning teachers attribute their problems to the State and they thought that the solutions to most of the problems they faced were the responsibility of the State.

These general understandings will be used to guide the remainder of this investigation. However, because these understandings are tentative, greater importance will be attached to the specific problems which have been described and presented very much in the terms used by student teachers and beginning teachers in expressing them.

## CHAPTER FOUR

### DESIGN OF THE MAIN STUDY

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## DESIGN OF THE MAIN STUDY

The results of the initial exploratory study, reported in the previous chapter, seem to show that there are observable consistencies among the students and beginning teachers. Although the sample is small, the evidence suggests that certain generalizations may be possible. These generalizations might apply to all students in the country or at least to all student teachers in the initial study institute. They might apply to beginning teachers who are graduates of this institute in rural schools or they might apply to graduates in rural schools in all of the country.

One kind of generalization which seems to be very clear is that the problems of student-teachers in different stages tend to be different.

Despite these common patterns, there seem to be individual differences in some of the students' problems.

Such results have led the researcher to investigate the following questions:

- (1) To what extent are the initial study student teachers' problems general across the country?
- (2) Insofar as these problems vary, how can differences be accounted for in terms of:



- (a) aspects of students' personal histories
  - (b) students' beliefs
  - (c) differences between institutes and their staffs' ideas and practices
  - (d) differences between types of schools where they are teaching.
- (3) What are the processes by which student teachers' problems develop and change as they go through their courses and become full-time teachers?
- (4) What understandings do lecturers have of students' problems, to what extent and in what ways are their practices influenced by these understandings?

We have seen that the initial study focussed on investigating the problems of a small group of student teachers and beginning teachers. It involved six students at second year, six at third year, and eight in their first year of teaching. All of them except two female beginning teachers were either students in or graduates from one teacher training institute for males. There are ten other institutes in six different cities, six of these institutes being for training female teachers.

In the previous chapter, when looking at the student teachers' and beginning teachers' problems, it was observed how certain problems arise at certain stages and how obsessed student teachers or beginning teachers seemed

by such problems. For example, we saw how the problems related to AVAs preoccupy third year student teachers' thinking and how beginning first year teachers seemed to become obsessed by the problems of dealing with parents, teaching mixed ages, etc. If this is the case generally across the country then it obviously requires serious attention. Therefore, it was felt that a survey of student teachers and beginning teachers at all the institutes in the country, and at each stage of the three stages already studied, was desirable for the purpose of exploring the generalizability of the student and beginning teachers' problems. However, it was not simply aimed to know whether student teachers and beginning teachers do or do not have each type of problem, but it was aimed to assess the relative importance of each possible problem and how their problems relate to each other.

Another reason for the survey was that the initial exploratory study had proved successful and provided a good basis for generating items that could constitute a survey instrument. If the initial study had failed to generate comprehensible problems then it would have been impossible to do the survey.

A complementary survey was planned to provide a description of the mental life of the student teacher and beginning teacher insofar as it relates to him/her becoming a teacher. It was aimed to know, in particular, how



typical the beliefs and experiences described by students in the pilot study are. Such a descriptive background, hopefully, helps one to make sense of the problems reported by the students and beginning teachers and might also help one to reject false assumptions about the causes of their problems. So the nature of the beliefs of the total population of the study as a whole, might provide a background to the nature of their problems as a whole.

A further possibility was that one could relate the different scales of problems for different sexes, stages, cities, institutes, or combinations or intersections of these to the differences in the beliefs these groups reported. For example, if the students in one institute report certain problems with teaching practice much less frequently than those at the other institutes, one could reasonably hope that an explanation for this might be found in the different beliefs they reported. (It also makes sense to think in terms of variations among individuals so that the beliefs of particular individuals can be related to the problems reported by these individuals. Unfortunately, as an oversight, students were not asked to put their names on both questionnaires or to give any other information which could allow the matching of individual questionnaires. So these correlatings of beliefs and problems at an individual level which could, in principle, have been interesting and useful can not, in fact, be done).



By asking how the student teachers' problems develop and change as they go through their training and become full-time teachers, it is hoped to provide a description of the sequence of the changes and the development in their problems.

Lecturers' understandings of student teachers' problems were investigated because getting the perspectives of the people who can do something about some of the student teachers' problems was important for several reasons. One of these reasons was simply to know how aware they are of their students' problems. Another reason was to know whether they had already worked out how to deal with these problems in their programme and whether they feel able to do anything to solve their problems. In addition to that the lecturers' perceptions might help in understanding the students' problems more fully from another perspective. That is not to say that the lecturers' perspectives are correct, nor, at the other extreme, that they are the cause of the students' problems; but their understandings of the students' problems would provide, it was hoped, additional relevant information.

### The Survey

#### (a) Questionnaire No.1

For the purpose of investigating the generalizability

of the findings and conclusions of the initial study about student teachers' problems, a questionnaire survey was used. Using the categories generated from the initial study, a list of items emerged for inclusion in this questionnaire.

It has been observed that the categories of problems were in terms of the focus of the problems, but the nature of the problem could be of more than one kind. For example, Audio Visual Aids was a focus of the student teachers' and beginning teachers' problems but these problems were of several clearly different kinds. For example, one problem was with the absence of AVAs, another was with their use. It was these more specific kinds of problem that constituted the items of the questionnaire. Since the researcher was not in a position to claim that he has been able to identify all the problems of student teachers and beginning teachers in the country through the initial study sample, the questionnaire included other items (problems). The inclusion of such items was based on my own knowledge of what other problems students and beginning teachers might plausibly have. Also, as a result of my examination of the literature I included items that might reflect other problems of students and beginning teachers in Yemen.

For the purposes of making completion of the questionnaire easy and making it simple to analyse and to get comparable results between the different subgroups, the questions that



constituted the questionnaire No.1 were structured. Thus, students and beginning teachers' convenience was considered in that the task was kept as simple as possible. It was presented in a simple way: instead of asking questions I described in a few words the focus of the problem as well as the characteristics of that focus. For example, 'school building' may be the focus of students' problems, but there are all kinds of possibilities about school building, so the problem was expressed in terms of the nature of the focus, i.e. 'inadequate school building'. Similarly, the focus of the problem is the 'size of the class' but to make clear the nature of the focus, the problem has been expressed as 'large size class'. Thus the intention was to be brief but as clear as possible. Therefore, most items were phrased in terms of one adjective, indicating the problem, applied to the focus.

Thus, the clarity of the items were considered in that the initial study served as a basis for devising most of the items. In cases where any of the items i.e. the single adjective or noun seemed ambiguous, some elaboration was made.

The items were further considered by the investigator with a sample of student teachers and beginning teachers, five from each stage, to ensure clarity of wording where the questionnaire was piloted before it was typed in its final form. On the basis of student teachers' and beginning teachers' responses to the



wordings of the questionnaire items at the time of piloting, minor changes were made. It should be noted here that one of the items of this questionnaire was added as a result of the piloting where student teachers were requested to add any problem they felt the questionnaire failed to include.

Since most of the suggested problems included in this questionnaire were derived from other student teachers or beginning teachers, they were all plausible, none of them likely to be contrary to a student teacher or beginning teacher's perspective. In these circumstances the danger of a set towards compliance by respondents seemed considerable. Although this danger was recognized nonetheless it was considered that it was outweighed by the advantages of working from items grounded in students' open responses.

The questionnaire consisted of two sections. The first section requested students and beginning teachers to provide biographical information regarding age, the location of their primary education, the stage at which they joined the teacher training institute and the type of school they have been to during teaching practice. Further questions for beginning teachers concerned job location and the kind of the school in which they are working. The format of this section consisted of multiple-choice answers (see Appendix 2 ). The second section consisted of 52 items regarding problems which students and beginning

teachers were asked to rate according to the degree that these problems represented concern for them on a scale with positions labelled "represents great concern", "represents moderate concern", "represents slight concern", "represents no concern" and a fifth category of "not sure". They were requested to rate the items to the extent they represented a concern at that stage with regard to what they are experiencing and what they feel they will experience. They were provided with an example in the instruction section of how to rate each item.

(b) Questionnaire No.2

This questionnaire was devoted to investigating the beliefs of students and beginning teachers, based on their direct or second-hand experiences in the areas of the potential problems included in Questionnaire No.1. The initial study was the main source of the statements that constituted the questionnaire questions. The statements were expressed in the students' and beginning teachers' words. In cases where statements seemed ambiguous to me, certain modifications were made. However, expressing the statements in students' own words was an advantage observed during the field work when students and beginning teachers seemed to recognise these statements and showed a sign of satisfaction that their own beliefs were well presented. For example,



some student teachers asked me how I could manage to read their minds.

The statements included in the questionnaire represented experiences that the students and beginning teachers might have felt or have gone through and as a result they have expressed certain problems. For example, the statement "the presence of the supervisor in the class is a source of embarrassment to the student teacher" was expressed by some students as one of the reasons for experiencing the problem of 'embarrassment'.

The questionnaire consisted of 71 statements. Students and beginning teachers were requested to read the statements and rate them to the degree they saw them as valid by selecting one of five alternative responses, 'always valid', 'usually valid', 'sometimes valid', 'not valid' and 'not sure'. In the instruction section respondents were provided with an example of how to rate each statement, (see Appendix 3). The students and beginning teachers completed this questionnaire immediately after they completed questionnaire No.1. As I have mentioned, this questionnaire, together with questionnaire No.1 were piloted before being distributed to students and beginning teachers and that only very slight modifications were made to the statements.

### (c) Survey Sample

The population with which the survey was concerned was



all second and third year student teachers at all the General Teacher Training Institutes and all the beginning teachers who had graduated from these institutes the previous year.

So far as the 2nd and 3rd year student teachers and beginning teachers are concerned, as far as possible, a representative sample from each stage was desirable. But since the questionnaires were administered when classes met in the institutes, in the case of second year student teachers, and in schools during block teaching practice in the case of third year student teachers, it was administratively easier as well as more complete from the research perspective to include the whole population, except of course those who were absent on the day on which the questionnaires were distributed. It should be mentioned that it was not easy for me to chase up the absentees for several reasons. First, it was a time-consuming task since I wanted to administer the questionnaires during the teaching practice to all student teachers in six cities. Second, there were no accurate addresses available in the institutes for students who live outside the institutes' residences. Above all, the proportion of the absentees was very low to be a cause for concern. It can be said with confidence that in some institutes the survey included all the student teachers concerned.

With regard to the institutes' graduates, it should

be pointed out that not all those who graduated from institutes the previous year were surveyed for several reasons.

- (a) Some graduates were allowed, according to the regulations of teacher training institutes, to continue their study in the Faculty of Education in the University, particularly those who got high grades in the third year exam (Final exam).
- (b) Some graduates were appointed as headteachers or to other administrative jobs like deputy head-teacher, secretary or school supervisor.
- (c) It is a common phenomenon among female graduates in particular, that some of the institutes' graduates do not enter the teaching profession at all after graduation. In the case of the female graduates they tend to remain at home and in the case of male graduates they tend to have jobs outside the education field.

Thus, the survey involved all first year beginning teachers in urban schools plus those who were working in rural areas whom I managed to reach. There were difficulties, partly due to the lack of public transport, where in some cases, in order to reach one rural beginning teacher I had to spend one day travelling, by privately hired transport, due to the bad condition of the roads to some areas. Thus, not all the beginning teachers

working in rural areas were surveyed. The reasons for this were as mentioned above, the remoteness of some of the areas from the main cities, the lack of public transport to such areas and the absence of mail services to such areas.

It should be known that the beginning teachers involved in the survey were visited individually in their schools despite the fact that this was time-consuming and physically tiring. Nevertheless it was considered to be necessary because as we saw above, the population of the graduates was considerably reduced; and if trends for different institutes or stages, or even for the two sexes, were to be known, it was necessary to maximize the number of beginning teachers.

However, the following tables show the number of respondents who returned useable questionnaires. It can be seen that the total population is 789 in questionnaire No.1 and 790 in questionnaire No.2 detailed according to city, sex, stage.



Table 4.1 Number of Respondents to Questionnaire No.1  
(M : Male, F : Female)

City	2nd Year		3rd Year		Beginning Teachers		Total		TOTAL
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	
Sana'a	51	40	42	31	7	13	100	84	184
Taiz	95	40	65	46	23	14	183	100	283
Al-Hodeidah	36	50	29	35	10	28	75	113	188
Zabid	-	4	-	5	-	4	-	13	13
Ibb	39	7	21	6	8	10	68	23	91
Hajjah	7	6	10	14	1	2	18	12	30
Total	228	147	167	127	49	71	444	345	789

Table 4.2 Number of Respondents to Questionnaire No.2  
(M : Male, F : Female)

City	2nd Year		3rd Year		Beginning Teachers		Total		TOTAL
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	
Sana'a	51	40	42	31	7	13	100	84	184
Taiz	95	40	65	46	22	13	182	99	281
Al-Hodeidah	37	51	29	35	10	28	76	114	190
Zabid	-	4	-	5	-	4	-	13	13
Ibb	39	6	22	6	8	11	69	23	92
Hajjah	7	6	10	4	1	2	18	12	30
Total	229	147	168	127	48	71	445	345	790

(d) Administration of Questionnaires

I left the U.K. for The Yemen with a letter from my supervisor at Stirling University addressed to the Minister of Education in Yemen explaining the nature of my work and requesting help to conduct the study. I contacted the Minister on my arrival and I was helped by letters from him directed to the Ministry Offices in the different cities concerned, telling them who I am and what I wanted. In contacting the directors of the Ministry Offices in each city I had to explain what I wanted to do and the kind of help I needed. I was given letters from the directors of the Ministry Offices addressed to the directors of the teacher training institutes and different letters to the head teachers of the primary schools in which beginning teachers were working requesting that they facilitate my work. In the institutes I had to explain what I was doing and what I needed. All the institutes' directors showed willingness to co-operate. In most cases I was introduced to second and third year student teachers by a member of the teaching staff during their classes. I was always introduced as one of the students who is studying in the U.K. and came to collect some information relating to primary school teachers in Yemen and the students were asked to co-operate. During this initial contact I also explained to them the information needed and what kind of instrument I would be using and I invited them to participate and told the second year student teachers that they

would be contacted again in the institutes to fill in the questionnaires. It might be worth mentioning that second year student teachers were undergoing a period of one-day teaching practice while third-year students were waiting for a twentyone day block teaching practice. Third year student teachers were told they would be contacted during this block teaching practice in schools. Between the period I contacted the institutes and the start of the third year block teaching, I administered the questionnaires to second year student teachers in all the institutes except Zabid which was left to the end. With third year student teachers the questionnaires were administered during their block teaching practice where they were distributed as groups between a maximum of three schools in the big cities. This again was with the exception of the third year student teachers in Zabid city. It was left to the end because there exists only one female institute in which a very small number of students enrolled.

In contacting first year beginning teachers in schools, their names and the names and addresses of schools in which they were working were obtained from the Ministry Offices in each city. Letters to headteachers of these schools were obtained from the directors of the Ministry Offices in each city explaining what I intended to do and requesting them to give me access to beginning teachers in their schools. In most cases I was introduced to the beginning teachers by headteachers. In a few cases,



where headteachers were not in schools, I had to introduce myself but I had to show them the letters I had from the Ministry Offices directors to clear any suspicions about my intentions. When I was introduced to them by the headteachers I was introduced as a student doing studies in education who wanted to collect information from the institutes' graduates. I also explained individually to beginning teachers the aim of the study and the kind of instrument I was using to collect the information from them.

As well as stating the purpose of the questionnaires, I promised student teachers and beginning teachers confidentiality and anonymity.

My personal contact with student teachers and beginning teachers in distributing the questionnaires and my presence with them in classes or in schools at the time of completing the questionnaires made it possible to explain, in addition to the written instructions, the purpose of the survey and the instructions for completing the questionnaires. To ensure that students and beginning teachers understood what was required from them they were told to ask in case of any difficulty in understanding any item or statement before answering.

It might be worth mentioning that during the completion of questionnaires in classes, none of the institutes' lecturers were present with us. I asked them to leave

classes until students finished completing the questionnaires. This was done in the belief that student teachers would be more at ease to ask whatever they wanted as to the questionnaires and the items and statements they included.

(e) Analysis of Survey Data

It has been mentioned earlier that 789 questionnaires regarding the student teachers' and beginning teachers' problems and 790 questionnaires regarding their beliefs were usable. Only about 30 questionnaires were found unusable and were discarded. Whenever it was found that responses appeared to involve carelessness, questionnaires were discarded. However, the criterion used for discarding questionnaires was that if, for example, the majority of the responses were missing or the majority of the items or statements were scored on one point of the scale, such as 'Represent Great Concern' or 'Not Sure' such data were excluded.

It has been seen that the survey was designed with a view to answering several research questions, some of which aimed at exploring the relationships of student teachers' and beginning teachers' problems and beliefs to a large number of independent variables and possibly to combinations of these variables. The main independent variables that both questionnaires were concerned with were institutes, stages, sexes. But questionnaire 1 was concerned with several other minor independent variables such as age, the



locations of primary education, stages of joining teacher training institutes, types of school of teaching practice, types of schools in which beginning teachers were working, and their job location.

Having 52 items in questionnaire 1 and 71 statements in questionnaire 2 makes it a difficult task to analyse in terms of individual items and statements in relation to all independent variables. As well as the complexity of the task, such an exercise would be repetitive and consequently boring to the reader.

In addition to such complexity, the 52 separate problems and the 71 statements of belief were each rated by all respondents with no justifiable basis having been established for simplifying the task by grouping these into types of problem and belief. The question remains, how are these results going to be analysed?

Most of the literature presupposes that the student teachers' problems or concerns can be satisfactorily handled in terms of a limited number of dimensions of variation. In this case applying factor analysis to the total sample's ratings for each of the two questionnaires would reveal whether or not there is a sufficiently strong structure of problems and beliefs to justify collapsing items or statements into small groups. If factor analysis resulted in identifying groups of items that are cohesive and interpretable then such structure would be



maintained and used as a tool in looking at the rest of the results. But if the results generated by factor analysis proved that there was a less cohesive structure of problems and beliefs, it would still be interesting in suggesting some ways in which items and statements might be related in that they co-vary. In such circumstances, where there would be no sufficiently strong structuring of problems or beliefs, the analysis would have to proceed in terms of individual items and statements but the difficulty remains that having to answer the research questions in relation to independent variables for all the items and statements and to explore the interrelation among these items and statements is an enormous task for the researcher and for his readers.

However, some bases for grouping items and beliefs would be employed, with no presupposition that there is one or two, or three best ways:

- (a) In grouping items or beliefs I would use my common sense in recognizing the similarities or relatedness or differences among them, as already had been done in reporting the results of the preliminary study.
- (b) The previous studies would be one of these ways where attempts were made to categorize student teachers' and beginning teachers' problems or concerns.
- (c) The labels attached to the groupings revealed by factor analysis whenever they would appear to be helpful.
- (d) Problems were rated according to their importance, and the beliefs were rated according to their validity.

Therefore, the relative importance for problems and the relative validity for beliefs for the total sample will be employed as one of these bases for grouping problems and beliefs.

(e) Grouping according to differentiation between groups according to the independent variables is also one way of grouping problems and beliefs; that is differentiation between stages, institutes, sexes, first year teachers' job locations, for both problems and beliefs; and differentiation between ages, the locations of primary education, stages of joining the institutes, types of school of teaching practice, and types of school in which beginning teachers were working, for the problems only.

It should be observed here that grouping the statements (beliefs) would be even more difficult than grouping the problems because each statement has two foci, typically 'X leads to Y' or 'P prevents Q'. Questionnaire 2 will be analysed according to the same procedure as Questionnaire 1 and, initially at least, shadowing it so that at each stage it will be possible to ask whether the results for the two separate questionnaires are mutually illuminating, suggesting understandings compatible with all the evidence and, as part of this, appropriate ways of grouping items.

It was pointed out earlier that some of the research questions tried to explore the relationship of the

student teachers' problems and beliefs to several independent variables and that differentiation between groups within each independent variable would be one of the bases for grouping items and beliefs. To determine differences in student teachers' and beginning teachers' problems and beliefs according to these independent variables, certain statistical tests must be used.

Since each independent variable involves at least two independent groups of respondents, and since the scores for these groups were in an ordinal scale, the appropriate statistical procedure to be used is the Median Test.

In applying the Median Test, all cases where student teachers and beginning teachers were not sure were excluded. This was also true for the correlational analysis on which factor analysis was based.

### Lecturers' Views

#### (a) Interview Procedures

To investigate the understandings of the lecturers of their student teachers' problems, the method used took the form of informal interviews. The interview consisted of several questions such as the following:

- What do you want your students (2nd and 3rd year separately) to achieve from going to schools for teaching practice?



In cases where the above question resulted in a general answer, specific questions were followed such as:

- Are there any particular things you want the students to learn from or try out in the teaching practice?
- What are the problems your students (2nd and 3rd year separately) may have in relation to teaching?

The problems expressed by the initial study students (2nd and 3rd year separately) were grouped. In cases where lecturers did not mention the problems expressed by the initial study student teachers, they were asked questions to find out whether or not these problems are also experienced by their students. For example:

- In another institute students have problems in relation to AVAs. Do your students have such problems?

In cases where lecturers thought their students do not have such problems, they were asked why? The reasons for student teachers' problems as perceived by their lecturers were also investigated by asking lecturers why they thought their student teachers have problems. This was done for each problem independently.

To find out if the lecturers had already worked out how to deal with these problems in their programme or whether they feel they are able to do anything to solve the students' problems, they were asked questions such as the following:

- What could be done about such problems?
- In such situations where students have this kind of problem, what can you do as a lecturer?
- What have you been doing to solve such problems?

With regard to the first year of teaching and whether lecturers anticipate their graduates will face certain problems in their first year of teaching, questions such as the following were directed to lecturers:

- What problems do you expect the graduates will have in their first year of teaching?

Lecturers were also asked about the reasons for the problems they expected the students will have and what they have been doing for the students to avoid or overcome such problems.

(b) Sample of Lecturers

A sample of 51 lecturers were interviewed in the eleven institutes in the country. Five lecturers represented each institute except one female institute in Zabid in which only one lecturer was interviewed. This institute is considered as a branch of the Hodeidah Institute. Originally the staff of the institute consisted of only 3 members. Because of the small number of student teachers in this institute the visit was postponed to

the end of the fieldwork when I finished visiting the rest of the cities. By the time this institute was visited two lecturers had left the country for Egypt. This is due to the regulations that allow the staff of the schools to leave, in some parts of the country, before the end of the official academic year. This regulation applies only to those parts of the country which have a very hot climate. Therefore, only one Yemeni lecturer was available during my visit to the institute.

In the selection of the sample of lecturers, the criterion was employed that only those lecturers who have close contact with student teachers, particularly during teaching practice, should be included. Therefore, priority was given to the Principals of Education subject lecturers, lecturers of methods subjects besides academic subjects and those involved in supervising students during teaching practice.

#### The Follow-Up Study

The initial study sample was followed up into other stages. Student teachers who were in the second year during the initial study, were interviewed again in the third year and those interviewed in the third year during the initial study were interviewed again in schools during the first year of teaching.

From following up the initial study sample into other



stages it was hoped to gain an insight into the sequences of the changes and development of the student teachers' and beginning teachers' problems. This might illuminate the conclusion reached from the survey results as to the processes of the development and changes in the students' problems by using this different method of inquiry. It might also throw some light upon the conclusion reached from the initial study which was cross sectional in nature.

The same method used with them (informal interviews) during the initial study was used with them again. As well as using the same set of questions used in the interviews during the initial study, further questions were added to see whether the problems they have expressed in the previous stage have continued to represent problems for them in their following stages or not. For instance, the problems expressed by second year student teachers were grouped together and in the case where the third year students did not mention a problem that they had mentioned the previous year when they were at 2nd year, they were asked questions such as:

- Last year when you were in the second year some of you mentioned the problem of embarrassment. How do you find it this year? Do some of you still have this problem?

In either responses to such questions, whether negative or positive probing was followed to know why.

Similar questions were asked in relation to the rest of the problems the students mentioned the previous year but did not mention in the third year.

Third year students were also asked about the problems they did not mention but were mentioned by 3rd year students in the initial study the previous year. The following question is an example:

- Last year the students in the third year complained about the class size in schools. How do you find it?

Similarly, beginning teachers who were in the third year the previous year were asked about problems they did not mention but had mentioned the previous year. They were also reminded of problems they did not express but had been expressed by first year teachers in the previous year.

Eleven students and beginning teachers represented the sample of the follow-up study. The whole number of the initial study of 2nd year students (six students) were followed up into third year. One of the 3rd year initial study sample was dropped because he took an administrative job after graduation. Thus, only five students were followed-up into their first year of teaching.

CHAPTER FIVE

FACTOR ANALYSIS



## CHAPTER FIVE

## FACTOR ANALYSIS

This chapter aims at describing and analysing the findings of the student teachers' and beginning teachers' survey using factor analysis as a way of grouping the items and the statements constituting the survey instruments. It consists of three sections. The first section deals with the classification of the student teachers' and beginning teachers' problems. The second section deals with the classification of their beliefs. Both sections are followed by discussion and conclusion. The third section's aim is to locate the relationship, if any, between the factors identified from student teachers' problems and factors identified from their beliefs. From the nature of the relationships established, a conclusion is drawn.

(a) Classification of Student Teachers' and Beginning Teachers' Problems

It has been mentioned earlier that the second section of Questionnaire No.1 which was used to survey student teachers' and beginning teachers' problems in Yemen included 52 items. Attempting to handle this number of items individually is restricted by some limitations. There appear to be two main kinds of limitations. The first is a very practical one. To discuss the patterns of results for each of the 52 items separately would be a

time and space consuming task for the writer and would present the reader not only with a very boring repetitive exercise, going through a similar set of issues 52 times, but also with cognitive overload of enormous proportions. The second relates to errors of data collection, where any single item may have unintended connotations because of the way it was expressed, or may be ambiguous or unclear in its meaning, or may have unintended associations because of its positioning in the questionnaire. In any or all of these respects, the effects may be systematic or random. They may influence all respondents in much the same way, or one category (e.g. females, or students from one institute, or all beginning teachers) in a different way from others, thus introducing systematic distortion, or they may be different for different individuals, introducing random error and reducing the reliability of the results. If, on the other hand, several different items can be understood as different measures of a single type of problem, those dangers can be substantially reduced, i.e. the likelihood of systematic error is decreased and reliability is automatically improved.

Given the disadvantages involved in dealing with the items individually, an attempt was made to reduce such items to small or large groups of items with a view to reducing error and to facilitating reporting, through the use of Factor Analysis. According to Fruchter (1954), it is a method of analysing a set of observations from their inter-correlations to determine whether the variations

represented can be accounted for adequately by a number of basic categories smaller than that with which the investigation was started. It is a method which groups items according to similar patterns of variation i.e. covariation across the total population, not for example according to relative average ratings of items. It is, therefore, a manner of grouping items which highlights patterns of differences among respondents, ignoring what they emphasise in common. As such, it is the most appropriate method for identifying dimensions of variation among respondents which could be used to replace the individual items as the elements in terms of which results would be reported and discussed. This method was used utilizing the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSSX).

The method used to extract factors was Principal Component Analysis. It was used because it is through it that each factor extracts the maximum amount of variance (i.e. the sum of squares of factor loadings is maximized on each factor) and gives the smallest possible residuals (Fruchter op.cit. p.99).

A scree plot was obtained to help in identifying the number of factors needed. According to Dennis Child (1970) there are two popular methods or criteria for the number of factors to be extracted; Kaiser's criterion and the Scree Test. According to Kaiser's criterion, only the



factors having latent roots greater than one are considered as common factors. The second method, the Scree Test, was chosen here because of its advantages for component analysis, in which the intrusion of unique variance is ignored, i.e. it overlaps with the common variance and as a result some unique variance creeps into all factors; the Scree Test identifies the optimum number of factors which can be taken out before the intrusion of non-common variance becomes serious (Dennis Child, op.cit. p.44). But the actual pattern of results in this case did not in fact indicate a cut-off point 'before the intrusion of non-common variance becomes serious'. Generally, the two criteria give quite similar results. In this case, using the Scree criterion, 18 factors were extracted, whereas the Kaiser criterion would have extracted 15 factors.

There are two general methods of rotation (i.e. redistribution of the variance among the factors); Oblique and Orthogonal. The orthogonal approach has the advantage of avoiding problems of ambiguity in interpretation. If the method used for extracting factors is Principal Component Analysis, the orthogonal rotation procedure offered is Varimax. This procedure is the most widely used method of orthogonal rotation, and has the attraction of maximizing the spread of loadings on each factor, i.e. in most cases maximizing the number of near-zero loadings and of high loadings.

For the purpose of interpreting the factors, only loadings

above .3 will be considered as significant.

Principal Component Analysis extracted 18 factors all accounting for 36% of the total variance. the following are these factors.

Factor 1: This factor accounted for 4.1% of the total variance. Most of the items loading on this factor appear to be concerned with the Institute's course training inadequacy. Therefore, it was termed "Course Training Inadequacy". The following are the items loading on this factor with the loading values:

No.	Item	Loading
50	Less attention is paid to teaching practice	.67
49	Not being adequately prepared as a class teacher	.63
51	Brevity of the Institute's course	.62
52	Lack of libraries in primary schools	.59
48	Less attention is paid to clerical training	.59
46	Not being adequately prepared as subject teacher	.48

Factor 2: This second factor accounted for 3.2% of the total variance. It was labelled "Teaching Competencies" because the majority of the items loading on this factor are concerned with competencies essential for teaching.

For example, it can be seen from the items loading high on this factor that it differentiates student teachers and beginning teachers most with reference to lesson presentation and preparation. The following is this factor:

No.	Item	Loading
11	How to present the lesson	.68
12	How to face pupils	.65
25	How to prepare the lesson	.58
8	Lack of time to prepare lessons adequately	.38
22	Short lesson periods in schools	.33
17	How to make pupils understand	.31
10	Maintaining class discipline	.30

Factor 3: This factor accounted for 2.4% of the total variance. The items loading on this factor tend to reflect diverse problems. Although this makes it difficult to interpret, the items seem to imply some complaints of not receiving help with teaching problems. Therefore it was characterized "Lack of Help with Teaching Problems". The following are the items constituting this factor:

No.	Item	Loading
32	Lack of time to spend with individual pupils	.71
18	Lack of help and guidance	.63
36	Criticism by supervisors in the class	.49
20	How to know pupils' needs	.33



Factor 4: This factor accounted for 2.4% of the total variance. It was termed "Difficulties from Pupils and the Curriculum" because the majority of the items loading on this factor demonstrate the student teachers' and beginning teachers' concerns in relation to pupils' attitudes towards learning, pupils criticism of their teachers, and concerns in relation to their curriculum. The following is this factor:

No.	Item	Loading
26	Poorly motivated pupils	.65
33	Being criticised by pupils	.53
27	Curriculum unsuitability to pupils standards	.47
30	Not being introduced to primary school curriculum	.40
36	Criticism by supervisors in the class	.39

Factor 5: This factor accounted for 2.3% of the total variance. It is quite clear from the items loading on this factor that the issue of being respected, accepted and recognized by both the system and society is central. Therefore, this factor was labelled "Lack of Respect and Recognition".

No.	Item	Loading
38	Lack of recognition and encouragement	.70
37	Low status of the teaching profession	.56
5	Lack of promotion opportunities	.46
6	Lack of consultation by administration	.43

Factor 6: This factor accounted for 2.1% of the total variance. The majority of the items loading on this factor seem to reflect the Institute's courses' irrelevance to the realities of the school. Therefore, this factor was termed "Institute's Course Irrelevance".

No.	Item	Loading
45	Institute's course negligence of the primary school realities	.71
42	Less attention is being paid to pupils' assessment	.48
43	Supervisors disagreement on evaluation	.37
30	Not being introduced to primary school curriculum	.37
41	Weaknesses in teaching some subjects in the Institute	.31

Factor 7: In this factor, which consists of three items, the two items loading high are concerned with the disorder in the classroom and maintaining class discipline. Therefore, it was labelled as "Class Control". It accounted for 1.8% of the total variance. The following is this factor:

No.	Item	Loading
9	The disorder in the classroom	.68
10	Maintaining class discipline	.57
43	Supervisors' disagreement on evaluation	.40

Factor 8: This factor accounted for 2.2% of the total variance. It was termed "Inadequacy of School Material Conditions and Administrative Relations". The items loading on this factor are listed below:

No.	Item	Loading
19	Lack of suitable furniture in the school	.68
1	Inadequate school building	.56
21	Unhelpful headteachers	.52
37	Low status of the teaching profession	.30

Factor 9: It accounted for 1.6% of the total variance. The items loading on this factor are concerned with competencies connected with maximizing teaching efficiency.



Therefore, it was termed "Teaching Competencies". The following is this factor:

No.	Item	Loading
35	Knowing what AVAs to use in teaching	.59
44	How to interest pupils in one's lesson	.53
34	Inadequate supply of textbooks	.47
20	How to know pupils' needs	.41
25	How to prepare the lesson plan	.31

Factor 10: This factor accounted for 2% of the total variance. The items loading on this factor seem to reflect students' and beginning teachers' concern about demands of teaching, particularly those related to the realities of the Yemeni classroom. Such a factor was termed "Teaching Demands":

No.	Item	Loading
4	Mixed ability classes	.68
3	Large class size	.60
22	Short lesson periods in schools	.33
31	Density of pupils' curriculum	.32

Factor 11: This factor accounted for 2.1% of the total variance. The items loading high on this factor appear to be concerned with coping with the course. Therefore,

it was termed "Coping with the Course":

No.	Item	Loading
23	Difficulty of the Institute's course	.71
47	Density of the Institute's course	.53
41	Weaknesses in teaching some subjects in the Institute	.43
8	Lack of time to prepare lessons adequately	.31

Factor 12: This factor accounted for 1.9% of the total variance. It does not seem to be easy to characterize due to the diversity of the problems the items loading on it reflect. The following is this factor:

No.	Item	Loading
13	Irregular attendance of pupils	.62
16	Inability to put into practice some of the theoretical guidance	.60
6	Lack of consultation by administration	.35
42	Less attention is being paid to pupils' assessment	-.34

Factor 13: This factor accounted for 1.7% of the total variance. The items loading high on this factor appear to concentrate on the inefficiency of the Institute course. Therefore, it was termed "Inefficiency of Training". The following is this factor:

No.	Item	Loading
15	Negligence of specialization in the Institute	.63
29	Less attention is paid to methods of teaching	.59
47	Density of the Institute's course	.38

Factor 14: This factor accounted for 1.3% of the total variance. Only two items loaded on this factor. The item with the highest loading on this factor focuses on students' and beginning teachers' security in the class. Therefore, it was termed "Security in the Class". The following is this factor:

No.	Item	Loading
24	Embarrassment in the class	.71
17	How to make pupils understand	.42

Factor 15: This factor is a single item factor. It accounted for 1.1% of the total variance. The item loading on this factor reflects the student teachers' and beginning teachers' concerns about the relationships with parents. Such a factor was labelled "Relationships with Parents":

No.	Item	Loading
7	Uncooperative parents	.74



Factor 16: This is also a single item factor which accounted for 1.1% of the total variance. This factor was termed "Teaching Load", because the item loading on this factor reflected the student teachers' and beginning teachers' concern about having too much work. The following is this factor:

No.	Item	Loading
14	Too much work to do	.74

Factor 17: It accounted for 1.4% of the total variance. The items loading on it seem to focus on the absence and quality of materials, in particular the absence of teaching aids and the unsuitability of the pupils' curriculum. Therefore, it was termed "Teaching Materials":

No.	Item	Loading
28	Unavailability of teaching aids	.78
27	Curriculum unsuitability to pupils' standards	.35

Factor 18: This factor accounted for 1.6% of the total variance. Three items made up this factor. One loading positively high, the other two loading negatively. It seems to reflect mainly the student teachers' and beginning teachers' concerns about salary:

No.	Item	Loading
2	Inadequate salary	.73
22	Short lesson periods in schools	-.43
39	Poor relations among teachers	-.35

## DISCUSSION

From the above results it can be seen that four of the factors identified are primarily concerned with the Institute's course. These were factors 1, 6, 11 and 13. All the items that seemed to be concerned with the Institute's course were included in these factors. Factor 1 seems to be concerned with the things that student teachers and beginning teachers felt they ought to be taught, i.e. primarily concerned with the curriculum and adequacy of what it should cover, whereas factor 6 appears to be more concerned with the realism of the course, i.e. with the relevance of theory to practice. Factor 11 seems to be concerned with coping with the course, but factor 13 seems to be difficult to distinguish from the rest of the factors where there is an association of concerns about different aspects of the course.

Factors 2 and 9 are concerned with teaching competencies. Almost all the items that seemed to relate to competencies appeared to be included in these two factors. These two

factors appear to be distinguishable in that the items loading on factor 2 seemed to reflect student teachers' and beginning teachers' preoccupation with competencies that relate to lesson preparation and performance, while factor 9 seems to be concerned with competencies that relate to making teaching more effective where it seemed to reflect student teachers' and beginning teachers' concerns about how to interest pupils, how to know their needs and what AVAs to use.

Factor analysis drew up two other very clear groups of items. One is factor 5 "Lack of Respect and Recognition". This factor seems to group all items that appear to be concerned with a felt need for status and encouragement. The other is factor 10 "Teaching demands". It should be pointed out that the two items, concerned with the time and pupils' curriculum, which are loaded on this factor more than .3 are only just above .3, whereas the two closely related concerns which emerged as of major importance in the initial exploratory study, class size and mixed abilities, are reflected in the two items which dominate this factor. Thus, this factor could be seen as being primarily about class size and composition. It should be noted that there seem to be some items which could be classified as teaching demands that were not included in these factors. These items were 8, 14, 27, 31 and 32. Items 8, 14 and 32 have to do with time pressure and teaching load, while items 27 and 31 have to do with pupils' curriculum.



Factors 3, 4, 7 and 8 are not clear cut in that none of them is dominated by a group of items which one can say are obviously similar in the same way as the eight factors already discussed. Each of these factors does suggest a tentative, possibly meaningful and interesting grouping of items. One would have to be cautious, however, in adopting such categories for use throughout the analysis of results but these factors do suggest hypothetical groupings which might be considered at later stages.

Factors such as 14, 15, 16 and 18 seem to be overwhelmingly dominated by one item. It is an item which is not highly correlated with other items.

It has been noticed that factor 12 was almost impossible to interpret due to the different items it includes.

There are some items which do not seem to have any high loading on any of the factors such as items 12, 39 and 40.

These findings seem to be fruitful in that meaningful groups of items were identified according to how they co-vary across the whole sample. As was seen, some of these factors were interpretable, some were single item factors and some were not clear-cut. Most significantly, however, only one-third of the total variance was captured by these factors. It can be concluded, therefore, that

the variation in student teachers' and beginning teachers' concerns must be very complex and can not adequately be summed up in terms of small numbers of dimensions of variation. The structure revealed by the factor analysis is not, therefore, adequate for it to be used for reporting the results. However, several categories identified by the factor analysis are clear and interesting enough to be used in reflecting on results from other aspects of the survey.

(b) Classification of Student Teachers' and Beginning Teachers' Beliefs

It has been mentioned previously that in addition to surveying the student teachers' and beginning teachers' problems, their beliefs were also surveyed using Questionnaire No.2 and that this Questionnaire consisted of 71 statements. The limitations discussed in Section (a) of this chapter, in relation to the analysis of the 52 problems individually appear to be even more true when dealing with the 71 statements. Thus, due to the validity of the same reasons stated in relation to handling the problems, the same method used in grouping the student teachers' and beginning teachers' problems was used to group their beliefs, i.e. Factor Analysis.

In extracting factors the same procedures used in extracting factors regarding student teachers' and beginning teachers' problems was used here in relation to their beliefs and

the same criterion employed for the significance of factor loadings in relation to the problems was employed here in relation to the beliefs i.e. .3.

Twenty-seven rotated factors were extracted, all accounting for 34.3% of the total variance. The following are these factors.

Factor 1: This factor accounted for 2.3% of the total variance. The statements loading on this factor are beliefs which do not appear to have any obvious common focus of concern but appear to reflect student teachers' and beginning teachers' blame of people in positions of authority for some of their problems. The system of education, the institutes' courses, headteachers, inspectors and supervisors, are those who tend to be blamed. This factor was labelled "Blaming Authorities". The following are the beliefs loading on this factor.

No.	Statement	Loading
18	The teacher can not fulfil his work properly if his/her salary is postponed	.61
40	The guidance and instructions that are given to student teachers in the Institute do not agree with the reality	.52
66	Some supervisors and inspectors (external examiners) expect the students to do some things which are difficult to do	.48
32	Carrying out certain activities in the school is restricted by unqualified headteachers	.48
cont'd..		



13	The teacher is not given useful advice by inspectors	.46
16	The instruction provided by the Institute is intense to the extent that one does not fully benefit from it	.42
63	Primary school teacher does not get promotion which would increase his/her salary	.40

Factor 2: It accounted for 2.2% of the total variance.

Most of the statements loading on this factor are beliefs which seem to focus on why AVAs are necessary and what difficulties their absence entails for both the teacher and the pupils. This factor was termed "Importance and Absence of AVAs". The following is this factor:

No.	Statement	Loading
7	Without AVAs the outcomes of the teacher's efforts are reduced	.63
4	Without AVAs it is difficult to impart information to pupils	.59
24	Without AVAs pupils might not understand the lesson properly	.52
2	Preparing AVAs is a prerequisite for passing teaching practice	.47
3	Preparation of lessons makes it easier to explain lessons to pupils	.40
48	AVAs are a prerequisite for teaching	.39

Factor 3: It accounted for 1.7% of the total variance. It was labelled "Unqualified Head Teachers". All the statements loading on this factor reflect the student teachers' and beginning teachers' beliefs as to the difficulties and inconveniences unqualified headteachers cause. The following are these statements:

No.	Statement	Loading
46	Unqualified headteachers represent constraint to applying new ideas in education	.78
45	Wrong conduct arises from unqualified headteachers	.68
32	Carrying out certain activities in the school is restricted by unqualified headteachers	.35

Factor 4: It accounted for 1.7% of the total variance. The statements dominating this factor concern student teachers' and beginning teachers' beliefs in relation to the Institute's course. It seems specially concerned with students' opportunities to attain mastery of academic subjects (as in general secondary school), not so much with other aspects of the Institute's courses. The following is this factor:

No.	Statement	Loading
51	The subjects taught in the Institute are brief compared to the subjects taught in general secondary school	.74

cont'd..

50	When one is faced with problems, he/she does not find sources to refer to in order to solve them	.42
57	Little time is allocated to teaching practice	.39
42	Teacher training Institute's curriculum should prepare students for university specialization	.39
52	To be able to teach in higher primary classes there should be different sections in the Institute (Science and Arts)	.38

Factor 5: This factor accounted for 1.7% of the total variance. It comprises different kinds of statements all of which appear to be about the student teachers' and beginning teachers' beliefs in relation to some conditions of work. Therefore, it was termed "Working Conditions - Related Beliefs". The following are these beliefs:

No.	Statement	Loading
8	Large classes demand the teacher to consider age-difference among pupils	.67
54	Teaching in the open air reduces the pupils gains	.41
56	The teacher can not sequence the information to pupils if they do not attend regularly	.38
5	Pupils cannot have mastery of the content because of the density of the curriculum	.37
12	Writing good lesson plans requires a great deal of time and effort	.34

cont'd.



47	To answer pupils' questions one should acquaint himself/herself with the content of the lesson beforehand	.32
36	Large classes require the teacher to deal with pupils of different abilities	.31
33	Teaching large classes is exhausting	.30

Factor 6: This factor accounted for 1.6% of the total variance. It was termed "Class Control". The two items loading highly on this factor seem to concern student teachers' and beginning teachers' beliefs about class control. Even being able to answer pupils' questions and having good AVAs can be seen as preventive measures to avoid disorder in the classroom. The following are the items constituting this factor:

No.	Statement	Loading
49	Maintaining order in the class is necessary in order to pass teaching practice	.71
53	Controlling the class is essential for giving supervisors a good impression	.63
47	To answer pupils' questions one should acquaint himself/herself with the content of the lesson beforehand	.36
48	AVAs are a prerequisite for teaching	.35

Factor 7: This factor accounted for 1.5% of the total variance. Although the majority of the statements loading on this factor appear to be concerned with student teachers' beliefs concerning success and failure in teaching, nevertheless, they seem to deal with very different issues.

No.	Statement	Loading
69	When the student teacher teaches for the first time he/she fears that pupils might not understand him/her	.64
27	Writing lesson plans is necessary to show the inspectors and head-teachers	.47
71	Pupils' criticism of the teacher causes embarrassment	.38
68	One should satisfy supervisors with the lesson he/she teaches in order to get good grades	.34
61	The administration does not take the teacher's opinion in some matters	-.31
70	Covering the syllabus is difficult because of the density of the curriculum	.30

Factor 8: This factor accounted for 1.3% of the total variance. Statements loading on this factor are beliefs related to conditions under which the teachers are working. Therefore, it was labelled "Conditions of Work". Although the three statements of this factor are concerned with conditions of work, they are an odd

selection of such items, dealing with textbooks, class size and buildings respectively. Thus, it is not easy to understand what is distinctive about this factor. The following are the items constituting this factor.

No.	Statement	Loading
20	Some textbooks lack sufficient illustration	.74
22	Large classes are difficult to control	.50
19	The insufficient number of rooms in school makes it difficult to carry out certain parts of the curriculum activities	.36

Factor 9: It accounted for 1.1% of the total variance. It includes statements dealing with different issues, with pupils' ages, class size and teachers' qualities. Such selection of a variety of beliefs makes it difficult to interpret.

No.	Statement	Loading
33	Pupils of small age can not understand the curriculum	.72
26	The good teacher is the one who controls the class	.40
21	In classes of large numbers pupils can not understand easily	.35



Factor 10: This factor accounted for 1.1% of the total variance. The statements loading on this factor tend to focus on different issues. The statement loading high on this factor focuses on the training inadequacies. The rest are beliefs as to the pupils' attainments. The following are these statements. This factor seems to be difficult to interpret.

No.	Statement	Loading
62	The teacher training institute's graduates feel that they are not qualified to teach in some of the higher primary classes	.67
54	Teaching in the open air reduces the pupils' gains	.36
43	Without parents' support the teacher's efforts are futile	.35
12	Writing good lesson plans requires a great deal of time and effort	-.32

Factor 11: It accounted for 1.3% of the total variance. The beliefs with high positive loadings on this factor seem to be focussing on the teacher's difficulties caused by the pupils' curriculum. This factor also includes one statement with a large negative loading which deals with difficulties in dealing with pupils. Such a selection might imply a contrast between beliefs related to teachers' difficulties as to pupils' curriculum and beliefs related to the difficulties of dealing with the size and diversity of classes.

No.	Statement	Loading
34	It is difficult to teach certain lessons because the content is unfamiliar to the teacher	.63
70	Covering the syllabus is difficult because of the density of the curriculum	.34
2	Preparing AVAs is a prerequisite for passing teaching practice	.31
36	Large classes require the teacher to deal with pupils of different abilities	-.57

Factor 12: This factor accounted for 1.4% of the total variance. The majority of the statements loading on this factor appear to relate to the student teachers' and beginning teachers' beliefs regarding teaching large classes where they believe, to varying degrees, that due to the big number of pupils in classes and the limited period allocated to the lesson it is difficult to attend to them individually, control them, and achieve similar academic levels with them. Therefore this factor was labelled "Beliefs Related to Large Classes".

No.	Statement	Loading
14	One can not attend to every pupil in the class because of the limited period	.70
67	Certain theoretical guidance is needed after graduation	.41

cont'd..

65	In large classes the teacher can not achieve similar levels with all pupils	.40
22	Large classes are difficult to control	.31

Factor 13: This factor accounted for 1.4% of the total variance. The statements loading highly on this factor appear to focus on different issues, thus giving rise to difficulties in its interpretation. The following are the items constituting this factor.

No.	Statement	Loading
28	The good teacher is the one who controls the class	.64
30	The attainments are reduced in teaching mixed ability classes	.53
6	More able pupils lose interest in mixed ability classes	.45
66	Some supervisors and inspectors (external examiners) expect the students to do some things which are difficult to do	.31

Factor 14: It accounted for 1.2% of the total variance. It consists only of two statements. Both of these statements loading high on this factor reflected beliefs about different issues. One represents student teachers' and beginning teachers' beliefs about how to avoid embarrassing situations, the other is focusing on the importance of textbooks. Therefore, the factor is left without characterization. The following is this factor.



No.	Statement	Loading
29	Gaining experience during teaching practice is necessary to avoid embarrassing situations in the future	.66
38	Writing on the blackboard for pupils does not fulfil the function of the textbook	.64

Factor 15: This factor accounted for 1.2% of the total variance. Two of the three statements, particularly of the highest loadings, demonstrate student teachers' and beginning teachers' beliefs as to the importance of textbooks and the difficulties their absence causes for the teacher. Therefore, such a factor was termed "Textbooks Related Beliefs". The following is this factor.

No.	Statement	Loading
11	Without textbooks it is difficult to teach certain subjects	.74
64	Textbooks save the teacher's time and efforts	.38
52	To be able to teach in higher primary classes there should be different sections in the Institute (Science and Arts)	.37

Factor 16: It accounted for 1.1% of the total variance. It consists of three statements, two loading positively, the third loading negatively. The emphasis of all three statements seems to be upon the teacher preparing himself/

herself as a way of ensuring security. Consequently, this factor was termed "Ensuring Security in the Class". The following is this factor:

No.	Statement	Loading
25	To avoid embarrassing situations one should prepare the lesson well	.66
47	To answer pupils' questions one should acquaint himself/herself with the content of the lesson beforehand	.34
31	The quality of ready made AVAs is better than the ones made by the teacher	-.49

Factor 17: It accounted for 1% of the total variance.

The statements loading high on this factor appear to demonstrate students' and beginning teachers' beliefs about problems associated with teaching in large classes. Therefore, this factor was termed "Large Class Teaching Related Beliefs".

No.	Statement	Loading
44	In large classes which comprise different ages the older children lose interest	.68
65	In large classes the teacher cannot achieve similar levels with all pupils	.41
68	One should satisfy supervisors with the lesson he/she teaches	.30

Factor 18: This factor accounted for .9% of the total variance. It consisted of two statements, but it seemed to be dominated by one statement which has a high loading value. It has to do with the belief that the absence of textbooks causes learning difficulties for pupils. Therefore it was termed "Absence of Textbooks Related Beliefs".

No.	Statement	Loading
60	The unavailability of text-books makes it difficult for pupils to understand	.73
50	When one is faced with problems he/she does not find sources to refer to in order to solve them	.30

Factor 19: This factor accounted for 1.2% of the total variance. There does not appear to be a very clear coherence in this factor due to the diversity of the emphasis of the three statements loading on it.

No.	Statement	Loading
15	It is necessary for student teachers to have an idea of the curriculum they are going to teach to pupils	.76
6	More able pupils lose interest in mixed ability classes	.43
9	It is difficult to teach certain lessons because some textbooks do not present full information about the lesson	.32



Factor 20: It accounted for .8% of the total variance. It is a single statement factor which reflects student teachers' and beginning teachers' belief concerning the difficulties caused to pupils by sharing textbooks. Such a factor was termed "Unavailability of Textbooks".

No.	Statement	Loading
37	Sharing textbooks makes it difficult for pupils to study	.77

Factor 21: This factor accounted for 1.3% of the total variance. The three statements loading on this factor seem to emphasise different issues. Therefore, such a factor does not seem to be easy to interpret.

No.	Statement	Loading
58	Many pupils lack motivation for learning	.75
21	In classes of large numbers pupils can not understand easily	.41
43	Without parents' support the teacher's efforts are futile	.40

Factor 22: It accounted for .8% of the total variance. It was labelled "Large Class Related Beliefs" because the two statements loading on this factor are concerned with problems associated with teaching large class sizes.

No.	Statement	Loading
41	Large classes are a source of disorder	.71
33	Teaching large classes is exhausting	.31

Factor 23: This factor accounted for .9% of the total variance. It consists of two different beliefs, but it seemed to be dominated by a belief that relates to the material conditions of schools. Therefore it was labelled "School Material Conditions".

No.	Statement	Loading
59	The child likes the school when he finds suitable seats, a good atmosphere, good ventilation and treatment	.73
55	Being corrected by supervisors in front of pupils is frustrating	.36

Factor 24: It accounted for 1% of the total variance. This factor also consists of two statements. The highest loading statement is also concerned with school material conditions. Therefore, it was termed again "School Material Conditions".

No.	Statement	Loading
39	Unless education is carried out in proper buildings, educational development can not be achieved	.75
43	Without parents' support the teacher's efforts are futile	.34

Factor 25: This factor accounted for .9% of the total variance. It is dominated by one statement which loaded highly. This statement is concerned with the belief that pupils achieve less when they do not receive care from home. It was termed "Parental Care".

No.	Statement	Loading
17	Pupils achieve less when they do not receive care from parents	.76
48	AVAs are a prerequisite for teaching	.31

Factor 26: It accounted for .9% of the total variance. It is a two-statement factor, but the loading that dominates this factor is that of the belief that the presence of supervisors in the class causes embarrassment to student teachers. Such a factor was termed "Security in the Class". The following is this factor:



No.	Statement	Loading
10	The presence of the supervisor in the class causes embarrassment	.70
13	The teacher is not given useful advice by Inspectors	.35

Factor 27: It accounted for 1% of the total variance. This factor consists of 3 statements. Two loading positively, the third loading negatively. The dominating belief has to do with the disorder in the classroom. Therefore it was termed "Class Disorder".

No.	Statement	Loading
1	Disorder in the class prevents pupils from learning	.75
64	Textbooks save the teacher's time and efforts	.31
42	Teacher training institutes' curriculum should prepare students for university specialization	-.33

## DISCUSSION

Among the factors identified above, factor 1 seems to be the largest. It is not only the largest, but it is an interesting one in that it included various beliefs which, irrespective of the diversity of the issues they reflect, seem to focus on blaming the educational authorities.

The results presented above show that there are three factors which seem to be concerned with beliefs relating to large classes. These factors were 12, 17 and 22. The majority of the beliefs that seemed to be concerned with large classes were included in these factors. (There are only three statements which appear to have a connection with large classes that were not included in such factors. These were statements 8, 21 and 36. They loaded on different factors). The feature characterizing these statements is that they tend to focus on the demands teaching large classes impose on the teacher. Two of the three factors identified i.e. factors 12 and 22, appear to focus on beliefs relating to the problems which large classes bring about for the teacher, while factor 17 appears to be characterized by its focus on difficulties which large classes create for pupils.

Factors 15, 18 and 20 concentrate on textbooks. Not all the beliefs that appear to have a connection with textbooks are included in these factors. In fact these factors, especially factors 18 and 20, seem to be mostly dominated by a single statement. Three statements were not included in these factors. These were statements 9, 20 and 38. They are beliefs related to the quality of textbooks. Two of the factors identified i.e. factors 18 and 20 are characterized by their focus on beliefs related to the problems which a lack of textbooks entails for pupils. The third factor i.e. factor 15 is concerned

with beliefs related to problems which a lack of textbooks entails for the teacher.

Factors 5 and 8 seem to be characterized by their focus on beliefs related to the working conditions. Both factors included beliefs related to different issues which make it difficult to distinguish the focuses of the two factors.

Factor analysis resulted in identifying some clear groups of beliefs such as factor 2 "AVAs", factor 3 "Unqualified Headteachers", factor 4 "Course Inadequacy", Factor 6 "Class Control", Factor 15 "Textbooks", Factor 16 "Ensuring Security in the Class".

Although some factors were described by some labels such as factors 7, 8 and 11, they do not seem to be clear cut in that while it is possible to interpret the similarities among the beliefs grouped on each factor, there are not groups of items which I could have predicted.

Factors 10,13,14,19 and 21 did not seem to be interpretable because of the diversity of the beliefs of which they consisted.

Several factors are primarily dominated by one statement such as factors 18,19,20,21,23,24,25,26 and 27.



The results have provided some understandable groups of beliefs according to how they vary across the total population. But given the percentage of variance captured by the factors, where only one-third was captured, the ambiguity of some of the factors and the dominance of single statements on some factors, not all the categories identified can be taken as useful tools for further analysis.

(c) The Relationship Between Factors Identified From Q1 and Factors Identified from Q2

This section attempts to locate the relationships, if any, which exist between factors identified in relation to student teachers' and beginning teachers' problems on one hand and the factors identified in relation to their beliefs on the other.

Factor 7 "Class Control" identified in relation to student teachers' and beginning teachers' problems seems to bear some relationship with Factor 6 "Class Control" identified as to their beliefs. Inspection of what items or statements these factors include showed that factor 7, which relates to student teachers' and beginning teachers' problems included items like 'the disorder in the classroom', and 'maintaining class discipline'. On the other hand, factor 6 included beliefs which might have an indication of why such problems are of concern. In other words, statements in factor 6 may explain why these problems are of concern

where it included beliefs such as 'maintaining order in the class is necessary in order to pass teaching practice', and 'controlling the class is essential for giving supervisors a good impression'.

In Questionnaire 1 a single item factor was identified. This factor is concerned with the "Relationship with Parents". The single item included in this factor was 'uncooperative parents'. In Questionnaire 2 also a factor dominated by one item, i.e. the statement 'pupils achieve less when they do not receive care from parents', was identified and termed "Parental Care". Such a relationship might demonstrate why the uncooperative parents represent a concern to student teachers and beginning teachers.

Factor 14, "Security in the Class" was dominated by one item i.e. 'embarrassment in the class'. Two factors in relation to student teachers' and beginning teachers' beliefs were identified. Both seemed to be concerned with student teachers' and beginning teachers' security in classes. These were factors 16 and 26. The beliefs included in these factors, which appeared to be dominated by one statement, may throw some light on what causes the embarrassment and on ways of avoiding it in the classes.

One of the factors identified in relation to student teachers' and beginning teachers' problems was Factor 17 "Teaching Materials". It appeared to focus, in particular,



on the unavailability of teaching aids (AVAs). In its focus on this problem it appeared to bear a relationship to factor 2 "Importance and Absence of AVAs" which was identified in relation to student teachers' and beginning teachers' beliefs. The problem may be understood in that the beliefs included in factor 2 seem to state the necessity of AVAs and the difficulties their absence would cause for the teacher and pupils.

Factor 8 "Inadequacy of School Material Conditions and Administrative Relations" was identified in relation to student teachers' and beginning teachers' problems. The highest loadings were of those items dealing with inadequacy of school material conditions such as 'lack of suitable furniture in the school' and 'inadequate school building'. Two factors dominated by one statement were identified in relation to beliefs focusing on school material conditions. These were factors 23 and 24. The beliefs included in these two factors appear to demonstrate why adequate buildings and suitable furniture seemed to be essential.

Among the factors identified in relation to student teachers' and beginning teachers' problems, Factor 10 "Teaching Demands" included problems such as 'large class size and short lesson periods in schools'. On the other hand, among the factors identified as to their beliefs, factors 12, 17 and 22 included beliefs which seem to explain why such problems i.e. 'large class size



and short lesson periods' may be of concern to students and beginning teachers.

It may be noted, and the reader may have observed already, that the relationship that seemed to exist between factors relating to student teachers' and beginning teachers' problems and factors relating to their beliefs are among a few factors and that these factors were either single item or statement factors or were dominated by one item or statement. But there did not appear to be a clear relationship between factors on which large groups of problems or statements were loaded. Examination of relationships between the two sets of factor analysis results has not therefore been helpful in giving understanding of the structuring of variations in concerns and beliefs within the population.

Two main conclusions can be drawn from this apparent lack of any strong relationship between the factor structures for the two questionnaires. A practical conclusion, about the way the reporting of results is to be organized, is that it seems unlikely that it will be helpful to attempt to integrate the reporting of the results for the two questionnaires. The plan to do that will not be abandoned just yet, but must be questioned. The other conclusion is a more theoretical one. If the differences among students and beginning teachers in their attitudes, beliefs and concerns were structured in terms of a few major ideological dimensions, such as

progressiveness, authoritarianism or for- and- against the system, one could expect such dimensions to be apparent in the results of both factor analyses. The lack of obvious common dimensions of this kind reinforces the picture given by the lack of major factors in each of the analyses, and by the relatively small proportion of the variance extracted by large numbers of factors. Thus, the variations identified among student teachers and beginning teachers in their beliefs and concerns are many, diverse and quite specific in focus, and as such are not perhaps very fundamental to an understanding of their individual or their shared ways of thinking about teaching.

CHAPTER SIX

STUDENT TEACHERS' AND BEGINNING TEACHERS'  
PROBLEMS AND BELIEFS



## CHAPTER SIX

## STUDENT TEACHERS' AND BEGINNING TEACHERS' PROBLEMS AND BELIEFS

The main objective of this chapter is to discuss the relative importance attached to the problems and the relative validity of the belief statements asserted by the study population as a whole. The first section deals with the relative concern attached to the problems, but before discussing the relative concern for the problems, the scores of the total population in terms of frequency counts and percentages for the different responses are presented. The second section deals with the relative validity of the beliefs. Before discussing the relative validity of the belief statements, the responses of the total population in terms of frequency counts and percentages for the 71 statements are presented. The third section discusses the relationships between problems and beliefs.

(a) The Relative Concern of Problems

It was pointed out earlier that Questionnaire No.1 was concerned with investigating the problems of students and beginning teachers in the Yemen and that the second section of this questionnaire consisted of 52 items which the students and beginning teachers were requested to rate according to the degree that these problems represented

concern for them on a scale labelled 'Represents Great Concern', 'Represents Moderate Concern', 'Represents Slight Concern', 'Represents No Concern', and a fifth category 'Not Sure'.

Completed questionnaires were brought from the Yemen to Stirling for analysis. 789 useable questionnaires were found. Data from these questionnaires were coded and typed into the computer for the purpose of analysis. Statistical analyses were used utilizing subprogrammes from the Statistical Packages for the Social Sciences (extra version) (SPSSX).

For the purpose of investigating the generalizability of the problems, the Frequencies Subprogramme was used to obtain frequency counts and percentages for each item, for each point on the scale for the total population.

The following table ( 6.1 ) presents the items according to their order in the questionnaire, together with the frequency counts and percentages for these problems for the total population:

Table 6.1 Items according to their order in the questionnaire together with frequency counts and percentages for the total population

No.	Item	Great Concern		Moderate Concern		Slight Concern		Represent No Concern		Not Sure	
		F	PCT	F	PCT	F	PCT	F	PCT	F	PCT
1	Inadequate school building	544	70	115	15	48	6	37	5	37	5
2	Inadequate salary	477	61	139	18	65	8	79	10	23	3
3	Large class size	492	63	170	22	60	8	42	5	23	3
4	Mixed ability classes	340	44	179	23	120	16	81	11	49	6
5	Lack of promotion opportunities	427	55	115	15	75	10	83	11	79	10
6	Lack of effective consultation by administration	316	41	160	21	77	10	63	8	149	19
7	Uncooperative parents	539	69	92	12	64	8	40	5	49	6
8	Lack of time to prepare lessons adequately	306	40	165	22	106	14	119	16	65	9
9	The disorder in the classroom	417	53	121	16	121	16	85	11	36	5
10	Maintaining class discipline	586	75	95	12	55	7	33	4	8	1
11	How to present the lesson	523	68	103	13	59	8	59	8	28	4
12	How to face pupils	301	39	141	18	111	14	172	22	42	5
13	Irregular attendance of pupils	465	61	150	20	62	8	47	6	44	6
14	Too much work to do	355	46	170	22	74	10	98	13	74	10
15	Negligence of specialization in the institute's course	472	61	82	11	58	7	113	15	52	7
16	Inability to put into practice some of the theoretical guidance	344	45	166	22	90	12	72	9	99	13
17	How to make pupils understand	435	57	119	15	84	11	58	8	72	9



No.	Item	Represent Great Concern		Represent Moderate Concern		Represent Slight Concern		Represent No Concern		Not Sure	
		F	PCT	F	PCT	F	PCT	F	PCT	F	PCT
18	Lack of help and guidance	387	51	157	21	93	12	65	9	56	7
19	Lack of suitable furniture in the school	518	66	117	15	53	7	52	7	44	6
20	How to know pupils' needs	388	50	188	24	88	11	43	6	72	9
21	Unhelpful head teachers	435	56	111	14	76	10	41	5	114	15
22	Short lesson periods in schools	275	35	181	23	135	17	125	16	62	8
23	Difficulty of the institute's course content	291	38	146	19	108	14	188	24	37	5
24	Embarrassment in the class	296	40	89	12	81	11	216	29	61	8
25	How to prepare the lesson plan	230	67	100	13	52	7	87	11	18	2
26	Poorly motivated pupils	442	56	156	20	62	8	47	6	76	10
27	Curriculum unsuitability to pupils' standards	442	57	124	16	71	9	63	8	78	10
28	Unavailability of teaching aids	592	75	120	15	42	5	23	3	10	1
29	Less attention is paid to methods of teaching	400	51	136	17	86	11	89	11	68	9
30	Not being introduced to primary school curriculum	366	47	158	20	106	14	102	13	43	6
31	Density of pupils' curriculum	330	43	160	21	95	12	82	11	99	13
32	Lack of time to spend with individual pupils	470	60	144	18	70	9	50	6	49	6
33	Being criticised by pupils	247	32	114	15	128	17	206	27	79	10
34	Inadequate supply of textbooks	610	78	84	11	41	5	29	4	20	3
35	Knowing what AVAs to use in teaching	459	59	157	20	87	11	53	7	27	3

No.	Item	Represent Great Concern		Represent Moderate Concern		Represent Slight Concern		Represent No Concern		Not Sure	
		F	PCT	F	PCT	F	PCT	F	PCT	F	PCT
36	Criticism by supervisors in the class	436	56	127	16	71	9	97	13	45	6
37	Low status of the teaching profession	508	65	89	11	33	4	72	9	85	11
38	Lack of recognition and encouragement	494	63	119	15	66	8	72	9	33	4
39	Poor relations among teachers	314	41	138	18	105	14	100	13	116	15
40	Unhelpful inspectors	272	35	171	22	90	12	115	15	134	17
41	Weakness in teaching some subjects in the institute	487	64	113	15	45	6	64	8	57	7
42	Less attention is being paid to pupils' assessment	433	56	138	18	64	8	68	8	79	10
43	Supervisors disagreement on evaluation	302	39	131	17	83	11	96	12	162	21
44	How to interest pupils in one's lesson	563	73	85	11	56	7	48	6	19	2
45	Institute's course negligence of the primary school realities	410	53	119	15	57	7	79	10	113	15
46	Not being adequately prepared as subject teacher	468	60	121	16	51	7	70	9	70	9
47	Density of the institute's course	351	45	168	22	82	11	141	18	30	4
48	Less attention is paid to clerical training	397	51	141	18	78	10	80	10	86	11
49	Not being adequately prepared as a class teacher	410	53	107	14	81	10	97	13	79	10
50	Less attention is paid to teaching practice	305	39	157	20	109	14	127	16	75	10
51	Brevity of the institute's course	263	34	158	20	94	12	149	19	110	14
52	Lack of libraries in primary schools	532	68	114	15	60	8	39	5	37	5



It can be seen from the above table that scores were made on each point of the scale, where the responses for each item ranged from 'Represents Great Concern' to 'Represents No Concern', plus the fifth point 'Not Sure', which was provided as a fifth alternative so as not to coerce students and beginning teachers into selecting one of the other four responses. That is, it was provided for respondents to use for items on which they were likely to lack information and for which therefore they would be uncertain whether or not the issue should be a cause for concern.

The scores in the above table show clearly that the majority of the problems seem to represent great concern for the majority of students and beginning teachers. Thirty-four of the items, representing 65%, were rated by the majority of respondents as representing great concern. The following table ( 6.2 ) presents the items, placed in order from the highest to the lowest percentage of the scores on the 'Represents Great Concern' point.

Table 6.2 Items rank ordered from the highest to the lowest percentage of the scores on the 'Represents Great Concern' point

No.	Item	%
34	Inadequate supply of textbooks	78
10	Maintaining class discipline	75
28	Unavailability of teaching aids	75
44	How to interest pupils in one's lesson	73
1	Inadequate school building	70
7	Uncooperative parents	69
11	How to present the lesson	68



No.	Item	%
52	Lack of libraries in primary schools	68
25	How to prepare the lesson plan	67
19	Lack of suitable furniture in the school	66
37	Low status of the teaching profession	65
41	Weakness in teaching some subjects in the institute	64
3	Large class size	63
38	Lack of recognition and encouragement	63
2	Inadequate salary	61
13	Irregular attendance of pupils	61
15	Neglect of specialization in the institute's course	61
32	Lack of time to spend with individual pupils	60
46	Not being adequately prepared as a subject teacher	60
35	Knowing what AVAs to use in teaching	59
17	How to make pupils understand	57
27	Curriculum unsuitability to pupils' standards	57
21	Unhelpful head teachers	56
26	Poorly motivated pupils	56
36	Criticism by supervisors in the class	56
42	Less attention is being paid to pupils' assessment in the institute's course	56
5	Lack of promotion opportunities	55
9	The disorder in the classroom	53
45	Institute's course negligence of the primary school realities	53
49	Not being adequately prepared as a class teacher	53
18	Lack of help and guidance	51

No.	Item	%
29	Less attention is paid to methods of teaching	51
48	Less attention is paid to clerical training	51
20	How to know pupils' needs	50
30	Not being introduced to primary school curriculum	47
14	Too much work to do	46
16	Inability to put into practice some of the theoretical guidance	45
47	Density of the institute's course	45
4	Mixed-ability classes	44
31	Density of pupils' curriculum	43
6	Lack of effective consultation by administration	41
39	Poor relations among teachers	41
8	Lack of time to prepare lessons adequately	40
24	Embarrassment in the class	40
12	How to face pupils	39
43	Supervisors disagreement on evaluation	39
50	Less attention is being paid to teaching practice	39
23	Difficulty of the institute's course content	38
22	Short lesson periods in school	35
40	Unhelpful inspectors	35
51	Brevity of the institute's course	34
33	Being criticised by pupils	32

It should be remembered, as was pointed out earlier, that the items were rated by all respondents with no justifiable basis having been established for simplifying the task by grouping these items into types of problem. It has also been pointed out that there were several ways of grouping the items. First there are the very broad kinds of categorization suggested by the literature, e.g. Fuller, Gibson, etc. There are the common sense groupings which I used in reporting the pilot study and which were at the very least not inconsistent with student teachers' and beginning teachers' common sense. There are also the groupings suggested by the use of factor analysis, reported in the previous chapter.

It should be pointed out that while the factor analysis was inevitably concerned with the kinds of differences there were between respondents, the present results inevitably tend to reflect what they emphasise, or do not emphasise, in common. Therefore, there is no logical reason why the groupings suggested by the factor analysis should be helpful in understanding the relative importance placed on the various problems by the population as a whole. The unusefulness of the factor analysis groupings stems from the tendency of items loading on some of the factors to vary very considerably in their frequency distributions regarding the relative concern attached to such items. This can be demonstrated through looking at the frequency distributions of the items loading on some of the factors.



For example, Factor 1 "Course Training Inadequacy" included six items. These were items 50, 49, 41, 52, 48 and 46.

It can be seen from the above list of items that these items varied in their relative importance they represent to respondents. For example, they varied in their frequency distributions between 39% and 68%. Another example is Factor 2 "Teaching Competencies" which included 7 items. These items were 11, 12, 25, 8, 22, 17 and 10. It can be seen that the frequency of such items tended to vary between 35% and 75%

This picture demonstrates the considerable variance in terms of the frequency distributions among the items grouped according to factor analysis. Therefore, the groupings suggested by factor analysis do not seem to be helpful in understanding the relative importance attached to the various problems by the total population. Thus, in discussing the results, I shall be using a framework of commonsense categories as I did in discussing the results of the initial exploratory study.

Among the 52 problems listed above according to the relative importance they represent to student teachers and beginning teachers, the largest group of problems appears to be associated with the institutes' courses. These were items 41, 15, 46, 42, 45, 49, 29, 48, 30, 47, 50, 23 and 51. The following table shows these items with the percentages

of the scores on the 'Represents Great Concern' point and their overall rank order:

Table 6.3 Items relating to institutes' courses

Item No.	41	15	46	42	45	49	
PCT 'Great Concern'	64%	61%	60%	56%	53%	53%	
Rank order overall	12th	15th=	18th=	23rd=	28th=	28th=	
Item No.	29	48	30	47	50	23	51
PCT 'Great Concern'	51%	51%	47%	45%	39%	38%	34%
Rank order overall	31st=	31st=	35th	37th=	45th=	48th	51st

Among these items, item 41, 15 and 46 have the highest percentages (60% - 64%) and are higher in rank order (12, 17, 19). In other words these are all problems of great concern to more than 60% of student teachers and beginning teachers. These items seem to be concerned with the student's own subject knowledge. Items 42, 45, 49, 29, 48 and 30 appear to be concerned with the practical relevance of the training for teaching. These came next in importance (47% - 56%); rank order (23rd=, 28th=, 28th=, 31st=, 31st=, 35th). Item 47, 23 and 51 seem to be concerned with the global characteristics of the course such as the density, difficulty and brevity. Each of these items has 45% or less rating as of great concern. Only item 50, which is concerned with teaching practice, seems to be anomalous. It was of great concern to 39% of the respondents.

Another group of items seems to focus on teaching competencies, i.e. items 10, 44, 11, 25, 35, 17, 20, 16 and 12. The percentages of scores and the overall rank order



of these items are shown in the following table:

Table 6.4 Items relating to teaching competencies

Item No.	10	44	11	25
PCT 'Great Concern'	75%	73%	68%	67%
Rank order overall	2nd=	4th	7th=	9th

Item No.	35	17	20	16	12
PCT 'Great Concern'	59%	57%	50%	45%	39%
Rank order overall	20th	21st=	34th	37th=	45th=

It can be seen that among the items that tend to dominate the top ten overall, are items 10, 44, 11 and 25 where they were of great concern to above 67% of student teachers and beginning teachers. Such items focus on competencies which seem to be very fundamental to teaching and are of crucial importance for success in teaching practice. Next in importance come items 35 and 17, which seemed to be more specific, focusing on different issues. Item 35 focuses on the use of AVAs and item 17 focuses on promoting pupils' understanding. These problems were of great concern to 59% and 57% of the respondents respectively. Two items i.e. items 20 and 16 seem to be concerned with idealistic kinds of concerns focusing on pupils' needs and implementation of theories. They represented great concern to 50% and 45% of the respondents respectively. The last item, i.e. item 12, seems to be more concerned with student teachers' and beginning teachers' emotional/social security. Therefore it will be dealt with elsewhere.



Five of the problems appeared to focus on school material conditions and resources. These are items 34, 28, 1, 52 and 19. The scores of these items in percentages and their overall rank order are shown in the following table:

Table 6.5 Items relating to school material conditions

Item No.	34	28	1	52	19
PCT 'Great Concern'	78%	75%	70%	68%	66%
Rank order overall	1st	2nd=	5th	7th=	10th

It is important to note that these problems are of dominant importance in that all of them were within the top ten items together with items focusing on 'competencies fundamental to teaching and for success in teaching practice' pointed out earlier. It can be seen that they were of great concern to more than 65% of student teachers and beginning teachers.

Another group of problems, that appeared in common-sense terms to belong together, tend to focus on relationships with other people, such as parents, head teachers, supervisors, inspectors and other teachers. These were items 7, 21, 36, 18, 6, 39, 43 and 40. In the table below these items, their scores in percentages, and the overall rank order are shown:

Table 6.6 Items relating to relationships with other people

Item No.	7	21	36	18
PCT 'Great Concern'	69%	56%	56%	51%
Rank order overall	6th	23rd=	23rd=	31st=
Item No.	6	39	43	40
PCT 'Great Concern'	41%	41%	39%	35%
Rank order overall	41st=	41st=	45=	49th=

It is apparent that item 7 which is concerned with parents' co-operation was of great concern to 69% of the population. It is an outstanding concern together with the materials and fundamental competencies referred to above. Head teachers' and supervisors' behaviour expressed in items 21 and 36 were both of great concern to 56% of the respondents. Next in importance comes item 18 which is concerned with the need for help and guidance from others. It was of great concern to 51% of the respondents. Items 6 and 39, concerned with administration's lack of consulting the teacher and the poor relations among teachers both represent great concern to 41% of the respondents. Of least importance among the problems relating to relationships are problems relating to relationships with supervisors regarding evaluation and inspectors' advice. These were rated as representing great concern by only 39% and 35% respectively.

It seems then, in terms of the very wide diversity in the amount of concern which they tend to cause, that these items do not have any of the similarity to each other which common sense suggests that they might. Furthermore, it is

difficult to interpret the different responses to the different items within this group in any meaningful way; neither the similarities nor the differences in the focus of these items seem to help in interpretation of the results.

Among the 52 items, items 37, 38, 2 and 5 appear to focus on job rewards such as salary, status, recognition and promotion. The following table shows the scores and the rank order of these items.

Table 6.7 Items relating to job rewards

Item No.	37	38	2	5
PCT 'Great Concern'	65%	63%	61%	55%
Rank order overall	11th	13th=	15th=	27th

It can be seen that great importance has been attached to item 37 which is concerned with the status of the teaching profession where it is of great concern to 65% of the respondents. This was followed by item 38 which is ranked as high as the more material rewards, i.e. item 2 which comes next to it in importance, where 63% and 61% respectively view them as representing great concern. Item 5, which is concerned with promotion opportunities comes last where it was of great importance to 55% of the respondents.

The results for these four items, certainly for the first three of them, are sufficiently similar to suggest that this is a meaningful grouping of items in relation to the



overall concern expressed about them. Although not of greatest concern, this area of job rewards - both psychological and material - appears to represent a high priority for this population of student-teachers and beginning teachers.

Some of the items tend to focus on teaching demands such as items 3, 32, 27, 14, 4, 31, 8 and 22. These items, their scores and the rank order are shown in the table below:

Table 6.8 Items relating to teaching demands

Item No.	3	32	27	14
PCT 'Great Concern'	63%	60%	57%	46%
Rank order overall	13th=	18th	21st=	36th
Item No.	4	31	8	22
PCT 'Great Concern'	44%	43%	40%	35%
Rank overall order	39th	40th	43rd	49th

Among these items, item 3, concerned with class size, is of greatest importance to the majority where it represented great concern to 63% of the respondents. Next in importance comes item 32, which is concerned with demand relating to pressure of time. It was rated by 60% of the respondents as representing great concern. Item 27, concerned with unsuitability of pupils' curriculum, was of great concern to 57% of the respondents. This was followed by item 14 which is concerned with teaching load where 46% of the population expressed great concern about it. Item 4 focuses on class composition, mixed abilities in particular.

This was of great concern to 44%. Density of pupils' curriculum, i.e. item 31, was of great concern to 43%. Of less importance are items 8 and 22. Both of these are concerned with time limitations. They were of great concern to 40% and 35% respectively.

It is difficult to see any patterns here. As with the 'relationships' grouping, the items in this group attract widely different degrees of concern, and there seems to be no obvious pattern in these differences within the group.

Three items seem to have to do with pupils' response to teaching. These are items 13, 26 and 9.

Table 6.9 Items relating to pupils' response to teaching

Item No.	13	26	9
PCT 'Great Concern'	61%	56%	53%
Rank order overall	15th=	23rd=	28th

First in importance among these items comes item 13 which is concerned with pupils' irregular attendance where it represented great concern to 61% of the respondents.

Second, comes their poor motivation to learn where 56% of the respondents rated this as representing great concern to them. Third comes the pupils' behaviour in the class i.e. the disorder which was of great concern to 53% of the student teachers and beginning teachers.

All three of these items, then, seem to attract a similar quite substantial amount of concern.

Three of the items appear to have a connection with students' emotional and social security. These are items 24, 12 and 33.

Table 6.10 Items relating to students' emotional/social security

Item No.	24	12	33
PCT 'Great Concern'	40%	39%	32%
Rank order overall	43rd=	45th=	52nd

It can be noticed that all of these items were of great concern to less than 50% of the respondents. Among these, item 24, concerned with embarrassment in the class, was of great concern to 40%, followed by item 12, concerned with facing pupils, which was of great concern to 39%. Of less importance is item 33 which is concerned with pupils' criticism where only 32% of the respondents expressed great concern about it.

Of all the identified groups of items, then, this area of the students' emotional security is, according to the students' ratings, clearly the one which is generally of least concern.

It should be observed that although the majority of the items appeared to be of great concern to students and beginning teachers, there were, for some of them, problems which appeared to represent only slight concern. Also, looking at the scores on the 'Not Sure' response, it can be seen that for some items nearly a quarter of the population were not sure about some problems, e.g. items 6, 40, 43.



These results, concerning the overall amount of concern which each of the 52 suggested problems caused to the sample as a whole, have been reported in terms of eight commonsense categories; these categories included different numbers of items, varying from 3 to 13. All four of the categories which included relatively few items seemed helpful in reporting the results: 'material conditions and resources' (5 items) was consistently an area of great concern; 'job rewards' (4 items) was, with almost equal consistency, an area of only slightly less concern; 'pupils' response to teaching' (3 items) was consistently an area of moderately high concern; and 'students' emotional/social security' (3 items) was consistently an area of low concern.

The usefulness of the four categories which included larger numbers of items was more varied. None of them had internally uniform results like the smaller groupings. However, both the 'institute's courses' category and, to a lesser extent, the 'teaching competencies' category led to meaningful interpretation when sub-categories were introduced. But neither the 'relationships' nor the 'teaching demands' categories provided any framework for understanding the results.

(b) The Relative Validity of Beliefs

It has been pointed out earlier that Questionnaire No.2 was concerned with the student teachers' and beginning teachers' beliefs. Respondents were provided with a list of 71 statements and they were requested to rate them, according to what they believe, to the degree that they are valid on a scale labelled 'Always Valid', 'Usually Valid', 'Sometimes Valid', 'Not Valid', and a fifth category 'Not Sure'.

Using the same procedure as the one used with Questionnaire No.1, that is Frequency Sub-programme, frequency counts and percentages for each statement, for each point on the scale for the total population were obtained. The following table shows the frequencies distribution and percentages for the total population according to their order in the questionnaire.

Table 6.11 Statements with frequency counts and percentages for these statements for the total sample

No.	Statement	Always Valid		Usually Valid		Sometimes Valid		Not Valid		Not Sure	
		F	PCT	F	PCT	F	PCT	F	PCT	F	PCT
1	Disorder in the class prevents pupils from learning	591	75	64	8	114	14	11	1	8	1
2	Preparing AVAs is a prerequisite for passing the teaching practice	432	55	208	26	133	17	4	1	9	1
3	Preparation of lessons makes it easier to explain lessons to pupils	603	77	121	15	47	6	7	1	3	0
4	Without AVAs it is difficult to impart information to pupils	133	17	189	24	381	48	73	9	10	1
5	Pupils can not have mastery of the content because of the density of the curriculum	168	21	198	25	235	30	69	9	113	14
6	More able pupils lose interest in mixed-ability classes	159	21	171	22	162	21	126	16	154	20
7	Without AVAs the outcomes of the teacher's efforts are reduced	167	21	189	24	273	35	128	16	29	4
8	Large classes demand the teacher to consider age difference among pupils	424	54	149	19	80	10	33	4	92	12
9	It is difficult to teach certain lessons because some textbooks do not present full information about the lesson	168	22	151	19	280	36	126	16	53	7
10	The presence of the supervisor in the class causes embarrassment	102	13	89	12	267	35	282	37	25	3
11	Without textbooks it is difficult to teach certain subjects	419	54	144	19	144	19	48	6	22	3



No.	Statement	Always Valid		Usually Valid		Sometimes Valid		Not Valid		Not Sure	
		F	PCT	F	PCT	F	PCT	F	PCT	F	PCT
12	Writing good lesson plans requires a great deal of time and effort	317	41	179	23	158	20	59	8	63	8
13	The teacher is not given useful advice by inspectors	109	14	100	13	185	24	285	37	101	13
14	One cannot attend to every pupil in the class because of limited period	324	41	165	21	164	21	76	10	52	7
15	It is necessary for student teachers to have an idea of the curriculum they are going to teach pupils	496	64	109	14	82	11	33	4	52	7
16	The instructions provided by the institute are intense to the extent that one does not fully benefit from them	197	25	128	16	200	26	213	27	42	5
17	Pupils achieve less when parents do not show an interest	450	58	137	18	112	14	42	5	40	5
18	The teacher can not fulfil his/her work properly if his/her salary is postponed	205	26	77	10	137	17	295	37	74	9
19	The insufficient number of rooms in school makes it difficult to carry out certain parts of curriculum activities	267	34	139	18	165	21	68	9	142	18
20	Some textbooks lack sufficient illustration	146	19	162	21	290	38	36	5	134	17
21	In classes of large numbers pupils can not understand easily	442	58	169	22	95	13	21	3	29	4

No.	Statement	Always Valid		Usually Valid		Sometimes Valid		Not Valid		Not Sure	
		F	PCT	F	PCT	F	PCT	F	PCT	F	PCT
22	Large classes are difficult to control	241	58	168	22	232	30	107	14	19	2
23	Young pupils cannot understand the curriculum	204	27	141	19	258	34	86	11	64	8
24	Without AVAs pupils might not understand the lesson properly	217	29	175	23	299	39	58	8	12	2
25	To avoid embarrassing situations one should prepare the lesson well	642	83	81	10	28	4	13	2	11	1
26	The good teacher is one whose majority of pupils pass the exam	382	51	149	20	104	14	49	6	72	10
27	Writing lesson plans is necessary to show the inspectors and head teachers	340	44	153	20	121	16	82	11	75	10
28	The good teacher is one who controls the class	500	66	130	17	64	8	49	6	11	1
29	Gaining experience during teaching practice is necessary to avoid embarrassing situations in the future	618	81	94	12	32	4	10	1	9	1
30	The attainments are reduced in teaching mixed-ability classes	95	12	162	21	188	24	130	17	203	26
31	The quality of ready-made AVAs is better than the ones made by the teacher	116	15	116	15	217	28	261	33	75	10
32	Carrying out certain activities in the school is restricted by unqualified head teachers	234	30	93	12	156	20	120	15	180	23
33	Teaching large classes is exhausting	458	58	146	19	119	15	39	5	23	3



No.	Statement	Always Valid		Usually Valid		Sometimes Valid		Not Valid		Not Sure	
		F	PCT	F	PCT	F	PCT	F	PCT	F	PCT
34	It is difficult to teach certain lessons because the content is unfamiliar to the teacher	117	15	116	15	255	33	181	23	111	14
35	Supervisors' criticism in front of pupils contributes to the student-teacher's embarrassment	544	70	92	12	78	10	41	5	19	2
36	Large classes require the teacher to deal with pupils of different abilities	347	45	168	22	95	12	44	6	119	15
37	Sharing textbooks makes it difficult for pupils to study	540	70	107	14	62	8	31	4	30	4
38	Writing on blackboard for pupils does not fulfil the function of the textbook	359	46	180	23	144	19	43	6	51	7
39	Unless education is carried out in a proper building educational development cannot be achieved	286	36	129	16	128	16	119	15	125	16
40	The guidance and instructions that are given to student teachers in the institute do not agree with reality	120	15	113	15	219	28	256	33	71	9
41	Large classes are a source of disorder	468	60	141	18	149	19	21	3	7	1
42	Teacher training institutes' curricula should prepare students for university specialization	438	56	113	15	53	7	89	11	85	11
43	Without parents' support the teacher's efforts are futile	293	38	179	23	175	23	49	6	76	10



No.	Statement	Always Valid		Usually Valid		Sometimes Valid		Not Valid		Not Sure	
		F	PCT	F	PCT	F	PCT	F	PCT	F	PCT
44	In large classes which comprise different ages the older children lose interest	251	32	172	22	202	26	36	5	115	15
45	Wrong conduct is shown by unqualified head teachers	263	34	119	15	178	23	39	5	186	24
46	Unqualified head teachers represent constraint to applying new ideas in education	309	40	139	18	132	17	50	6	142	18
47	To answer pupils' questions one should acquaint himself/herself with the content of the lesson beforehand	499	64	155	20	86	11	27	3	10	1
48	AVAs are a prerequisite for teaching	436	56	156	20	157	20	17	2	13	2
49	Maintaining order in the class is necessary in order to pass the teaching practice	612	78	119	15	31	4	13	2	5	1
50	When one is faced with problems he/she does not find sources to refer to in order to solve them	113	15	115	15	174	23	118	15	243	32
51	The subjects taught in the institute are brief compared to the subjects taught in general secondary school	326	42	121	16	112	14	146	19	71	9
52	To be able to teach in higher primary classes there should be different sections (Science and Arts in the institute)	527	67	90	11	55	7	62	8	52	7
53	Controlling the class is essential for giving supervisors a good impression	491	63	142	18	72	9	67	9	8	1

No.	Statement	Always Valid		Usually Valid		Sometimes Valid		Not Valid		Not Sure	
		F	PCT	F	PCT	F	PCT	F	PCT	F	PCT
54	Teaching in the open air reduces the pupils' gains	398	52	155	20	93	12	56	7	65	8
55	Being corrected by supervisors in front of pupils is frustrating	341	44	130	17	131	17	142	18	37	5
56	The teacher can not sequence the information to pupils if they do not attend regularly	429	55	169	22	82	11	39	5	59	8
57	Little time is allocated to teaching practice	223	29	123	16	120	16	236	31	71	9
58	Many pupils lack motivation for learning	227	31	149	20	213	29	39	5	112	15
59	The child likes the school when he finds suitable seats, a good atmosphere, good ventilation and treatment	640	82	89	11	32	4	7	1	17	2
60	The unavailability of textbooks makes it difficult for pupils to understand	493	63	168	22	94	12	8	1	17	2
61	The administration does not take the teacher's opinion in some matters	154	20	120	15	217	28	107	14	183	23
62	The teacher training institutes' graduates feel that they are not adequately qualified for teaching in some of the higher primary classes	116	15	95	12	180	23	209	27	184	23
63	Primary school teacher does not get promotion which would increase his/her salary	364	47	73	9	76	10	62	8	206	26
64	Textbooks save the teacher's time and effort	504	64	151	19	82	10	31	4	15	2



No.	Statement	Always Valid		Usually Valid		Sometimes Valid		Not Valid		Not Sure	
		F	PCT	F	PCT	F	PCT	F	PCT	F	PCT
65	In large classes the teacher cannot achieve similar levels with all pupils	395	51	175	23	132	17	40	5	33	4
66	Some supervisors and inspectors (external examiners) expect the students to do some things which are difficult to do	121	16	93	12	240	31	196	25	130	17
67	Certain theoretical guidance is needed after graduation	422	54	135	17	130	17	35	4	62	8
68	One should satisfy supervisors with the lesson he/she teaches in order to get good grades	310	40	118	15	96	12	215	27	44	6
69	When the student teacher teaches for the first time he/she fears that pupils might not understand him/her	231	30	159	20	212	27	131	17	47	6
70	Covering the syllabus is difficult because of the density of the curriculum	139	18	127	16	191	24	138	18	188	24
71	Pupils' criticism of the teacher causes embarrassment	230	29	117	15	201	26	175	22	65	8



From the above table it is observed that for each statement the scores ranged from 'Always Valid' to 'Not Valid' plus the 'Not Sure' category which was provided for the respondents to use when they have not known or felt uncertain whether or not the issue is valid.

In the following table the statements are placed in order from the highest to the lowest according to percentages of the scores on the 'Always Valid' category.

Table 6.12 Statements rank ordered from the highest to the lowest according to the scores on the 'Always Valid' category

No.	Statement	%
25	To avoid embarrassing situations one should prepare the lesson well	83
59	The child likes the school when he finds suitable seats, a good atmosphere, good ventilation and treatment	82
29	Gaining experience during teaching practice is necessary to avoid embarrassing situations in the future	81
49	Maintaining order in the class is necessary in order to pass the teaching practice	78
3	Preparation of lessons makes it easier to explain lessons to pupils	77
1	Disorder in the class prevents pupils from learning	75
35	Supervisors' criticism in front of pupils contributes to the student teachers' embarrassment	70
37	Sharing textbooks makes it difficult for pupils to study	70
52	To be able to teach in higher primary classes there should be different sections in the institute (Science and Arts)	67
28	The good teacher is the one who controls the class	66

No.	Statement	%
15	It is necessary for student teachers to have an idea of the curriculum they are going to teach pupils	64
47	To answer pupils' questions one should acquaint himself/herself with the content of the lessons beforehand	64
64	Textbooks save the teacher's time and effort	64
53	Controlling the class is essential for giving supervisors a good impression	63
60	The unavailability of textbooks makes it difficult for pupils to understand	63
41	Large classes are a source of disorder	60
17	Pupils achieve less when parents do not show an interest	58
21	In classes of large numbers pupils can not understand easily	58
33	Teaching large classes is exhausting	58
42	Teacher Training Institutes's curriculum should prepare students for university specialization	56
48	AVAs are a prerequisite for teaching	56
2	Preparing AVAs is a prerequisite for passing the teaching practice	55
56	The teacher cannot sequence the information to pupils if they do not attend regularly	55
8	Large classes demand the teacher to consider age differences among pupils	54
11	Without textbooks it is difficult to teach certain subjects	54
67	Certain theoretical guidance is needed after graduation	54
54	Teaching in the open air reduces the pupils' gains	52
26	The good teacher is one whose majority of pupils pass the exam	51



No.	Statement	%
65	In large classes the teacher cannot achieve similar levels with all pupils	51
63	Primary school teacher does not get promotion which would increase his salary	47
38	Writing on the blackboard for pupils does not fulfil the function of the textbook	46
36	Large classes require the teacher to deal with pupils of different abilities	45
27	Writing lesson plans is necessary to show the inspectors and head teachers	44
55	Being corrected by supervisors in front of pupils is frustrating	44
51	The subjects taught in the institute are brief compared to the subjects taught in general secondary school	42
12	Writing good lesson plans requires a great deal of time and effort	41
14	One cannot attend to every pupil in the class because of the limited period	41
46	Unqualified head teachers represent constraint to applying new ideas in education	40
68	One should satisfy supervisors with the lesson he/she teaches in order to get good grades	40
43	Without parents' support the teacher's efforts are futile	38
39	Unless education is carried out in a proper building educational development cannot be achieved	36
19	The insufficient number of rooms in school makes it difficult to carry out certain parts of the curriculum activities	34
45	Wrong conduct is shown by unqualified head teachers	34
44	In large classes which comprise different ages the older children tend to lose interest	32



No.	Statement	%
22	Large classes are difficult to control	31
58	Many pupils lack motivation for learning	31
32	Carrying out certain activities in the school is restricted by unqualified head teachers	30
69	When the student teacher teaches for the first time he/she fears that pupils might not understand him/her	30
24	Without AVAs pupils might not understand the lesson properly	29
57	Little time is allocated to teaching practice	29
71	Pupils' criticism of the teacher causes embarrassment	29
23	Young pupils cannot understand the curriculum	27
18	The teacher can not fulfil his/her work properly if his/her salary is postponed	26
16	The instructions provided by the institute are intense to the extent that one does not fully benefit from them	25
9	It is difficult to teach certain lessons because some textbooks do not present full information about the lesson	22
5	Pupils can not have mastery of the content because of the density of the curriculum	21
6	More able pupils lose interest in mixed-ability classes	21
7	Without AVAs the outcomes of the teacher's efforts are reduced	21
61	The administration does not take the teacher's opinions in some matters	20
20	Some textbooks lack sufficient illustration	19
70	Covering the syllabus is difficult because of the density of the curriculum	18
4	Without AVAs it is difficult to impart information to pupils	17
66	Some supervisors and inspectors (external examiners) expect the students to do some things which are difficult to do	16

No.	Statement	%
31	The quality of ready made AVAs is better than the ones made by the teacher	15
34	It is difficult to teach certain lessons because the content is unfamiliar to the teacher	15
40	The guidance and instructions that are given to student teachers in the institute do not agree with the reality	15
50	When one is faced with problems he/she does not find sources to refer to in order to solve them	15
62	The teacher training institute's graduates feel that they are not adequately qualified for teaching in some of the higher primary classes	15
13	The teacher is not given useful advice by inspectors	14
10	The presence of the supervisor in the class causes embarrassment	13
30	The attainments are reduced in teaching mixed-ability classes	12

As for the problems, the categories provided by Factor Analysis for the beliefs do not seem to be useful to adopt in looking at the relative validity of the beliefs, due to the variation in frequencies of the statements grouped by Factor Analysis. For example, the seven statements grouped in Factor 1 "Blaming Authorities" (18, 40, 66, 32, 13, 16, and 63) tended to vary as to the relative validity in their frequency distributions between 14% and 47%. Another example is the beliefs grouped in Factor 2 "Importance and Absence of AVAs" (7, 4, 24, 2, 3 and 48).

In their frequency distributions those beliefs tended to vary between 17% and 77% of the respondents.

Thus, the groupings suggested by Factor Analysis do not seem to be useful in presenting the results of the relative validity of the belief statements. Hence, as for the 'problems' results, a framework of commonsense groupings will be employed in discussing the 'beliefs' results.

Sixteen of the statements seem to focus on teaching demands. The table below shows the scores of these belief statements in percentages and their overall rank order:

Table 6.13 Beliefs relating to teaching demands

Statement No.	41	21	33	8
PCT 'Always Valid'	60%	58%	58%	54%
Rank order overall	14th=	17th=	17th=	24th=
Statement No.	65	36	12	14
PCT 'Always Valid'	51%	45%	41%	41%
Rank order overall	28th=	32nd	36th=	36th=
Statement No.	44	22	23	5
PCT 'Always Valid'	32%	31%	27%	21%
Rank order overall	44th	45th=	52nd	56th=
Statement No.	6	70	34	30
PCT 'Always Valid'	21%	18%	15%	12%
Rank order overall	56th=	61st	64th=	71st



About half of these statements are beliefs related to class size i.e. teaching large classes, i.e. statements 41, 21, 33, 8, 65, 36 and 22. Statements 12 and 14 are beliefs which seem to be concerned with time limitations. Statements 44, 23, 6 and 30 are beliefs about demands focusing on class composition i.e. mixed ages and mixed abilities. Statements 5, 70 and 34 are beliefs about demands related to pupils' curriculum. Among these four types of teaching demands-related beliefs, the beliefs related to class size demands (with the exception of statement 22) seem to be asserted as being most generally valid. As may be noted, these beliefs express the effects that large classes can have on both pupils and the teacher. They were seen as always valid by 60%, 58%, 58%, 54%, 51% and 45% respectively. Next in emphasis come the beliefs relating to time limitations, i.e. statements 12 and 14. Each was asserted as always valid by 41% of the population. Beliefs relating to class composition effects on pupils, in statements 44, 23, and 6 were asserted as less generally valid where only 32%, 27% and 21% of the respondents respectively rated such statements as always valid. Of lowest priority were beliefs as to pupils' curriculum demands in terms of its effects on the pupil and the teacher. This can be seen in statements 5, 70 and 34 which were rated as always valid by only 21%, 18% and 15% of the respondents respectively. Thus, with the exception only of items 22 and 30, responses to the sixteen demands-related statements fall into a clear pattern, with beliefs seen as being most widely valid being those about the effects of class size, and then in

order those about the effects of time limitations, class composition and curriculum characteristics.

Among the beliefs listed above, some appear to be about teaching competencies such as statements 49, 3, 47, 53, 2 and 68. The following table shows these statements with their scores in percentages and the overall rank order:

Table 6.14 Beliefs relating to teaching competencies

Statement No.	49	3	47	53	2	68
PCT 'Always Valid'	78%	77%	64%	63%	55%	40%
Rank order overall	4th	5th	11th=	14th=	22nd=	38th=

It can be observed that almost all of these beliefs were considered as being always valid by more than 50% of the respondents. Among the top five beliefs dominating the list was statement 49, which is concerned with maintaining order in the class as a necessary competence for passing teaching practice, where 78% of the respondents considered it to be always valid. Next in assertion came statements 3 and 47, both concerned with competency of lesson preparation as a means for facilitating teaching. These were rated as being always valid by 77% and 64% respectively. Statements 53 and 2, focusing on teaching practice success were considered as being always valid by 63% and 55% of the respondents respectively. Of lower priority was statement 68, which is concerned with satisfying supervisors with the lesson they teach in order to get good grades. 40% of the respondents rated it as always valid.



With this exception, there appears to be a considerable degree of consensus among the respondents about what is needed for success on teaching practice.

Among the seventy-one statements listed above, sixteen statements appear to focus on the school material conditions and resources. These statements, the scores and their rank order, are shown in the following table:

Table 6.15 Beliefs relating to the school material conditions and resources

Statement No.	59	37	64	60	48
PCT 'Always Valid'	82%	70%	64%	63%	56%
Rank order overall	2nd	7th=	11th=	14th=	20th=

Statement No.	11	54	38	39	19
PCT 'Always Valid'	54%	52%	46%	36%	34%
Rank order overall	24th=	27th	31st	41st	42nd=

Statement No.	24	9	7	20	4	31
PCT 'Always Valid'	29%	22%	21%	19%	17%	15%
Rank order overall	49th	55th	56th=	60th	62nd	64th=

Among these beliefs some tend to be concerned with the school material conditions such as buildings and furniture. This can be seen in statements 59, 54, 39 and 19. Some others such as 37, 64, 60, 11, 9 and 20 tend to relate to textbooks. Statements 48, 24, 7, 4 and 31 are concerned with AVAs. Among these sub-types of beliefs, the majority of the statements focus on the effects that the school material conditions and resources can have on the pupil and the teacher. Statement 59 stands out among



these statements in that 82% of respondents asserted that it was 'always valid'; it was a very general statement about how students respond to a good material environment. Apart from it, most of the statements which received strongest support concerned the effects of textbooks not being available, i.e. statements 37, 64, 60, 11 and 38. Statements 54, 39 and 19 about school building were considered to be generally rather less valid, although statement 54 about the effects of not having buildings to teach in gained much more support than the other two statements, about the effects of the quality or size of the building. While statement 48, a general assertion about the need for AVAs was rated 'always valid' by the majority, more specific statements about AVAs and their effects received much less support as being always valid. Similarly, statements 9 and 20, about the quality of textbooks - as opposed to their existence - received only limited support.

Several statements seem to focus on the institute's courses such as statements 52, 15, 42, 51, 57, 16, 40 and 62. The following table shows the scores of these beliefs and their overall rank order:

Table 6.16 Beliefs relating to the institute's courses

Statement No.	52	15	42	51
PCT 'Always Valid'	67%	64%	56%	42%
Rank order overall	9th	11th=	20th=	35th
Statement No.	57	16	40	62
PCT 'Always Valid'	29%	25%	15%	15%
Rank order overall	49th=	54th	64th=	64th=

Among these the most commonly emphasised were those statements which appear to be connected with the courses' relevance. In other words statements 52 and 15 tend to emphasise what is of relevance to them. These beliefs were agreed to as always valid, by 67% and 64% respectively. Second in assertion come the beliefs that seemed to relate to students' own subject knowledge, following the same pattern of general secondary schools. This is clearly seen in statements 42 and 51 which were agreed to as being always valid by 56% and 42% of the respondents respectively. Third in assertion comes belief 57 which is concerned with teaching practice, where it was agreed to be always valid by only 29% of the population. Belief 16 is seen as less often valid. It is concerned with the course characteristics i.e. its intensity. Only 25% of the respondents believed that it was always valid that the instruction provided by the institute was intense. Even less emphasised were statements 40 and 62, which both seem to relate to the course failure to agree with some of the school realities. Each of these beliefs

were agreed to be always valid by only 15% of the respondents.

Statements 46, 43, 45, 32, 61, 66 and 13 are beliefs which appear to focus on relationships with other people such as head teachers, parents, inspectors, and teaching practice supervisors. These statements, their scores and the overall rank order are shown in the table below:

Table 6.17 Beliefs relating to relationships with other people

Statement No.	46	43	45	
PCT 'Always Valid'	40%	38%	34%	
Rank order overall	38th=	40th	42nd=	
Statement No.	32	61	66	13
PCT 'Always Valid'	30%	20%	16%	14%
Rank order overall	47th=	59th	63rd	69th

It can be observed that all the beliefs relating to the relationships of student teachers and beginning teachers with other people were less commonly asserted. In fact, no more than 40% of the respondents agreed to any of these statements as always valid. However, apart from the belief that teachers depend on support from parents, which was agreed to be always valid by 38% of the respondents, the majority of this group of statements tend to focus on relationships with head teachers, in particular the effects that unqualified head teachers can have on the teacher and teaching. This can be observed in statements 46, 45, 32 and 61 which were rated as always valid, by between 20%



and 40% of the respondents. Beliefs relating to relationships with supervisors and inspectors were the least commonly asserted within this group of beliefs. This can be seen in the ratings of statements 66 and 10, where only 16% and 13% of the respondents rated them as being always valid.

Several statements, such as 25, 29, 35, 55, 69, 71 and 10, appear to focus on student teachers' security in classrooms. The scores of these statements and their overall rank order are shown in the following table:

Table 6.18 Beliefs relating to student teachers' security

Statement No.	25	29	35	55
PCT 'Always Valid'	83%	81%	70%	44%
Rank order overall	1st	3rd	7th=	33rd=
Statement No.	69	71	10	
PCT 'Always Valid'	30%	29%	13%	
Rank order overall	47th=	49th	70th	

Among these statements, statements 25 and 29 are concerned with ways of avoiding embarrassment and ensuring security in the class. These two statements were among the top five beliefs which student teachers and beginning teachers consider to be most valid, where they were rated as always valid by 83% and 81% respectively. The rest of the statements focusing on security seem to be beliefs about the things that represent threats to their security. Among these, statements 35 and 55 are concerned with teaching practice supervisors' behaviour in the classes.

Statement 35, concerned with supervisors' criticism of student teachers in the class, comes in the top ten beliefs most commonly emphasised as being always valid, with 70% rating this belief as such. Statement 55 which is concerned with supervisors' correction of students as a source of feeling insecure in the class, seemed to be less commonly agreed to, only 44% agreeing to it as always valid. Next in emphasis come the beliefs that are concerned with personal reasons for feeling insecure due, perhaps to fear that pupils would not understand, as in statement 69, which was rated as always valid by 30%, or to pupils' criticism of the teacher, as in statement 71, where only 29% of the respondents agreed to it as always valid. While the supervisors' criticism and correction of student teachers in class were highly emphasised among the threats to their security, the supervisors' presence in class was the least commonly emphasised as a cause of insecurity in the class where only 12% of the respondents scored it as always valid.

Two of the seventy-one statements seem to be concerned with job rewards. These statements, their scores and their overall rank order are shown in the following table:

Table 6.19 Beliefs relating to job rewards

Statement No.	63	18
PCT 'Always Valid'	47%	26%
Rank order overall	30th	53rd

Generally, job rewards related beliefs appear to receive less support where less than 50% of the population agreed to either of these statements as always valid. Statement 63 which is concerned with promotion opportunities rated by 47% of the respondents as being always valid. Of less emphasis comes the belief expressed in statement 18 which relates to the effect the delay of the salary can have on the teacher where only 26% expressed agreement about it being always valid.

Statements 28 and 26 are beliefs which appeared to focus on teacher evaluation. The scores of these beliefs and the overall rank order are shown below:

Table 6.20 Beliefs relating to teacher evaluation

Statement No.	28	26
PCT 'Always Valid'	66%	51%
Rank order overall	10th	28th=

These statements focus on two criteria of judging the good teacher. The more commonly asserted criterion was that which has to do with controlling pupils where it was rated by 66%. Next comes the criterion that tends to relate to the number of pupils passing the exam which was rated as always valid by 51% of the respondents.

Three of the statements tend to focus on pupils' response to teaching. These were statement 1, 56, and 58. Below is a table showing the scores of these statements and their



overall rank order.

Table 6.21 Beliefs relating to pupils' response to teaching

Statement No.	1	56	58
PCT 'Always Valid'	75%	55%	31%
Rank order overall	6th	22nd=	45th=

It can be seen that among the top ten beliefs to which respondents agreed as always valid was statement 1, which is concerned with pupils' misbehaviour in the class and its effect on pupils' learning. It was agreed to as always valid by 75% of the respondents. Statement 56 which is concerned with pupils' absenteeism and its effect on the teacher comes next in emphasis where 55% of the respondents agreed to it as always valid. Of least emphasis among these three statements was statement 58, the belief that relates to pupils' motivation to learn where it was agreed to as always valid by only 31% of the population.

It ought to be mentioned that the remaining four belief statements did not appear to have anything in common.

(c) Relationship between problems and beliefs

In the previous two sections the student teachers' and beginning teachers' Problems were presented according to the relative importance and their beliefs were presented according to the relative validity. Several categories, however, have been found to be of some help in presenting these sets of results, for problems and beliefs. In this section an attempt is made to locate the ways in which the patterns of results for problems help the writer to understand the patterns of beliefs and vice versa, that is the ways in which the pattern of beliefs help in understanding the patterns of problems, or indeed any other way I could see a connection between the two sets of results. In other words an open-ended approach is taken to explore the relationships between both sets of results. Since each of the sets of results has been presented on its own, only what seemed to be possibly significant relationships of whatever kind between the two sets will be reported here.

It should be noted, here, that in exploring the relationship between the results, it is predominantly found that the results of the beliefs help to explain the results of problems.

It is observed that among the 52 problems, several were grouped as relating to teaching competencies. On the other hand a group of beliefs about competencies were

also identified. Examination of both groups seems to suggest some kind of illumination of the importance attached to such competencies. We saw that a great importance was attached, by a large proportion of respondents, to certain competencies. The beliefs seem to suggest why some of these competencies might be of great concern to the majority of respondents. For example, one of the five problems that were of dominant concern to student teachers and beginning teachers was item 10 which was concerned with maintaining order in the class. At the same time among the five beliefs that were considered to be most valid by the majority of respondents was statement 49 which was focusing on the belief that maintaining order in the class is necessary to pass teaching practice.

More generally, it seems likely that the concern expressed about problems of preparing and presenting lessons, maintaining discipline and interesting pupils may result from the belief that these relatively visible aspects of teaching performance are fundamental for teaching practice success.

Five of the ten problems causing most concern were related to material provision for schooling. However, the sixteen statements relating to such material problems attracted very different levels of agreement. Many of them, it is clear, do not provide explanation of the high level of concern associated with these problems. With regard to textbooks, the source of greatest concern,



there is a high level of agreement about the disadvantages following from the lack of them, but not about problems of textbook quality. The emphasis is very clearly on having enough textbooks, not their quality. This also seems to be the case, although less strikingly so, for school buildings. There is quite a high level of agreement also on a statement about the general need for audio-visual aids, but other statements about the specific consequences of not having them attract much less agreement. Especially with audio-visual aids, but also probably with other aspects of material provision, it is the multiple or pervasive consequences of their absence rather than any particular consequence that seems to underlie the concern.

Among the problems that were classified as relating to teaching demands, some tended to focus on class size, some on time limitations, some on class composition and some others on pupils' curriculum; however, these sub-categories did not seem to help in interpreting results. In looking at the beliefs, similar sub-types were identified, with greater apparent usefulness. It seems reasonable to suggest some kind of relationship between problems and beliefs with regard to class size which was of great concern to a high proportion of respondents, while at the same time the beliefs relating to class size were agreed to by a high proportion of respondents as always valid. For example, they believe that it is always valid that large classes are difficult to control,

cause exhaustion, do not enable the teacher to achieve similar levels for different pupils, and that they contribute to their difficulties of understanding. Such beliefs might provide an explanation for the problem of large class size, about which a high proportion of student teachers and beginning teachers were concerned to a large extent.

While a problem relating to time limitations demands followed that of class size in importance within this category, the beliefs relating to time limitations also followed the beliefs about class size in the degree of validity. More detailed examination, however, shows the situation to be more confusing: while a problem of time for individual pupils was of quite high concern and is matched by a statement attracting quite high agreement, a statement attracting equal agreement about lack of time for lesson planning corresponds to a problem which was rated as of very little concern.

The fact that some of the other problems relating to teaching demands were of great concern only to a small proportion seems to be explained by the small proportion of respondents who tended to agree with corresponding statements, for example on mixed ability classes and the density of the pupils' curriculum.

It has been noticed that among the problems concerned with the institute's course those of highest priority were



concerned with the student's own subject knowledge followed by problems focusing on the practical relevance of the course, and next in importance come the problems relating to general course characteristics. It was also observed that some of the beliefs relating to the course most commonly supported as being always valid were beliefs relating to the course relevance, followed by those concerned with students' own subject knowledge and course characteristics. Looking at both of these sets of problems and beliefs seems to suggest that the beliefs appear to provide an understanding of some, but only some, of the problems related to the course. For example, a relatively high proportion of respondents were concerned to a large extent with the course neglect of specialization. At the same time a high proportion of them believed that specialization is necessary for university study and for teaching in higher grades of primary school. This might point to the reasons for being so concerned with such problems. It might be worth mentioning on the other hand that while a relatively high proportion expressed great concern about the problem of the course's failure to reflect primary school realities, only a small proportion tended to believe that it was generally valid that the course did not agree with reality. Similarly, while a high proportion expressed great concern about the inadequate training as a subject teacher, only a small proportion tended to believe that the graduates feel unqualified to teach in higher primary classes.

Some of the course-related beliefs which were agreed to



by only a small proportion of respondents seem to throw some light on why some of the problems represented great concern only to a small proportion of the respondents. For example, as problems relating to the characteristics of the course such as brevity and density were of great concern only to a small proportion of respondents, so only a small proportion of respondents tended to believe that the subjects taught are brief and the courses are intense.

While problems related to students' security were of great concern to only a small proportion of respondents, high proportions of respondents tended to consider statements relating to causes of insecurity and to ways of avoiding it as generally valid. This seems to suggest some understanding of the reasons that contribute to their insecurity and of how they avoid it. It may be that students and beginning teachers who do not want to admit to having problems of this kind are more ready to agree to statements of what is generally the case.

It was observed that a high proportion of respondents expressed great concern about problems relating to job rewards such as salary, promotion, and status. On the other hand, only a small proportion seemed to agree with the statements of beliefs relating to job rewards. For example, a small proportion believed that it is always valid that the primary school teacher does not get promotion which increases his/her salary and that if the

salary is postponed he/she cannot fulfil the work properly. These particular statements therefore do not seem to reflect the beliefs which underlie the problems which concerned respondents.

While some of the problems relating to relationships with other people were of great concern to a high proportion of the population, all the beliefs relating to relationships with others tended to be less commonly agreed to. Nevertheless, at least for some of the problems and some of the beliefs, within each set, the same sequence of importance for the problems and of validity of the beliefs, was found. For example, relationships with parents and head teachers, within both the problems and the beliefs, occupied the top in importance and in validity. The beliefs do seem to explain some of these problems although they were not considered as highly valid by a higher proportion. For example, the reasons for student teachers' and beginning teachers' concerns about the parents' and head teachers' behaviour can be understood to some extent.

In the previous chapter the relationship between factors relating to student teachers' and beginning teachers' problems and the factors relating to their beliefs has been discussed. It was observed that the relationship was not helpful in giving understanding of the structuring of variations in concerns and beliefs within the population. It was concluded, therefore, that it would not be

helpful to attempt to integrate the reporting of the results for the two questionnaires. Despite this conclusion the attempt was maintained in reporting the overall results for the complete sample. In this latter case, the relatedness of both problems and beliefs has been of some help in that some of the beliefs provided some understanding for some of the problems and vice versa. However, in dealing with the remaining data it will probably be easier to deal with the remaining Problems data first and then all the remaining Beliefs data. If a clear relationship exists between the two sets of data, it will be pointed out.